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20, 39, 60, 79, 99, 118, 136, 154, 173, 194, 211, 231, 250, 270, 289, 307, 327, 347, 367, 387, 406, 424, 445, 465, 485, 505.

ERRATA.

Page 52, col. ii., line 36 from bottom. For "January" read "December." Line 9 from bottom. For "Wenn" read "Wann."

Page 77, col. i., line 18 from bottom. For "fire-red" read "fine red."

Page 90, col. ii. Dele third paragraph from bottom (Peacock).

Page 127, col. ii., line 3 from bottom. For "phantomnate or phantomnation" read "phantomate or phantomation."

Page 152, col. i., line 27 from bottom. For "T. Codman" read "J. T. Codman."

Page 162, col. iii., line 32. For "Macmillan" read "Henry Frowde."

Page 221, col. iii., lines 19 and 30 from bottom. For "Monsieur" read "Mademoiselle."

Page 343, col. iii., line 30. For "a glass, marble, or a brass ball" read "a glass marble," etc.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 4, 1900.

The Week.

The reported success of Secretary Hay's efforts to obtain a joint international guarantee of the "open door" in China will constitute, if real, a great diplomatic achievement. That the Government has been working for this end has been no secret. The President alluded to the matter in his message, when he said that no infringement of our treaty rights in China had yet occurred, and that the purpose of the Administration was to see that none should occur. That expression suggests the rationale of the affair—to maintain unimpaired our commercial rights in China enjoyed under existing treaties. The danger was, of course, that the successive annexations, or "leases" for ninety-nine years as the wise it call, might have the effect of snuffing out our treaties. China would be disposed still to observe them, but would the European Powers who had taken over Chinese territory? The example of English experience in Madagascar is instructive. When France, not without some diplomatic trickery, suddenly declared Madagascar French territory, instead of merely a French protectorate, British treaty rights of trade in that island were at once extinguished. Lord Salisbury complained, but M. Hanotaux was firm, and the English were left without redress. Mr. Hay foresaw a similar peril to our interests in China, and took steps to forestall it diplomatically.

Mr. Kasson has taken a hand in explaining the French reciprocity treaty. He is naturally displeased at the assertion of the French Government that they got quite the better of him in the bargain. As a matter of fact, he is certain that he worsted them. They were simply in despair at his superior craft and cunning in the negotiation, and at one time ruefully thought of abandoning the whole treaty, which was such a monument of their diplomatic defeat; but finally they concluded to put a bold face on it and tell the Chamber that they had got the better of the wily Americans. Mr. Kasson, however, is not putting a bold face on it when he affirms that he completely outmanœuvred the Frenchmen; he is telling the simple historic truth, and has no thought of influencing the action of the Senate. Truthful James could not be more solemn than he in assuring the troubled California fruit-growers that their interests are dear to his heart, and have not been neglected in the least. But the amusing thing about all this, as about the Argentine treaty, is that free-trade arguments are so innocently used by men who have gone all their lives in horror of them. "In any other mouth," said Pascal's Jesuit, "these opinions would be orthodox"; coming from a Jansenist, of course they were heretical. So we say, if anybody but Mr. McKinley talked as he does about the French and Argentine treaties, he would be a free-trader.

Appraiser Wakeman continues to be a thorn in the side of New York importers. It has seemed to be his view all along that importing is an immoral act, which has somehow been recognized and tolerated by the United States Government, but which good men should discountenance and prevent as much as possible. So he takes all possible means to check this kind of misdemeanor. The result is that foreign trade really belonging to New York seeks other ports, where less fanatical appraisers are stationed. It would not be surprising if New York should receive the bulk of her dry-goods of foreign make through the Boston custom-house before the expiration of Wakeman's term. So, as we cannot have Wakemans at all our ports, we should not be suppressing the evil practice of importing, but only changing its lurking-place. A report comes from Washington that Wakeman will not be removed from office, but that ne will be warned to mend his ways. Such leniency will be a mistake on the part of the higher authorities. Wakeman has received many warnings to "be decent," but they have been of no avail, because the crime of importing was constantly going on before his eyes. As well expect a Puritan of the seventeenth century to keep his hands off an image in a Catholic church. Foreign goods are a kind of godless idolatry to the Wakeman vision, and an importer, although he may be a protective tariff man himself and a member of the very League of which Wakeman was Secretary, is in his eyes an object of sleepless vigilance and never ending suspicion.

The native Cuban press treated Gen. Brooke's farewell proclamation with grave humor. "We look around us," said the *Diario de la Marina*, "as Gen. Brooke urges us to do, but we do not see the things he says we shall." One of them was judicial and prison reform, upon which Gen. Wood seems now to be entering with vigor. Towards the new Military Governor all factions are very respectful. This, however, may be only provisional, until Wood chooses his Cabinet; then he will be apt to hear things said in fluent Castilian. The *Cubano* already demands the dismissal of Gen. Ludlow, who, it says, "has governed by means of ukases signed with the point of his sword." These are but indications of the swarming difficulties which will try the patience and tact of Gen. Wood in his new and arduous position, but which we think he will surmount.

We suppose that the incorporation of the Panama Canal Campany in New Jersey on Wednesday of last week is intended partly to remove the deadly reproach that it was a "foreign" enterprise. This was used as a fatal taunt in the last Congress. It will be no longer available, however, now that the incorporators are able to announce "the Americanization of the Panama Canal." This makes the Panama route at least as patriotic as the Nicaragua plan, and thus the eminent engineers who are investigating the comparative technical merits of the two are at liberty to dismiss all invidious questions about the flag, and look only for the better place to dig a canal. Their report cannot, in all probability, be laid before Congress in its present session. The President evidently does not expect that it will be, as he said in his message that "a comprehensive and complete investigation is called for, which will require much labor and considerable time for its accomplishment." Yet this, of course, has not prevented the impetuous Hepburn and the fiery Morgan from announcing that they propose to push bills for the construction of a Nicaragua Canal, without waiting for any little thing like a Government report. They will be more than ever inclined to make haste when they learn that the Americanized Panama Company proposes to raise American capital and complete its canal without asking money from Congress.

President McKinley must see the absurdity of forbidding Federal office-holders to attend the Republican national convention for two or three days next June, and at the same time allowing one of the chief among such office-holders to act for nearly a year as chairman of an important partisan committee. It would be logical to let First Assistant Postmaster-General Heath be head of the "committee on organization and literature" just established by the Republican national committee, and also to let as many postmasters throughout the country go to the convention at Philadelphia as could secure election as delegates. It would be logical also to prohibit such partisan activity by both superior and subordinates. But to say that Mr. Heath of Indiana may turn himself into a partisan worker for the next ten months, as First Assistant

Postmaster-General at Washington, while he could not even be a delegate to the national convention if he were a postmaster at home, seems too ridiculous for the President to permit—to say nothing of the scandal involved in the license to neglect his public duties thus given the official who stands next to the head in a great department.

The news which Elliot Danforth, formerly our leading silver and Bryan Democrat in this State, has brought from the South confirms similar information from Washington. He says that the Southern Democratic leaders are not insisting upon making free silver the main issue in next year's campaign, that they acknowledge that the situation has changed since 1896, and that they now think Trusts and imperialism will be the dominant issues in 1900. As for candidates, they mention only Bryan for first place, with some Eastern man for second. Why not throw over Bryan with the free-silver issue? He never had any other excuse for being a candidate, and, without that issue, he will have no claim to a renomination. If he consents to be separated from his issue, he will be repudiated by the free-silverites and other Populistic elements, which were attracted to him by that alone, and he will have great difficulty in gaining the confidence of other elements, both in and out of the Democratic party. Distrust of the man is as strong as distrust in his issue, and if the party has the sagacity to see its opportunity, it will make thorough work of its unloading, and throw both overboard together.

The reaction of sentiment in the House of Representatives regarding the treatment of the Roberts case from Utah at the opening of the session encourages the hope that the Constitution may receive more attention when another claim to a seat comes before that body. Most Representatives now concede that the Mormon claimant ought to have been admitted upon his regular credentials, and then expelled with all the impressiveness which such deliberate action would have commanded. These Congressmen will be disposed to pay more heed to the fundamental law when the case of Gen. Wheeler of Alabama comes before the present House than was paid in the last. The Federal Constitution says that "no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office." Gen. Wheeler held the office of general in the United States volunteers during the last Congress, but still claimed the right to a seat in the House when he chose to appear there, and the claim was allowed. It is safe to say that he will not be permitted to do the same thing again in this Congress.

It turns out that the Seventy-first New York Regiment does not deserve the bad preëminence recently given it of putting in the largest number of claims for pensions yet received from any regiment which took part in the war with Spain. Its applications at last accounts numbered only 311, while 650 have come in from the Ninth Massachusetts. This latter regiment never had a strength exceeding 1,200 men. It was not mustered into the service until May, 1898, and was mustered out six months later. The remarkable and discreditable contrast between the rush for pensions by soldiers in the brief Spanish war and the spirit manifested by the men who served in the Union army during the four years' struggle against the Southern Confederacy, is best shown by comparing these figures for the Seventy-first New York and the Ninth Massachusetts with the figures for the Pennsylvania regiment which was commanded during the civil war by Col. Beaver, afterward Governor of the State. This regiment had 2,094 enlistments from the beginning to the ending of the war. Up to the close of 1882, seventeen years after the end of the war, only 475 applications for pensions had been filed, of which 90 came from widows, 23 from minors, and 53 from dependent relatives. Most of the soldiers of Col. Beaver's regiment on whose account pensions were granted, were actually killed in battle or died of their wounds.

The plan to increase the number of chaplains in the army, which is now being urged by the War Department, should meet with little public encouragement. For years past the clergymen appointed to the army have largely been men who failed to do well in civil life, and who got their positions only by using political pulls. Once in the service they have been of little value, except as teachers in far-away posts, and have been retired within comparatively few years after their appointment, the average period of service of those now on the retired list being little more than twelve years, while scandals have by no means been infrequent in the corps. For many years thoughtful army officers have favored the total abolition of the office, and foremost among these was Gen. Sherman, who, loyal churchman as he was, never failed to denounce the clerical scrambling for office which these places caused. In view of the fact that the War Department is now trying Chaplain Shields for intoxication, that charges are pending against another, and that, when ordered to Manila recently, several chaplains resorted to all sorts of curious devices to escape duty in the field, the desire of the War Department to increase this class of non-combatant officers has much need of justification.

Good citizens all over the country, no less than in Illinois, will rejoice at the news that Gov. Tanner of that State has reached the end of his career. He has earnestly sought to secure another nomination from the Republicans next year, but the opposition within his own party proved so strong that on Friday he made formal announcement of his withdrawal from the field. Tanner is the worst specimen of the boss building up a State machine after the manner of Platt in New York and Quay in Pennsylvania, that has been seen beyond the Alleghanies. Without a single qualification for high office himself, he managed to secure the Republican nomination for the governorship in a year when he could run nearly 20,000 votes behind his party's candidate for President and still get a plurality of much over 100,000. Installed in the chief office, he used all his influence to lower the standard in other positions, and to organize a machine which should permanently control the politics of the State. He had as little respect for law as for public sentiment, and shocked the nation a year ago by usurping the power to forbid the entrance into Illinois of men from other States seeking work in her mines, and threatening to "blow to pieces with Gatling guns" any body of such offenders. In short, he has been a disgrace not only to his State, but to the whole country, and his final downfall is cause for universal satisfaction.

It is characteristic of a happy-go-lucky nation that, after looking with pleased curiosity for fifteen years at the digging of a drainage canal from the city of Chicago to the outfall of the Des Plaines River, we have suddenly awakened to the fact that this ditch is intended to carry the city's sewage down to the Illinois River and thence to the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. This fact was proclaimed in many ways by the Chicago authorities, newspapers, and financiers. Loans were negotiated to the amount of $30,000,000 or more, for that express purpose. Meetings of engineers and men of science were held to discuss plans for carrying out this design, and considerable *éclat* was earned by the energetic contractors. Pictorial illustrations of their machinery were published from time to time and widely circulated. And yet, on the very eve of opening the drainage canal (on January 2), there arose a sudden demand from down-stream that the opening of the canal be deferred until Congress, or the courts, or somebody should have time to stop it altogether. What effect the drainage scheme may have on the health and beauty of the communities down-stream we do not attempt to divine, but we submit that that question ought to have been put beyond the bounds of controversy before the first dollar was expended on the present scheme, and that it is unreasonable to expect that

Chicago will forfeit the fruition of her labors unless compelled to do so by superior force. Meanwhile, the southward flow has begun.

The war in South Africa has made the world's supply of gold a matter of anxiety to many persons who have no interest in gold mines there or anywhere. It is the habit of the human mind to think of the word supply as applicable only to a commodity which disappears in the using. So, when we speak of the annual supply of gold, we unconsciously liken it to the annual supply of wheat or cotton; and when we hear that the supply is lessening, or that an important source of supply has been cut off, we feel an instant apprehension of scarcity and consequent trouble in the financial world. The phrase "gold famine" was in general use a few years ago, when the silver controversy was at its height. If the war in South Africa had occurred at that crisis in our politics, it might have turned the scale the other way and given victory to the party of 16 to 1. Yet the smallest reflection teaches that gold, when used as money, is not consumed by that process. The only gold actually consumed is the amount used in the arts, and not all of that, but only the portion used in such a way that it cannot be recovered. Its supply is not like that of other commodities, which require constant renewal to keep the stock up to a certain level.

In addition to the lesson in tactics the English are learning at the hands of the Boers, they are gaining much interesting information as to the fundamental weakness of their military organization. It is only a few months since the Government triumphantly laid before Parliament an impressive list of army improvements brought about within a comparatively short time. But these related largely to the strengthening of the standing army, and but little, if at all, to the militia reserves, the militia itself, and the volunteers, to which bodies the country has now turned in its hour of need, as it turned during the Crimean war, the Indian mutiny, and, to a slight degree, during the Sudan campaign of 1885. The present mobilization of the reserve forces is therefore the first important test of their value in nearly half a century, and is being carefully watched by Continental experts. As to the actual strength of the militia, there seem to be few figures available, and it is a matter of doubt whether 90,000 of the paper strength of 135,000 men could take the field with their respective organizations. Competent military critics have expressed high opinions of the value of the raw material to be found in the ranks of the various battalions, while laying great stress upon the hopelessly antiquated system, under which even accurate enrolment lists are an impossibility. In regard to the volunteers and the Yeomanry, now figuring so conspicuously in the dispatches, it is admitted that, as far as training goes, they are of little military value, and their employment in new organizations in South Africa will be an experiment, the outcome of which will unquestionably be watched with considerable misgivings.

The dispatch of the Yeomanry will call still further attention to other military weaknesses—the lack of trained cavalry and artillery remounts and of sufficient reserve equipments and ordnance supplies. What is of greater importance, however, is the fact that the War Office has been forced to draw upon the equipments of both militia and volunteers to complete those of the troops under orders to South Africa. But it is lack of trained officers that the English forces are likely to suffer from most, if the need has not already been felt. The great losses among the commissioned ranks in the victories and defeats thus far, the large number of officers required on staff and supply duty, as well as on the long lines of communication and on detached service in all quarters of the globe, must tax severely the resources of the War Office, which has only the retired and half-pay lists and untrained militia officers to fall back upon. Under these circumstances many Englishmen are asking themselves what would happen if Mr. Chamberlain involved the country in a really great foreign war, and a serious problem of national defence were to present itself. From the temper of the English press and as a result of the humiliating experiences in South Africa during the past month, it already seems plain that the "easy march to Pretoria" will result in radical changes throughout the British military system, and in a great strengthening of its land forces.

That England, with the consent of Germany, is eventually to have Delagoa Bay and the whole Portuguese strip on the East African coast, is a fair inference from what is known of the Anglo-German agreement of 1898, as also from the official and semi-official assertions and denials now appearing in the press. The thing was roundly asserted more than a year ago by "Diplomaticus," the writer who, in the *Fortnightly*, has published so many articles showing a remarkable knowledge of the secrets of English diplomacy. It was affirmed, too, in the dispatches of the *Evening Post's* London correspondent. No official denial touches the substance of the arrangement. Details, as printed, may be wrong, but the gist of the matter has not been officially denied. The nearest to a Government *démenti* that we have seen was the statement made by the Portuguese Ministry some time ago, that no national territory had been sold. But that is obviously inconclusive. The matter is no doubt tied up as yet, as Lord Salisbury hinted some months since, with the arbitration of the Delagoa Bay Railway controversy, on which the verdict of the Swiss tribunal is soon expected. Thus it is not likely that we shall see a speedy English occupation of Delagoa Bay. It may yet occur as a war measure. To get a more feasible line of march into the Transvaal would no doubt be a good thing, but if, in the act, Russia and France were further offended and inclined to some hostile move of their own, the net military advantage to the British might be less than nothing. It is not probable, therefore, that any immediate change will be made in the status of Delagoa Bay.

The German Emperor has now set his heart on a doubled navy, and in his New Year's address he showed that he means to let no occasion pass without arguing for his pet project. Herr Richter, in his biting speech in the Reichstag, made fun of the tendency of the Emperor and of his subservient ministers and newspapers to produce an enlarged German navy as the Q. E. D. of every historical movement and current event. Herr Richter predicted that, if Germany, with a great flourish of trumpets, informed the whole world just how many ships she was going to build in the next eighteen years, other countries would at once enlarge their naval programmes, and the result would be that, at the end of the period in question, the German navy would be relatively as inferior as ever. This is exactly what is already happening. France is about to vote $80,000,000 for naval enlargement, and the Government organs in England are saying that, if the German programme succeeds in the Reichstag, it will be necessary for the British Admiralty at once to provide for new constructions. Mr. Goschen himself, in a public speech on December 18, practically confirmed this view of what England would do. He spoke plainly of the paramount duty of keeping English naval efficiency "unimpaired." If there is to be a race in ship-building, Great Britain will not be left behind. Mr. Goschen was also very direct in what he said of England's watchful attitude at present. Lord Salisbury had before scouted the idea of interference by any other Power in the Boer war. No European country desired to interfere, he was persuaded, but if any did, Great Britain was in a position to prevent it. To these warnings of the Premier, the First Lord of the Admiralty added the words: "We know our responsibilities, and no ship is now disposed of, no ship sent to any quarter of the globe, without our realizing the necessity of taking a broad outlook over the whole state of affairs throughout this great empire."

HAS M'KINLEY "A SURE THING"?

"I suppose you think that McKinley has a sure thing in 1900," said a New Yorker, the other day, with confidence in a ready assent, to a shrewd Republican politician from a State in the Central West, who was making a trip to the East. "I'm not so sure about that," was the unexpected reply. "I can foresee contingencies under which, it seems to me, Bryan will have more than a fighting chance of being elected."

McKinley secured 271 of the 447 votes in the electoral college in 1896, and polled over 600,000 more ballots than Bryan, while nearly 135,000 other votes were diverted from the Democratic candidate by the Palmer and Buckner ticket. In other words, Bryan was in a minority of almost three-quarters of a million ballots, to say nothing of the votes cast for the Prohibitionist and the Socialist-Labor candidates. In speculating about the prospect for 1900, Republican politicians, particularly those of the East, are accustomed to argue that Bryan was beaten worse in 1896 than any other candidate of either party since Greeley's overwhelming defeat by Grant in 1872; that he is weaker now than he was then, because the silver issue which he represents has lost its hold; and that consequently he is certain to lose next fall. This is what any Republican manager from the West also says when he is "talking for publication"; but there are not a few well-informed members of the party in that section who privately admit that they do not at heart feel so confident of the result as they would like to.

There is abundant reason for not regarding the issue of next fall's contest as a foregone conclusion. In the first place, while McKinley's victory in 1896 was in one sense overwhelming, analysis shows that the change of less than 34,000 votes in four Southern and two Northern States would have put his opponent in the White House. Bryan secured one of the electors from Kentucky, and McKinley obtained the other twelve by pluralities not exceeding 281; the other three States of the formerly "solid South" which went for McKinley were carried by 3,837 votes in Delaware, 11,487 in West Virginia, and 32,232 in Maryland. Bryan secured one of the nine electors from California, and lost the other eight by pluralities rising no higher than 1,922. Indiana went for McKinley by a plurality of 18,181. In other words, if the hesitating voters in these half-dozen States, who made up their minds at the last moment, had gone the other way—to the number of 141 in Kentucky, 962 in California, 1,919 in Delaware, 5,744 in West Virginia, 9,091 in Indiana, and 16,117 in Maryland—Bryan would have had 228 electoral votes and the Presidency, despite the fact that, even then, McKinley's plurality over him at the polls would have been much more than half a million.

With almost incredible folly, the Republicans are doing their best to assure Bryan this year the four Southern States which he lost in 1896. Nothing could have been devised better calculated to destroy Republican chances in all of these States than the scheme which has already been brought forward in Congress, and which is to be pushed after the holiday recess, for an inquiry by the Census Bureau into voting statistics at the South, with the avowed purpose of making the result a basis for cutting down the representation of that section in the House of Representatives and the electoral college. The mere agitation of such a project revives that old sectional issue which held the South solid for twenty years, and the dropping of which alone made possible McKinley's successes in the border States in 1896. Maryland has already been recovered by the Democrats in a State election, and Kentucky would have gone the same way in November had it not been for the temporary handicap of Goebelism. The Republicans of Delaware are utterly demoralized by Addicksism. The recrudescence of the race issue justifies the Democrats of West Virginia in hopefulness.

While a new question which helps the opposition is thus injected into the canvass, it remains to be seen whether the Republicans will be as strong on the financial issue in 1900 as they were in 1896. What gave McKinley his tremendous pluralities of nearly 300,000 in Pennsylvania, almost 270,000 in New York, nearly 90,000 in New Jersey, which had been Democratic since 1872, and more than 50,000 in the "doubtful State" of Connecticut? Everybody knows that it was the fear that Bryan's election would mean a change to the silver standard, and in consequence the most terrible financial convulsion ever known. But the Republicans now maintain that the financial measure which they are going to pass in Congress will assure the stability of the gold standard, no matter whether the President be a gold man or not. This is patriotic and necessary legislation, but can Republican stump-speakers and organs turn around next fall and frighten former Democrats into voting for McKinley again because "Bryan's election will ruin this country"?

In 1896 the Republicans had the great advantage of being "the outs," and of having the "hard times" issue against the other party—a combination which has won after every great financial panic in our history for sixty years. In 1900 they will lack this advantage. Supposing the present prosperity to last until next fall, all they can say to the workingman is that McKinley should be re-elected to insure its continuance. They used precisely the same argument under similar circumstances when Harrison ran for reëlection in 1892, and were overwhelmingly beaten.

The Republicans seem to-day to stand a better chance than the Bryanites of carrying three or four States beyond the Missouri which they lost before, namely, Kansas, South Dakota, Wyoming, and Washington, no one of which, however, except Kansas, has above four electoral votes. But all of these will need to be closely contested if McKinley is to carry them, as will also California if he is to hold it. On the other hand, there are States this side of the Missouri in which the opposition will be decidedly stronger in 1900 than in 1896, by virtue simply of the fact that the lurch into Bryanism then left the party almost without leaders, organization, or machinery of any sort, while during the interval something has been built up to supply this lack.

We say nothing of the possible bearing of the course of events in the Philippines upon the voting next November, further than this, that many Republican politicians do not conceal their apprehension of the effect upon the public mind of a long continuance of present conditions, and would dread to make the campaign with a guerilla warfare still running on.

It is obvious enough that the Western Republican whose remark we quoted at the outset is quite warranted in his view that the Presidential race of 1900 may not be a walkover for the candidate of his party. It is well that he and his associates should be apprehensive lest the political pendulum, which, since 1872, has swung the doubtful States, and with them the result of the election, from one party to the other every four years, may not stay in 1900 where it rested in 1896.

"DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP."

These words are printed on the title-page of a pamphlet which the promoters of the ship-subsidy bill are now circulating in the interest of that measure. They were uttered by Capt. Lawrence when he gave up his life for his country on the deck of the frigate *Chesapeake* in her fight with the *Shannon*. They are now perverted to serve as inspiration for as graceless a raid on the United States Treasury as was ever devised by human greed. The pamphlet in question is entitled 'United States Merchant Marine on the Oceans,' and is published in Cleveland, Ohio. It embraces letters from a large number of persons in favor of the Hanna-Payne bill, all of them in favor of the policy of paying money out of the public Treasury to carry on a private industry. The contents have not been very carefully edited, however. If they had been scrutinized more closely Mr. B. L. Pennington, a vessel-owner of Cleveland, would not have been allowed to repeat and endorse as freely as he does the arguments of those who oppose the bill on economical grounds. Mr. Pennington, we should remark, favors the

bill in spite of its badness; but if all that he says concerning the measure itself and the principles on which it is based is true, it does not need any further argument to consign it to the tomb.

Referring to the "humiliating fact" that 92 per cent. of our goods are carried in foreign bottoms, for which we are paying annually, it is said, two hundred millions, for the most part lost to the United States, Mr. Pennington points out that the sole reason why this has been done is that we could hire foreign tonnage for our needs cheaper than we could own it. "If our capitalists," he continues, "could not build and man ships so cheaply as those abroad, it is evident that other employment of capital was more remunerative, and on which better than foreign wages could be afforded." Then he gives a sly dig at the tariff which has handicapped us hitherto in the ocean carrying trade.

But this handicap is surely passing away. "Social, industrial, and economic changes are now going on at such a rapid pace as to show almost certainly that, before many years, even without such aid, such employment of capital will be profitable." That is, the American merchant marine will be "rehabilitated" in a few years without Government pap, simply because we now excel other nations in the production of iron, steel, and other things which enter into the production of modern ships. In order to hasten the natural course of things by some short period, and for no other reason, Mr. Pennington gives his assent to the principle of the bill, but not to its details. He thinks that "the compensation under clause B is too large, especially for the largest and fastest vessels, since such large craft already have in their favor the fact that they can make much more money than small craft in proportion to their value."

The bill as drawn gives most money to those who need it least. This is usually the case in raids on the Treasury. Such raids would not be started at all except by the rich and powerful, and, as they arrange the details, they naturally arrange them in their own interest. "Besides," says Mr. Pennington, "the smaller compensation in clause A is an unjust discrimination against our existing tonnage, which has fought so long and so bravely against great odds for existence." The late John Murray Forbes of Boston was one of those small-tonnage men, but the peculiarity in his case was that he did not want any subsidy at all. All that he asked was to be let alone. He wanted the privilege of buying ships where they were offered cheapest, but, failing of that privilege, he kept his sailing-ships going to and from eastern Asia, and he opposed every measure for shipping bounties and subsidies down to the day of his death. If he were living now, and in possession of his wonted vigor, he would go to Washington and demolish the Hanna-Payne bill by his arguments and his example, and make Congress ashamed to pass it.

Some evidence has lately been presented showing that the agricultural classes are getting their eyes open to the fact that enormous sums are to be paid out of the national taxes to ship-builders and ship-owners, without any perceptible benefit to the farmers themselves. The argument for the subsidy bill is that foreign ships are carrying our wheat, corn, cotton, and pork so cheaply that our ships cannot compete with them, but must have help from the Treasury. If this is a true statement, how will any of this money reach the farmer's pocket? Confessedly the amount paid to the subsidized ship-owner will only compensate him for the extra sums he has to pay for his ship and wages. Hence there is nothing left to be paid to the farmer in the way of extra profit, even if there were any means for securing and compelling a division. France and Italy pay subsidies like those proposed in the Hanna-Payne bill, but the color of the money was never seen by the agricultural classes of those countries. The latter are supposed to be compensated by tariffs against the farm products of other nations. Even this poor compensation is impossible here, because we are exporters, and not importers, of such products.

The Hanna-Payne bill is a gigantic fraud on the taxpayers of the United States, and it ought to be a serious question among the leaders of the Republican party how many such reproaches they can carry in the coming campaign. They are heavily charged now with monopolies of one kind and another. They are exposed, rightly or wrongly, to the accusation of legislating in behalf of the rich and to the detriment of the poor. If they pass the ship-subsidy bill, they will have furnished one case where the accusation can be nailed upon the party and cannot be explained away. Will not many voters conclude that the other charges are equally well founded?

SURVIVAL OF LETTER-WRITING.

One of the greatest charms connected with the recently published letters of Robert Louis Stevenson was that of finding them actually existing. Men like him had not left off letter-writing then! The discovery was of itself a delight in this age of postal-cards and telegraph-blanks. "I telegraph, therefore I am," was a witty Frenchman's modern reading of the old *Cogito ergo sum.* The stress of business, or paucity of ideas, is reducing current correspondence so much to the semblance of a code-language, or muttered monosyllables, that long letters, written by a busy invalid like Stevenson, come with special grace of surprise. And he was writing them, be it remembered, a man hunted by publishers, who shook their checks in his face for every line he could produce. But he gave away his "copy" to his friends with right royal bounty.

Of friendship, indeed, good letter-writing is perhaps the chief sign and proof. This was the opinion of that copious letter-writer, James Howell. "Friendship," said he, "is the great Chain of human Society, and intercourse of Letters is one of the chiefest links of that Chain." He doubtless was thinking of the revelation and giving of self that letters imply, opening the heart as a key does a door, as his favorite motto had it—"Ut clavis portam, sic pandit epistola pectus." This, too, was the view which Dr. Johnson took when he wrote to Mrs. Thrale that "a man's soul lies naked in his letters." Yet he was conscious that this was not the whole story, for he characteristically observed in his Life of Pope that "no transaction offers stronger temptations to fallacy and sophistication than epistolary intercourse." But there is no doubt that the true Stevenson, the sincere friend and gallant spirit, is displayed in these delightful letters of his. A French critic speaks of them in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* as the very model of what a literary man's correspondence should be.

For professional writers, one would think, there is a special need of expanding in letters to each other, or to a judicious friend. They have so many things to say which they cannot say to the public. Pearls often decorate a letter which simply could not be cast before —well, the genteel reading-public. There are forms of wicked cleverness, of irony, of truth taught by silent laughter, which would be wasted upon the literal and unwinking devourer of print, and which require the written page and fit audience. Then there are the conventionalities, the humbugs generally agreed upon, which must be observed in decorous magazine or book, but which your true letter-writer finds a delightful freedom in disregarding or exposing in private. This was long ago remarked by Poe, who said that the confidential talk and private criticism of literary men were vastly more illuminating than their public utterance. The reason was that, in a circle of friends, most of all in a conversation *à deux*, a man could not take the trouble to "mould his countenance to the lie" expected of him in print. Many a man's letters are the well in which he keeps truth.

Stevenson's Letters, to come back to them, frequently possess one thing in common with those of the best writers —the attractiveness of impromptu and unofficial criticism. It is getting to be a question if this is not the very best criticism we have. The glancing judgments of FitzGerald's letters, the happy insight in some of Keats's, Tennyson's *obiter dicta*, Browning's keen deliverances in his letters, Lowell's overplus of wit in

his—where in works of formal criticism shall we find their equal for inspiration and solace? It was a surprising thing in Matthew Arnold's Letters that they were so barren of criticism. You would have looked for much of it in the critic by profession. Yet, beyond the undisguised respect with which he analyzed his own poetical powers and prospects, there was little or nothing of it to catch and fix the attention. It takes the more spontaneous natures to overflow in the unpremeditated criticism which makes the cut-and-dried article seem a poor and juiceless affair. Stevenson had some delightful splashes of the former.

But the main thing is, as we said at the start, that he gives us one proof more that letter-writing has survived. The formal and stilted art may have passed away, but the breath and joy of quick and confidential communication of friend with friend remain. It sometimes seems as if nobody but lovers kept up nowadays the practice of close and full intercourse by means of letters. Certainly as long as the world has lovers, suffering like Shakspere from a "separable spite," it will have letters, and long and leisurely ones. The Prince of Wales, who was later George IV., did his twenty-seven pages of "I-love-yous" to Mrs. Fitzherbert as the most natural thing in the world, and natural it continues to men in his condition. But to get two large volumes of letters, like Stevenson's, with never a love-letter in the lot, is a grateful renewal of hope in the persistence, even in our shorthand generation, of deliberate and self-revealing letter-writing.

ELLIOTT COUES.

By the death of Elliott Coues, at the comparatively early age of fifty-seven years, American ornithology has lost one of its most eminent and brilliant expounders. As a monographer and technical writer he has left an enviable reputation for thoroughness of research and keenness of insight, and as a popular writer he was easily without a peer. But his field of activity was by no means bounded by ornithology, his contributions to comparative anatomy being neither few nor unimportant, while his grasp upon the principles and the technicalities of general biology rendered him eminently fitted for his important share in the task of preparing the 'Century Dictionary.' To him were assigned the subjects General Zoölogy, Biology, and Comparative Anatomy, and he both edited and contributed to them some 40,000 entries during the seven years he devoted almost exclusively to this occupation.

Dr. Coues was born in Portsmouth, N. H., September 9, 1842. Eleven years later his father, Samuel Elliott Coues, removed with his family to Washington, where young Elliott was educated. For a time he was sent to Gonzaga College, under the management of the Jesuit fathers. In 1857 he entered what is now the Columbian University, taking his A.B. degree in 1861 and his medical degree in 1863, and receiving later also the honorary degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. He was enlisted as a medical cadet while yet a student, and, soon after graduation, was appointed assistant surgeon in the United States Army, his first station being Fort Whipple, Arizona. After ten years of service as post surgeon, at different military stations, he was ordered to Fort Randall, Dakota, and appointed surgeon and naturalist to the United States Northern Boundary Commission, which surveyed the line of the forty-ninth parallel from the Lake of the Woods westward. The following two years he was engaged in Washington in the preparation of the scientific report of the Survey, and in 1876 was detailed to duty as secretary and naturalist of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories, under the late Dr. F. V. Hayden. At the end of four years' invaluable service to the Survey and to science he was again ordered to Arizona. He had now become wholly absorbed in the scientific and literary work for which he was so well fitted, and found the routine duty of a frontier army post, of which he was never over-fond, exceedingly distasteful. Protests and appeals for a more congenial assignment meeting with no favor on the part of the medical authorities of the army, he tendered his resignation in order to continue his scientific pursuits. After 1881 he resided in Washington, frequently making, however, during recent years, long journeys through the West, as will be related presently.

Dr. Coues's ornithological investigations began while he was a mere boy, and his enthusiasm for ornithology suffered no abatement during his later years, though other literary pursuits absorbed the greater part of his activities. His first ornithological papers were published in 1861, while a youth of eighteen years, and related to such technical subjects as are indicated by the titles, "A Monograph of the *Tringeæ* of North America" and "A Monograph of the Genus *Ægiothus*, with Descriptions of New Species." Under the tutelage of the late Prof. Baird, between whom and Coues existed the strongest friendship, these early papers bear the marks of a master hand, not only as regards their technicalities, but in their method of presentation. From this time on there was an unceasing flow of contributions from his pen, literary, philosophic, and scientific, the last-named relating to ornithology in all its varied phases.

His scientific writings number about 1,000 titles, including minor papers and reviews in scientific journals, and, among others, the following special works: 'Key to North American Birds' (1872), with its companion volume, 'Field Ornithology' (1874). The 'Key,' entirely rewritten, was republished in 1884. No work on American ornithology has had so great and so favorable an influence on the progress of ornithology in America as this, the guide and vade-mecum of the present generation of ornithologists. His 'Birds of the Northwest' (1874), his 'Fur-bearing Animals' (1877), 'Monographs of North American Rodentia' (with J. A. Allen), 1877, and his 'Birds of the Colorado Valley' (1878), were all publications of the Hayden Survey. Upon a projected 'History of North American Mammals,' under the same auspices, much work was done, but it never saw the light, owing to Dr. Coues being ordered again to military duty in Arizona in 1881, and the reorganization of the Survey under a new head. This period of his life also yielded several invaluable instalments of a 'Bibliography of Ornithology' (1878-1880). Much the greater part of this immense work, which cost the author years of hard labor, still, unfortunately, remains in manuscript. In 1881 appeared his 'New England Bird-Life' (with W. A. Stearns), and in 1882 his 'Dictionary and Check-List of North American Birds.' He left in manuscript a new edition of the 'Key,' entirely rewritten and brought down to date, and, it is to be hoped, in condition for prompt publication.

In 1869 Coues was elected Professor of Zoölogy and Comparative Anatomy in the Norwich University, Vermont, but this post, being incompatible with army life on the remote frontier, he was unable to fill. In 1877 he was called to the chair of anatomy at the National Medical College in Washington, where for ten years he lectured acceptably on human anatomy from the standpoint of morphology and evolution. At this date he was elected a member of the National Academy of Sciences, the highest scientific honor attainable in American science. It is almost needless to say that he was also a member of all the leading scientific societies of America, and of a large number of foreign academies and societies. He was one of the founders of the American Ornithologists' Union, and at one time its President, and always a valued member of its Council, and a colaborer in the conduct of its journal, the *Auk*, and in the preparation of its 'Code of Nomenclature and Check-List of North American Birds.'

About 1880 Dr. Coues became actively interested in the phenomena of hypnotism, clairvoyance, telepathy, and so-called spiritualism, and in theosophical speculations, in the belief that the principles of physical science might be equally applicable to psychical research. This became with him, for several years, an absorbing subject, and led for a time to his affiliation with Mme. Blavatsky and other prominent Theosophists; but he subsequently lost much of his interest in such studies and all his respect for the leaders of the sect. As a product of this period may be mentioned his 'Biogen: A Speculation on the Origin and Nature of Life' (1883), 'The Dæmon of Darwin' (1884), etc.

After all this prodigious activity in scientific lines, it may almost have seemed to Dr. Coues as if the "final cause" of his training were to rescue from oblivion the sources of the exploration of the great territory beyond the Mississippi. His roving army life combined with his naturalist's experience and knowledge to make him an ideal editor of the Journals of Lewis and Clark, his first (and it was a stupendous) undertaking (1893). Many special journeys were, however, made for this and for other similar pious labors—Zebulon Pike's 'Account,' Fowler's Journal, Larpenteur's Personal Narrative—of which our readers have been duly apprised. The copiousness, sometimes carried to excess, and minuteness of his annotations are almost incredible. It was in pursuance of a journey in the Southwest made last summer with younger and stronger men, in order to fortify his editing of the forthcoming Diary of Francisco Garcés, that Dr. Coues broke down and his magnificent physique was reduced to naught. After a month of acute suffering at Santa Fé in September, he was brought to Chicago, and still hoped, as he wrote us, to get ten or twelve years'

more work out of his organism, whose undermining he was then far from being aware of. November was spent at his home in Washington, but on the 29th he wrote from Baltimore: "The worst possible fears in my case are confirmed by diagnosis made today at Johns Hopkins, and I face the formidable operation which offers hope of prolonging my life." On December 5, firmly pencilled on the last proof returned to the *Nation* were the words: "I am to be knifed to-morrow A. M., and—I am unmoved." On the 13th he wrote, still steadily and at length, believing that surgical skill had granted him a reprieve for further life and usefulness. On Christmas Day he died; and the *Nation*, which has long held him among its most willing, prompt, and attached contributors, will know his hand no more.

Dr. Coues was a fluent and impressive speaker, a writer of exceptional facility of expression and rare vivacity and readability, a man of deep feeling and great fixity of purpose, firm and intense in his friendships, impulsive and sometimes aggressive, and not always discreet in his treatment of an opponent, yet warm-hearted and helpful, as many an aided aspirant for ornithological prominence can testify. He was twice married, his second marriage, to Mrs. Mary Emily Bates of Philadelphia, occurring in 1887; and she, with children by his first marriage, survives him.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

BOSTON, December 30, 1899.

The fifteenth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, December 27-29, in this city, was in many respects a notable one. A large attendance, an attractive programme, generous hospitality, and ideal weather all contributed to profit and enjoyment, while the atmosphere of historical association and the wealth of places of historical interest proved for many members an especial charm.

So far as the programme is concerned, its most noticeable feature, and the one most frequently commented upon, was the absence of the technical papers, embodying the results of protracted and minute research, which in former years have been of so much importance. Of the sixteen papers read, only two or three were, in the strict sense, historical, the remainder dealing with one or other of the numerous subjects which have been sought to be included under the designation of political science, or with immediate problems of political, economic, or educational policy. Such were the papers of Prof. Andrews of Bryn Mawr, on the place of recent European history in the college curriculum, and the forcible statement by Prof. Ashley of Harvard of the claims of economic history. The change is not without significance, illustrating as it does the broad view of its functions taken by the Association, and its purpose to help, so far as lies in its power, in the solution of present difficulties. That the absence of papers appealing primarily only to the initiated added appreciably to the general interest in the proceedings, and accounted in part for the uniformly large audiences, is probable; and to arouse public interest in historical and political studies, especially at this time, is certainly worth while, even though the next report of the Association be a less learned volume in consequence.

It is impossible to do more than mention a few of the more important contributions and discussions. The address of the President of the Association, Mr. James F. Rhodes, with its plea for the broad study of historical phenomena, was happily in accord with the general spirit of the meeting. The programme itself was made up on a topical plan, papers on the same general subject being brought together in the same session. Wednesday morning, for example, was given to papers prepared by members of the committee for the study of colonies and dependencies, appointed last year at New Haven. Prof. H. E. Bourne of Cleveland, chairman of the committee, gave a résumé of the situation, so far as the United States is concerned, and of the difficulties which beset the path of empire, but cautiously refrained from making specific recommendations other than regard for the merit system in appointments. To those who had hoped that the conclusions of the committee would attain within the year tolerable definiteness and precision, as was the case with the similar committee of the American Economic Association, Prof. Bourne's report was disappointing. A brief account, exceptionally well put, of the selection and training of colonial officials in England, France, and Holland, by Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell, awakened much interest, as did a paper by Prof. F. W. Williams of Yale on the treatment of Chinese emigrants in the Far East.

Perhaps the greatest interest centred in the session of Friday morning at Sanders Theatre, Cambridge. The general subject was foreign relations. The opening paper, by Prof. McMaster, set forth clearly and concisely the view that our new possessions are not within the purview of the Constitution, save as regards the prohibition of slavery, but are subject to the discretionary control of Congress—a view with which Prof. J. B. Moore of Columbia expressed his concurrence. It was noticeable that the question, practically of the first importance, of how far the spirit of certain general provisions of the Constitution is fairly to be regarded as a restraint upon either Congressional or Executive action, was not touched upon. An instructive parallel to our recent dealings with Spain was found by Prof. E. G. Bourne of Yale in the proposed absorption of Mexico in 1847-8. Baron Spech von Sternberg, the German Commissioner to Samoa, reviewed the history of the Samoan question, his account being supplemented by an entertaining explanation by Mr. E. V. Morgan, secretary to the Commission, of the peculiar racial and social difficulties with which the Commissioners had to deal. Finally, in a thoughtful paper on democracy and diplomacy, Prof. Macvane of Harvard pointed out the difficulties of diplomacy in a country of yellow journals and popular clamor, and pleaded again for international arbitration.

The preparation and discussion of formal papers do not compass the active work of the Association. Highly organized and effectively administered, its stimulating and directing force in historical research and publication is every year becoming more important. The Historical Manuscripts Commission, at present engaged upon the preparation of the Calhoun correspondence for publication, continues, of course, though with considerable change of personnel; Prof. J. Franklin Jameson retiring from the chairmanship and Mr. R. G. Thwaites succeeding. The Association did not fail to put on record its appreciation of the great service to historical scholarship rendered by Prof. Jameson as a member of the Commission. The committee on colonies and dependencies contemplate a broad study of their assigned field, and the committee on the Justin Winsor prize, this year again unawarded, propose to readjust the administration of that encouragement to research in such a way as to insure more general competition for it. Three new activities are launched this year: a Public Archives Commission, to investigate the condition and character of national, State, and local records, and facilitate their use by students; a committee to consider the preparation of a monographic history of the United States; and a committee to secure, if possible, the deposit in the Library of Congress of such documents and papers, not in current use, as are now dispersed among the various departments in Washington. That the Association is able to address itself to these large and manifold undertakings, some of which, like the Historical Manuscripts Commission and the Public Archives Commission, must plan their work for years to come, is due to the rapidly growing membership, now numbering more than 1,400, and to the skill with which the finances of the Association have been managed.

Never has the Association been more royally entertained. With no sacrifice of scholarly and professional concentration, the executive committee provided richly for the comfort and pleasure of members and their friends. A luncheon at the new building of the Massachusetts Historical Society as guests of Mr. Charles Francis Adams; a reception by President and Mrs. Rhodes; "smokers" at the Technology and Algonquin Clubs for the men, and a reception and tea at Radcliffe College and Craigie House for the ladies; open doors at the Public Library and Museum of Fine Arts; a luncheon at Harvard as the guests of the University, and a reception at Wellesley as guests of the College; the hospitalities of the University Club for all who chose to avail themselves of them; and a dinner at the Brunswick Hotel in which 150 members joined—make up the list of social functions which the committee had exerted itself to provide. No one who was present at the luncheon in Memorial Hall will soon forget the consummate grace and power with which President Eliot presided, as none who sat at the tables at the Brunswick will forget Col. Higginson's eloquent plea for political and civil freedom, as no less a charge upon us now than in his young manhood of fifty years ago. The Association goes next year to Detroit, with Edward Eggleston as President.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

PARIS, December 14, 1899.

France, as a nation, takes a not undue pride in the Suez Canal, and a few days ago a gigantic statue was placed at the entrance to the canal, in honor of the man who was long familiarly called "le grand Français." This ceremony took place on the thirtieth anniversary of the inauguration of the great work. Renan, who received Lesseps into the French Academy, reminded his audience that the cutting of a Suez canal was one of the dreams of antiquity; that Leibnitz recommended it to Louis XIV.; that the French Directory put it in its pro-

gramme when it undertook the expedition to Egypt.

"As in the time of Alexander," said Renan, "the conquest of arms was a conquest of science. The 24th of December, 1798, our illustrious colleague, Gen. Bonaparte, left Cairo, accompanied by Berthier, Monge, Berthollet, and several other members of the Institute, and of certain merchants who had obtained permission to join his escort. On the 30th he found, to the north of Suez, the remains of the ancient canal, and followed it for five leagues; on the 3d of January, 1799, he saw near Belbes the other extremity of the canal of the Pharaohs. The researches of the Egyptian Commission were the starting-point of all the subsequent designs. One error only, the belief in an inequality of the levels of the two seas (always denied by Laplace and Fourier), was mixed with these valuable researches, and it delayed for half a century the execution of the work planned by the heroic engineers of 1798."

The origin of the enterprise goes back to 1854. Mehemet Ali was in the Libyan Desert with eleven thousand men, and his camp was near Lake Mareotis when he was joined by Lesseps, who had known him in Paris. Lesseps obtained there the concession of the canal. He made a preliminary exploration of the country with Mougel and Linant Bey; he verified the equality of the level of the two seas, which had already been demonstrated by Paulin-Talabot, the creator of the railway which joins Paris, by way of Lyons, with Marseilles.

Notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, then English Ambassador at Constantinople, Lesseps secured the approbation of the Grand Vizier. After some negotiations, it was agreed between the Governments of France and of England that the two would leave the affair of the Suez Isthmus to itself, and would consider it a mere commercial and industrial enterprise. M. de Lesseps met, nevertheless, with much opposition in England. Lord Palmerston was very hostile to the project, and his hostility was felt at Constantinople. After four years of appeals to public opinion, Lesseps dared to make an appeal to the European public. The capital of the company was fixed at two hundred millions of francs, divided into 400,000 shares of 500 francs. He reserved 85,506 shares to England, Austria, Russia, and the United States; the rest was offered to the French public. The emission was covered, and the Society was legally constituted.

The work to be executed extended for 130 kilometres, and five years were judged necessary for the maritime canal, which was to be eight metres deep and to have a breadth on its surface of fifty-six metres. It is not easy to imagine now all the difficulties with which Lesseps had to contend, financial, technical, economical. Mehemet's successor, Said, died in 1863, and was replaced by Ismail Pasha, who received the title of Khedive, and substituted free labor for the forced labor or *corvée*. It was thought that this reform would ruin the company, but the use of improved and gigantic dredging-machines saved it. The inauguration of the Canal took place on the 17th of November, 1869, with great pomp. The Empress Eugénie, the Emperor of Austria, the Khedive Ismail, the Princess of Holland, the heirs presumptive of the crowns of Prussia and of the Netherlands, a host of Russian and German princes, witnessed the ceremony, as well as the Emir Abd-el-Kader. Who would have believed, in those triumphant days, that not many months afterwards the Empress Eugénie would have to flee from the palace of the Tuileries, and, curiously enough, that M. de Lesseps would be one of the few friends to help her to escape?

From the day of the inauguration to the end of 1870, 486 ships crossed the isthmus through the Canal. The cost of construction had been, as we have said, estimated at 200,000,000; but in 1870 the Company had expended as much as 432,000,000, and was obliged to issue debentures and to make loans. The financial difficulties became very great, but the receipts rose gradually; they amounted in 1871 to 7,595,000 francs, in 1872 to 14,377,000, in 1873 to 20,850,000, in 1874 to 22,667,000. In the year 1875 the Khedive Ismail, whose expenses had been excessive, sold the 176,602 shares which he possessed to the English Government at the price of a hundred millions of francs, which represented a value of 568 francs per share. When these shares were offered to England by the Khedive, Parliament was not in session, but Lord Beaconsfield boldly bought the shares, had them paid for temporarily by the Rothschilds, and asked Parliament for a bill of indemnity, which he had no difficulty in obtaining. In consequence of this purchase, the English Government obtained a representation on the board of directors. If the English shares were sold at the present market value, England's profit would be about 528,000,000 francs.

The bombardment of Alexandria in 1882 and the victory of Tel el-Kebir gave England a predominant influence in Egypt. M. de Freycinet asked the Chamber for a credit with a view to the protection of the Canal; this credit was refused by 416 votes to 75, and the French fleet retired from the Egyptian waters. The English became practically the masters of Egypt; but they did not abuse their victory with regard to the Canal. Lord Granville, at the beginning of 1883, addressed a circular to the great Powers; an international commission was appointed and sat in Paris; the discussion lasted several years, and an international convention was signed on the 29th of June, 1888, in virtue of which the neutrality of the Suez Canal was formally recognized. England, notwithstanding her peculiar situation, enjoys no privilege in the Canal and has no right of police over it.

By degrees, many improvements have been executed in the Canal, so as to shorten the time of passage. In 1882, ships spent nearly fifty-four hours in transit. Much time was lost in the places where the ships passed each other and during the night. Methods had to be devised to secure continuity in the passage—the Canal had to be deepened and widened; but the success of the enterprise was such that money could be easily found for these improvements. The use of electric light on the sides of the Canal and on the ships made navigation as easy by night as by day, and nearly doubled the capacity of the Canal. Three cities owe their existence to the Canal—Port Said, Ismailia, and Port Tewfik; the first being the only one which has a true commercial importance. Ships do not stop any more at Suez, but coal at Port Said. This place has now 49,000 inhabitants, of which number the Egyptians and the Arabs count for 24,000. Coal is the chief item of importation to Port Said; more than a million tons being brought yearly to it.

At the late meeting of the British Association at Dover, Sir William White made a report on the progress of steam navigation, and gave curious statistics on the subject from 1870 to 1898. In the course of twenty-eight years, the net tonnage which passed the Suez Canal rose gradually from 436,609 to 9,238,603 tons; the receipts from the special navigation duty on the Canal rose in the same period from 4,345,758 to 82,657,420 francs. The number of passengers increased from 26,758 to 219,554, and the receipts arising from the passenger tax from 263,552 to 2,195,545 francs. Postal navigation, which assures rapid and regular communication between the various countries of Europe and the East, and which receives Government subventions, has increased rapidly and is constantly increasing. In the present state of the East it may be said that India absorbs nearly 50 per cent. of the transit. This proportion explains the immense importance which England attaches and is obliged to attach to the Suez Canal. The population of India exceeds 250,000,000 of inhabitants; England has built in her vast Indian Empire more than 35,000 kilometres of railroads, which in 1898 transported 151,000,000 of passengers and 36 million tons of merchandise. It is not surprising if this great development of India has contributed to the movement of merchandise between Europe and India. The regions which, after India, draw the largest proportion of traffic to the Canal are the French colonies of Indo-China, China, and Japan. China proper and Mantchuria have between them a population nearly equal to that of the whole of Europe—that is to say, 350,000,000 to 360,000,000 inhabitants. All the European nations are eager to trade with China, to build her railroads, to increase their sphere of influence in that enormous and still mysterious Empire. The number of free ports is now thirty-four, and the rivers in all the provinces having treaty ports have been opened to navigation. The inner lines of customs, which are a great inconvenience to trade, will by degrees be removed.

To sum up, the maritime movement of the Suez Canal had attained in 1898 more than nine millions of tons; the increase in the fifteen years which preceded 1898, was 15 per cent. It is highly probable that the same rate of increase will continue, and that in 1903 from ten to eleven millions will go through the Canal.

Correspondence.

THE STRUGGLE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The present unfortunate war between the English and the Dutch in South Africa recalls vividly the collisions between the two nationalities in the past, and the cause of their unnatural quarrels. Springing from a common stock, menaced by the same enemies, actuated by similar political impulses, and inspired by the same religious reform movements, the two nations in bygone days should always have been friends; but commercial rivalry and opposing trade interests intervened to make them foes.

Old Holland has now settled down to a comfortable old age, having made her fortune, and being content to enjoy it in peace, reaping the benefits of past enterprise from her still vast Oriental empire. But her chil-

dren at the Antipodes, actuated by the stubborn spirit of their ancestors, have challenged England by the arbitrament of war to make good her claim to be the supreme Power in South Africa, as their forefathers contested England's right under Cromwell and Charles II. to be the mistress of the sea.

The trade of the Orient was, in the seventeenth century as now, the great cause of jealousy among commercial nations. The English East India Company was created in 1599, and the Dutch in 1602. They were rivals from the start. Strange to say, the East India question is again involved in this fresh English-Dutch collision. It was the India trade in the hands of the Dutch East India Company that gave Holland her naval and commercial importance after she had so gloriously thrown off the shackles of Spain. And it was Holland's jealousy of England's commercial growth and of her inroads on her Eastern market that irritated the pride of the two peoples, and embittered their relations until they flew at each other's throats. It was as a half-way house to England that the Cape Colony was established by the Dutch in 1652, and as such it became of supreme importance in Holland's trade. Had she retained her full commercial vigor, she would not have submitted as meekly as she did to its conquest by the British in 1806. Conditions are somewhat changed to-day. The Suez Canal gives a short cut to the Orient. One line of railroad is already completed connecting the North Atlantic with the North Pacific, and others are projected. But, nevertheless, the great pathway of the sea is, and will continue to be, the highway of commerce. It can never be obstructed nor blown up. Yet it can be used effectively only by steam vessels, and steam vessels must have coal; and therefore coaling stations are as essential to a great naval Power as the sea itself. Cape Town is the corner shop, and Cape Colony the corner block, of the two highways of the Atlantic and Pacific; and England will cease to be the naval Power she is, as certainly as Holland has shrunken to a shadow of what she once was, if she allows so vital a link in the long chain of naval stations which bind her commercial centres with her foreign markets to be snapped.

There is no proof that any such far-reaching schemes as a resuscitation of Holland's former greatness through the infusion of young Dutch blood has ever entered the minds of the South African Dutch; but there is good reason to suppose that their plans of empire are on as magnificent a scale as their preparations for war. The influx of wealth from the gold mines excited their imagination. Instead of putting it into their pockets, as was supposed, they have put it into armaments. As we ourselves know, the ideas of national greatness grow with their gratification, and nothing stimulates magnificent national aspirations as sensitively as military success. That the Boers enjoyed in 1881, and it has influenced their policy ever since. It would be astonishing, therefore, if hopes were not excited of recreating a new Dutch republic out of human elements as sturdy as those which set Spain at defiance, by men inspired by religious fervor as free from the taint of either ritualism or scepticism as that which steeled the soldiers of William the Silent. There is every reason for supposing that the Afrikander Bond has had more intricate ramifications than was ever dreamed of by the political agents of Great Britain, and that the military preparations throughout all South Africa were on a scale not even suspected by Englishmen living among the Dutch themselves. It is not unfair, therefore, to assume that brilliant statesmen like Dr. Leyds and President Stein, and sturdy, silent, profound diplomats like Krüger, and generals as thoroughly versed in the art of war as Joubert, should have dreamed dreams not only of complete independence, but of creating another New Netherland, which at any rate would be free from absorption by the Power that engulfed the struggling colony of Dutchmen on the Hudson.

One thing is certain, that England is face to face with another crisis in her history; that Englishmen the world over now realize it, and are prepared to act as one man in meeting it. Whatever may have been the exciting cause of the trouble—probably unjust distrust on one side and disregard for national sensibilities on the other—the Dutch of South Africa have evidently been preparing for many a day to throw off all dependence on England, and have been waiting till either a favorable opportunity occurred of forcing a quarrel, or till compelled to unmask their batteries by Britain's advance. The world at large is interested in the struggle, inasmuch as no commercial nation can view with indifference the transfer from one Power to another of such a pivotal point in the earth's geographical and commercial surface as the Cape Colony.

JAMES DOUGLAS.

NEW YORK, December 23, 1899.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow an American who, from fourteen years' residence in England, should know something of the feeling in at least one of its centres, to protest against the misleading effect of some resolutions recently proposed in sympathy with the Boers, though, happily, not carried? Whatever the point in this deplorable war may or may not be, one thing is certain, that the English are in no sense whatever endeavoring to crush republicanism. The two sister states might have been as radical as even French socialism could wish them to have been, but it would have had nothing to do with the terrible conflict. The English were simply forced into war by personal insolence, making commercial grievances more intolerable. No English person could live in the Transvaal without receiving affronts such as would be met in the West by a "shot on sight." The Boers either sold their gold-bearing lands, or else protected the vendors, because they had not the acumen nor capital to work them at a profit; and then they repented of their bargain, and began to criticise the fine mining town which grew up on the spot, and proceeded to impose their unbounded taxations and disqualifying regulations. Bad morals in a mining city, as anywhere else, are sickening indeed, but the human subject is still a very rudimental being, and it ill becomes those who could make a joke on the "place of spiritual punishment" (hell, in plain words) being "within the city limits" of a great emporium, to express astonishment at a miners' settlement. I write with no desire to screen speculators, but I do hope that all honest people will remember that combinations of capital are inevitable. We have the poor always with us, but we (likewise) cannot get rid of the rich.

But whatever the merits or demerits of the case may be, "the heroic struggles" of the Boers are in no sense intended to defend republican institutions as such, much less their hearths and homes—they have troubled many another person's hearth and home; and it is political blasphemy to hint at such a thing, much less to formulate it in a resolution. England takes kindly to republics, and for more reasons than one. Imagine how she would have liked it if the two sister republics had been two "brother kingdoms." If the Boers have done what they have done in the green tree, what would they have done in the dry? It ill becomes any section of Americans, whose land was saved by England so very short a time ago, to rail at her as if she were attempting to crush what she would gladly have nurtured. She wishes to crush insolence and unfair dealing, and not republics.

Yours, etc., L. H. MILLS.

OXFORD, December 14, 1899.

THE SEAT OF THE WASHINGTONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Upon Washington's ancestry, the subject of a most interesting paper by Mr. W. H. Whitmore in your issue of September 21, which I have just read, it seems to me that I may be able to throw some light, inasmuch as what I have to say on it fits in with Washington's own statement, as quoted by Mr. Whitmore: "I have often heard others of the family, older than myself, say that our ancestor who first settled in this country came from one of the Northern Counties of England, but whether from Lancashire or Yorkshire or one still more northerly, I do not precisely remember."

In the year 1865 or 1866, my father, Thomas Farrer, bought the farm of Gateside in the township (in this part of England a township is a tract of country containing probably three or four thousand acres, and is, I believe, a subdivision of a parish) of Howgill, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and lived there until he died in 1876. When he bought it, he told me that the tradition was attached to it that it had been the home and property of the Washingtons before they went to America. He also told me that an old stone barn on it, which was larger than is usually found on a farm of the size (about seventy acres, if I recollect aright) of Gateside, was said to have been built by a Washington for the purpose of storing his wool at a time when the price for wool was too low to satisfy him. This would be likely to be the case, because the ownership of Gateside carried with it the right to pasture a considerable number of sheep on Howgill Fell.

Gateside is in the Parish of Sedbergh, from which town it is distant about four miles—probably less. It is situated on the road between Sedbergh and Low Borough Bridge, a place on the River Lune, consisting, if I recollect aright, of a solitary inn, and important only because an ancient cattle-fair is held there once a year. This road runs between the house and the farm-buildings, and the homestead is distant about half a mile from the Lune, which there separates the Counties of Yorkshire and Westmorland. The nearest railway station is Lowgill, which is distant

about a mile and a half; but when I left home, now over thirty years ago, there was nothing at Lowgill but the station buildings and a few cottages for railway employees. Lowgill station is on the main London and North Western line, and is the junction-station where the line which passes Leeds, Skipton, Ingleton, Kirkby Lonsdale, and Sedbergh joins the main line. There is no town or village nearer to Gateside than Sedbergh.

If the tradition I have given be true, it is practically certain that Washington's English forefathers were, like my own, whose old homesteads have all been within four or five miles of Gateside, "dalesmen" and "statesmen" (estatesmen) or yeomen—that is to say, farmers who owned the land they farmed.

It is possible that the Sedbergh Parish registers may yield some information in regard to Washington's family; but a search which I had occasion to make during a visit home some twenty years ago of the registers of the adjoining Parish of Kendal, showed me that, previous to the beginning of last century, they had not been very well kept.

I may state that Gateside now belongs to my only brother; but he does not live there, but at another farm of his in Lambrigg, about five miles distant; and a tenant is probably in occupation of the farm. The house is a rather old stone building, but I should think not so old as to have been dwelt in by the Washingtons. Although a single building, it is usually occupied by two families, the front and one end being for the gentler folks, and the remainder for the farmer who rents the land. After my father's death, the gentler-folks' part was, I believe, let to the widow of a clergyman. The house, in fact, is such as would be likely to be built by a well-to-do "statesman" for his own use.

In regard to my father as an authority for this tradition, I may state that he was born in 1804 at Wythmoor, in the Township of Lambrigg, in the County of Westmorland. As Wythmoor is distant only about four miles from Gateside, and the loss of the American colonies was then a recent event, there would most likely be much interest taken in Washington during my father's boyhood; and his father, who had been born in 1767 in the adjacent township of Grayrigg at the farm of Blacketbottom, which is about five miles from Gateside, would have been likely to have told him of the tradition. It is possible, also, that some special reason may have existed for my family retaining their interest in their old neighbors, the Washingtons; but of this I have received no tradition. Since I left home, the old people who knew of the tradition will have died; and it may even be that by this time it has been lost to the district altogether.

If this tradition is established as a fact, and it is shown that our old north-country "dale" stock has furnished a man who played such a part and carried himself so honorably in the world as did George Washington, I shall, of course, be very proud; but I should be infinitely prouder if a "dalesman" were to play a great part in welding together the two separated parts of our race.—I am, sir, faithfully yours,

WILLIAM FARRER.

P. S.—As it is now over thirty years since I was at Gateside, and I only resided a few times and for short intervals at my father's house after he went to live there, it may be that I have not been quite accurate in some of the distances I have given. W. F.

LAMBRIGG, QUEANBEYAN, NEW SOUTH WALES, November 15, 1899.

[We print the above letter since so much has been said about the Washingtons of Yorkshire as a possible link in the pedigree of George Washington; but we must say that the present bit of evidence is very shadowy, as the authenticated facts will show.

The two emigrants, John and Lawrence, were born in 1634 and 1635, in Tring. Their father, Rev. Lawrence W., was born in 1602, in Northamptonshire, as his matriculation record shows, being the son of Lawrence Washington of Brington, who was son of Robert Washington of Sulgrave, County Northampton, whose father, Lawrence, Mayor of Northampton, was the grantee of Sulgrave, 30 Hen. VIII., A. D. 1539. We know that Rev. Lawrence W. married and had children at Tring, County Hertford, 1635-1641, soon after he became a Fellow of Brazenose College, Oxford. In 1633 he obtained the living of Purleigh in Essex, from which he was expelled in 1643, and he then lived in poverty at Maldon until his death in 1652. Thus, we have five generations of the ancestors, covering the period from A. D. 1539 to 1652, all accounted for as living in Northamptonshire and Essex. Before that, three generations are said to have lived in Lancashire, but we need not go so far back.

Mr. Farrer's father was born in 1804, and his grandfather in 1767, and it is only thought possible that the latter gave the tradition about the Washingtons. This would at best be a whole century after the emigrants left for Virginia; and when they went, their property and interests were clearly connected with Tring in Hertfordshire. For two centuries, therefore, we can see no possibility of any of George Washington's ancestors having lived at Sedbergh, to say nothing of the improbability of any tradition of such residence surviving during a period when the Washingtons were of no account. In fact, until 1775, no Englishman, especially in a small village, would have any reason to ask who the Washingtons were. Even in Virginia in 1775, no one unconnected with the family could have told who George Washington's great-grandfather, the emigrant, was. How, then, could the villagers at Sedbergh know it? The emigrants were certainly in Virginia in 1677. There were Washingtons in Yorkshire, and one may have lived at Sedbergh. There were several emigrants of the name who came to America; but no one cares for any line except the one glorified by the immortal George.—ED. NATION.]

IRREGULAR DEGREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A prominent religious weekly had, not long since, in its personal items the following announcement: "The Western University of Chicago, Ill., has conferred, as the result of examination, the degree of Ph.D. on the Rev. Mr. ——, rector of —— Church," etc. In its last number it says: "In reference to the statement published in this column, December 9, that the Western University of Chicago had conferred the degree of Ph.D., we are informed that the Western University, though chartered, has no resident faculty or college buildings."

The last report of the Department of Education of the State of Illinois in its list of colleges does not mention the name of this institution, neither does the last report of the United States Commissioner of Education.

The bestowal of degrees by one other institution in Chicago in an irregular manner has previously occasioned public protest. Is it not possible for educators in Illinois to secure State control of advanced degrees? The reckless manner in which such degrees are conferred in several professional schools of Chicago has led to Government action in France against the holders of all similar American degrees. H.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, December 25, 1899.

"IMMIGRANT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the notice of the last section of the Oxford Dictionary, your reviewer referred to "the American origin of *immigrant* in 1792, its inventor being Jeremy Belknap" (*Nation*, November 9, p. 354). Three years earlier, Jedidiah Morse had written: "Besides the Dutch and English already mentioned, there are in this state [New York] many immigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and some few from France" (*American Geography*, 1789, ix., 253).

There is also a still earlier alleged example. On January 15, 1788, in the Massachusetts Convention for ratifying the Federal Constitution, Rufus King is reported to have spoken as follows: "The immigrants from Massachusetts, who settled on Connecticut River, appointed representatives to meet in the General Court of that colony for only six months." (In *Life & Corr.*, 1894, i., 296, taken from Elliot's *Debates*, ii. 35.) Suspecting that there might be an error, I examined two editions (1827, 1861) of Elliot and three editions (1788, 1808, 1856) of the 'Debates, Resolutions, and Proceedings' of the Massachusetts Convention, and found that in all five the word in question reads "emigrants." Hence Morse's use of *immigrant* in 1789 is the earliest thus far recorded. A. M.

BOSTON, December 30, 1899.

Notes.

The authorized biography of the late Dwight L. Moody is to be prepared by his son, William Revell Moody, who desires that any letters or information of special interest for the work may be addressed to him at East Northfield, Mass.

In furtherance of an historical task, Miss Alice B. Adams, No. 93 Hancock Street,

Auburndale, Mass., desires to learn where she may find the following documents: Reports of the American Convention of Delegates for the Abolition of Slavery, for the years between 1798 and 1809 (there should be six of them); the Report of the same Convention for the year 1815; and the ninth volume (or, new series, vol. 3) of the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*, from August, 1828, to January 3, 1829.

'Men and Things I Saw in Civil War Days' is a collection of sketches of a dozen prominent men of the civil war, mostly generals in command of armies, but including Lincoln and Johnson. James F. Rusling, the author, was an officer in the Quartermaster's Department, both in the field and at supply depots, and has put his recollections of leading men he met into lively chapters, which must be read as presentations of off-hand opinions and predilections rather than critical estimates of historical value. The biographical sketches are followed by a hundred and fifty pages of the author's private letters of the period, containing a good deal of interesting matter, which would have been improved by passing through the hands of an editor of severe good taste, condensing and making excerpts, with suppression of the too abundant "display" letterheads, to use a printer's phrase. The book is well printed and the portraits are generally well chosen. Eaton & Mains are the publishers.

Those who wish a small Bible dictionary and who are satisfied with the position of the Princeton School, will find exactly what they want in the 'Dictionary of the Bible,' by Prof. John D. Davis of the Princeton Theological Seminary (Philadelphia: The Westminster Press). It is a very straightforward, plain little book of some 800 pages; there is no doubt as to its meaning, and that meaning belongs to the Year One. Some one said of Dr. Hodge that he knew all the systems of philosophy and all the different ways of being an unbeliever, and they had all had no effect on him. Here, too, there is no trace of effect by modern criticism. The book is adapted for those who can walk unshakingly in the old paths; those who are already wandering in darkness will find no help in it.

The last instalment of Hugo's 'Choses Vues,' recently noticed at some length by our Paris correspondent, has been published in an English dress by the Messrs. Dillingham. This translation, by Mr. John W. Harding, has the merit of clinging to the text so closely as to reproduce with great accuracy the jerky effect of Hugo's staccato sentences. Further, it is for the most part correct in its renderings. But when the original says of an old book "n'ayant plus de sa reliure que le dos," the translator should give some explanation for his stating (p. 20) that "the binding was missing from the back." The *front-door* is a doubtful equivalent for "porte-cochère." Without discussing either the general question of slang or its international correspondences, we hesitate to accept *chestnut* as admissible, while "galette" passes current in French. Hugo says that Blanqui, when in prison at Vincennes, lived chiefly on bread and *pommes crues*; the translator, remembering that *pommes frites* is restaurant French for "fried potatoes," makes out the unfortunate conspirator to have been fed on tubers, not fruits.

So admirable, quaint, and fascinating are the many stories of the 'Decameron' suited to the taste of the reading public of today that it is surprising how seldom the idea of selection has been adopted. About fifteen years ago Henry Morley reprinted an archaic and most unsatisfactory rendering of some of the stories, but this was one of the cases where the *traduttore* was a veritable *traditore*. The translation was colorless and full of ridiculous blunders. And now comes Mr. Joseph Jacobs with his 'Tales from Boccaccio' (Truslove, Hanson & Comba). He has selected the four well-known stories of Griselda, Torello, Federigo's Falcon, and Lisabetta, and has printed them in a volume which owes a very large part of its attractiveness to Mr. Byam Shaw's illustrations. The choice of stories is a good one, because, apart from their obvious merits, three of them have been incorporated in English literature by Chaucer, Keats, and Tennyson; but we cannot commend Mr. Jacobs's rendering, which is rather a paraphrase than the scholarly translation we had expected. For instance, in the story of Lisabetta, Boccaccio says that her brothers decided to conceal their knowledge of her amour with Lorenzo until a favorable opportunity offered: "Nel quale essi, senza danno o sconcio di loro, questa vergogna, avanti che più andasse innanzi, si potessero tôrre dal viso"—that is to say, an opportunity to rid themselves of this ignominy before it went any further, whenever it could be done safely. Mr. Jacobs's rendering is as follows: "To the end that, when the time came when they could take vengeance without loss or damage to themselves, it would come about better if they could take him out of sight." Syntax, idiom, and sense are here alike missed. There is plenty of this sort of thing and of slipshod English throughout the book, and it is clear that the ideal rendering is still to come.

We can hardly more than mention the extensive 'Treatise on Crystallography,' by Prof. W. J. Lewis, published by the Cambridge University Press (New York: Macmillan). It will be indispensable to all who have to do with crystals. We will, however, permit ourselves a single observation. Seeing that every descriptive notation for a crystal-face is nothing but a way of writing the analytical geometer's equation for the intersection of that plane with the plane at infinity, it would seem that to undertake the study of crystallography without having first mastered the modern methods of plane analytical geometry would be one of those feeble, half-prepared ways of working that vernacular speech calls "slouchy," and which no course of instruction ought to contemplate as admissible. But a student who has thus prepared himself will find a great part of Prof. Lewis's work tedious, because it is needlessly prolix and is complicated with such inessentials as a third dimension. It is true that the final chapter partly remedies this fault, in the same sense that the fatigue of a five-act drama might be said to be relieved if, at the end, the green curtain were to be rung up for a one-act condensation of it. Yet even this supplementary chapter is not as modern as it should be.

From Lemcke & Buechner we receive the 137th issue of the 'Almanach de Gotha,' which flings down the glove to heretics on the century question by speaking of "1900, the last year of the century now closing." Nevertheless it chooses this last year rather than the first of the twentieth century for turning over a new leaf by a change to a slightly larger form, thus keeping down the number of "signatures"—in other words, the thickness; yet the quantity of matter is greater than ever. In the genealogical portion several improvements are noted, including a hint how to address any member of a family inserted in the 'Almanach.' A new state, "Crete," has swept into the editor's sky; and behold a chapter, "Notice statistique sur les États protégés Colonies des États-Unis," which must swell our protectionist President with pride: Guam, Hawaii, Philippines, "Portorico" (this for the benefit of purists who reject our English name Porto Rico and overlook the Spanish adjective "portoriqueño," Porto Rican), and Cuba. Of the four regulation steel portraits, the most eminent is President Loubet's.

The tenth volume of the 'Cotta'sche Musenalmanach' since the revival of the annual in 1891 under the editorship of Dr. Otto Braun, has just appeared (Stuttgart). The contents consist of two novels, both excellent, but wholly different in character—"Mater Dolorosa," by Frau Henriette Keller-Jordan, and "Das Stumme Klavier," by Ernst von Müllenbach-Lenbach—and a variety of poems by Martin Greif, Isolde Kurz, Julius Grosse, Max Haftung, Max Kiesewetter, Irene von Schellander, Eduard Paulus, Carl Weitbrecht, and many other writers of epic and lyric verse. Especially noteworthy are Prince Emil von Schönaich-Carolath's "Hans Habenichts," a series of "Landsknechtlieder," Hermann Lingg's "Carmen Saeculare" in praise of "Die Elektrische Kraft," Wilhelm Hertz's "Lautlose Nacht," and Max Haushofer's "Der Gast der Einsamkeit." There are six full-page illustrations.

The fourth volume of 'Franz Liszt's Briefe, gesammelt und herausgegeben von La Mara' (Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel) contains his letters to the Princess Carolyne Sayn-Wittgenstein. There are 360 letters, all in French and extending over a period of about twelve years, from July, 1847, to December, 1859. They were obtained by the editor from the Princess Marie Hohenlohe, daughter of the Princess Wittgenstein. There are also portraits of Liszt and the Princess, and a biographical sketch of the latter. We may add that a most interesting account of the friendship between the composer and this lady is given by their mutual friend, Malwida von Meysenbug, in her recently published volume, 'Der Lebensabend einer Idealistin.'

A valuable contribution to the already voluminous Bismarck literature is 'Meine Erinnerungen an Bismarck,' by G. v. Wilmowski, edited by his son, and just published by Trewendt in Breslau. The author was Bismarck's legal counsellor and a Liberal in politics, and his reminiscences are the more interesting and instructive from the fact that he was not always in sympathy with Bismarck's policy, although fully appreciating his ability and integrity as a statesman. It is a record of intimate intercourse and interchange of thought on public affairs from 1867 to 1870, three eventful years in the history of Germany.

Soon after the death of Ludwig Bamberger, on the 14th of March, it was announced that his reminiscences had been found among his posthumous papers. These

autobiographical records have now been published under the title, 'Erinnerungen von Ludwig Bamberger, aus dem Nachlass herausgegeben von Paul Nathan' (Berlin: Reimer), with a portrait of the deceased and a brief introduction by the editor. The volume begins with charming details of Bamberger's boyhood in Mayence, his native town, followed by descriptions of his life as a student in the University and as a young lawyer. In 1848 he took part in the Revolution, and a year later was a political fugitive in Switzerland and England. Extremely interesting are his experiences as a merchant in Holland, and especially as a banker in Paris, where he associated intimately with Renan, Jules Simon, Crémieux, Sainte-Beuve, Littré, Turgeneff, Caroline Jaubert, Juliette Adam, and other men and women of note in the city on the Seine. The work concludes with his return to Germany and the renewal of his political activity, with characterizations of prominent statesmen and leaders of parliamentary factions, Bismarck, Lasker, Windthorst, Forckenbeck, Twesten, Johann Jacoby, and others. Bamberger is a delightful *causeur;* and although he did not live to complete these recollections, which end abruptly and do not include his later brilliant career till his retirement from public life in 1893, they give an attractive and instructive retrospect of the formative period of his development during his sojourn in foreign lands, and are an admirable supplement to the 'Charakteristiken,' 'Studien und Meditationen,' and other essays in the five volumes of his "Gesammelte Schriften" published by Rosenbaum & Hart in Berlin.

Since Cromwell is "in the air," one must mention 'The Cromwell List,' a charming brochure, "being Notes for the Study of Oliver Cromwell," published by the City Library Association of Springfield, Mass. What is singular about this bibliography is, first, that it has special reference to an historical novel, by Arthur Paterson, 'Cromwell's Own,' selected, we are frankly told, not because it is the best novel of its class ever written, "but because it is a new, wholesome story," etc., etc., and fits in with the prevailing Cromwellian revival. (This booming of a work of fiction has evidently great possibilities.) Next it is provided with excerpts from the major poems on the Protector—Milton, Marvell, Byron, Swinburne, Lowell; and, finally, loosely inserted are photographic copies of Bernini's bust of Oliver, an old Dutch print of him, and portraits of Ireton and Vane. The whole is most daintily printed and embellished with initial letters, headpieces, etc., and is put on sale at 25 cents.

An offprint has been made from the United States Fish Commission's Bulletin for 1899 of Capt. R. W. Shufeldt's paper entitled "Experiments in Photography of Live Fishes." This delicate operation, conducted in an aquarium, holds out a great temptation to ambitious amateurs. Capt. Shufeldt's success has been notable, as his beautiful plates show. His experience is set forth for the benefit of whom it may concern.

Mr. Norman Hapgood's article on "The Theatrical Syndicate," in the first number of the *International Monthly* (Macmillan), does not cast much new light upon the subject, but sums up the existing situation very fairly. It bears most severely, if unintentionally, upon the actors who, having induced some of their associates to join them in a combination against "The Trust," as it is called, promptly deserted them and went over to the enemy for a pecuniary consideration. This inability of actors, on account of their mutual suspicions, jealousies, and rivalries, to stand together, is one of the chief secrets of the Syndicate's power. It is a case of men of business, intent solely upon their own welfare, profiting by the incompetency and general silliness of the geese who lay for them the golden eggs. As yet, the public is not suffering much from the monopoly, which is giving the best of modern plays in very creditable style. The great evils of the system, upon which Mr. Hapgood does not sufficiently insist, are that the men who have seized upon the direction of the theatre know nothing and care nothing about it except as a speculation, and have devised a scheme which, although it is putting money into their pockets, and, in a measure, into those of actors also, is striking at the very roots of the "profession," by cutting off the means of good theatrical education. There will be good plays in the future, as there have been in the past, but, unless there is a speedy change for the better, there will be no one capable of acting them.

Mr. Hapgood's article is one of five (but not the fifth, as represented in the unpaged table of contents on the cover), the others being "Later Evolutions of French Criticism," by Édouard Rod; "Influence of the Sun upon the Formation of the Earth's Surface," by Prof. N. S. Shaler; "Organization among American Artists," by Charles De Kay; and "Recent Advance in Physical Science," by Prof. John Trowbridge. The number gives evidence of haste in preparation. The running-title, *International Monthly,* is repeated on every page, thus making it extremely difficult to find a given article; and the proof-reading leaves much to be desired.

The principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for December is Mr. W. R. Rickmers's account of his travels in eastern Bokhara, of which the most interesting part is the description of the gold-washing in the mountain valleys. The yearly output is estimated at $150,000, "a mere trifle considering the potentialities of the alluvial deposits." By the primitive method of treating the gravel and sand "all gold in the shape of dust is lost, some of the rougher particles only being secured." The deposits are very extensive, the gold occurring "exclusively in tablet form, grains and nuggets being nowhere found." Mr. C. Raymond Beazley gives an estimate and summary of what has been done recently for the study of mediæval geography, and Mr. L. H. Moseley describes some little-known regions in the valley of the Benue, the eastern tributary of the Niger. He passed through a district in which, though the natives go entirely naked, "save for a beautifully woven grass cap," they build "large two and three-story houses, beautifully made of a hard red clay over a foundation of fan-palm stalks, having windows and doors with well-fitting frames, roofs of a pyramid shape, with rafters of the same palm, perfectly thatched with special grass. Furniture of a useful and comfortable kind, consisting of well-made bamboo beds, wooden chairs, and couches, is found inside. The formation of the chief town is quite European in its style—straight, wide roads, with squares at intervals, the houses being built with even frontage and the whole kept beautifully clean."

The Consular Reports for December contains a detailed description of an electric dredge just built at Hoboken, near Antwerp, for the River Volga. The entire equipment was supplied by the General Electric Company of New York, and it was demonstrated at the official trial that "the electric features have manifestly added enormously to the effective use of the dredge, and have minimized all possible interference with commerce." Other articles are upon the dried-beef industry of Uruguay and the Argentine Republic, the motor-carriage exposition at Berlin, with plates, and French savings banks, in which children are largely represented as depositors. "In the common schools the children deposit with their teachers from one sou upward, and a representative of the savings bank comes around once a month to collect these little hoards. If a child deposits but one sou, he receives in return a very small *livret,* or bank-book. When his deposits reach the sum of one franc, his importance entitles him to a "grand livret." An interesting list of flowers, grasses, vegetables, and grain grown in the Yukon territory shows the agricultural possibilities of the Klondike. Wheat sown May 22 was harvested August 28. The season lasts five months in the lowlands and two to four weeks longer on the hillsides with southern exposure.

Thousands of suburban residents, tourists, pleasure-seekers on foot or on the wheel, owners (actual or prospective) of real estate, have profited by the maps forming collectively the topographical State Atlas of New Jersey. This pioneer work, begun in the lifetime of the late Prof. George H. Cook, State Geologist, could not fail, after the lapse of a decade, to be out of date in more than one particular, especially in densely peopled and rapidly growing sections. A resurvey was accordingly undertaken last year, but no longer on a scale of one inch to the mile. The new sheets give nearly two and a half inches to the mile, and are blocked out quite differently from the old. They are about 21x30 inches in dimension, and, while preserving the figured contour lines, the roads, the shore and river soundings, take notice of some economic features such as quarries and pits, reservoirs and pumping stations, cemeteries, steam and electric railways, etc. Four sheets have thus far appeared, designated respectively Jersey City, Newark, Paterson, and Hackensack, and embracing the environment of those places. They are already for sale, at the old price of twenty-five cents apiece, and may be had on order at the office of the Geological Survey at Trenton.

—Concerning the 'Lectures on Memory Culture, consisting of the Famous Lectures Delivered throughout the United States and England,' etc., by "Dr. Edward Pick, Ph.D., M.A.," etc., etc. (E. L. Kellogg & Co.), Prof. James certifies that "there is absolutely no element of charlatanry about them," and that they "are based on solid psychological principles." For a man who appeals to the million to unite those two contrary virtues is harder than to pass through the eye of a needle, since the profession of psychology, like that of medicine, inculcates a little imposing upon people. The mnemotechnic systems of Loisette and White, as well as earlier ones, whose absurdities Dr. Pick puts

in a strong light, were likewise based on some sound psychological principles; only they unfortunately left others out of view. Dr. Pick does much better, and it will undoubtedly surprise most people to find, for instance, that in from three to five minutes they can indelibly impress upon their memory all the French nouns which are feminine by exception. Yet Dr. Pick does not entirely escape the old fault of leaving out of account some of the elements of the problem. The problem is to find a method of establishing a mental association such that a given kind of experience shall enable us voluntarily to recall a number or a word. For this purpose, the first condition to be remarked is that association is between pairs of ideas, and of this principle Dr. Pick makes proper use. The second thing to be remarked is that the suggestion is to have two steps, namely: first, the suggesting experience is to awaken an act of will, not deliberate but spontaneous; and, second, that act of will is to call up the desired word or number. Now an act of will, or what is essentially the same thing, occurs only as an inseparable part of a physiological reaction; and consequently such a reaction must enter into the process of learning. If a person once has a tooth filled by a French dentist, he will never forget the word *plomber*, because a strong reaction has taken place in the learning. For this reason, not to speak of another, in learning a language we ought to associate the foreign words directly with experiences of the things or actions they signify, and not directly with English words. But this is not the only principle that Dr. Pick seems to overlook.

—Mr. C. S. Terry's 'Life and Campaigns of Alexander Leslie' (Longmans) is not so much a continuous biography as a detailed study of nine years, 1638-47. During the Swedish period of the Thirty Years' War, Leslie was a prominent staff officer, and merited the rewards of Gustavus Adolphus by his steadiness and caution. Even before Gustavus landed at Usedom, Leslie had distinguished himself greatly by the successful defence of Stralsund, 1628, at a time when Wallenstein was trying by every expedient to reduce it. Soon after the final descent of the Swedes upon Pomerania, the Scottish adventurer became, by the capture of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, governor of an important city. He was not present at Breitenfeld, at the passage of the Lech, or at Lützen, but, after the King's death, he saw much service, and finally gained a Field Marshal's baton. His German campaigns brought him wealth, which he carefully secured by the purchase of two earldoms in his native land. In 1638 Queen Christina released him from her service, and he returned home just at the moment when Scotland needed the services of a skilled commander. There is nothing whatever about the character of Leslie which can awaken enthusiasm, and it is not strange that he should have waited so long for a biographer. Mr. Terry's chief interest in him arises from the nature of the part he took in the contest which arrayed on British soil the three armies of Charles, of the Parliament, and of Scotland. The action of the book centres around Marston Moor more than around any other battle, and Mr. Terry forcibly supports the thesis that Scottish assistance there was indispensable to Cromwell's success. Before the fight, Leslie had swept the royal garrisons from the northern counties, and, despite ill-founded charges which have been brought against his courage, his part in securing the victory yields only to that of Cromwell himself. Indeed, Mr. Terry, when distributing the laurels, says: "Apart from the contribution of individuals, the victory was shared perhaps in equal proportions by the left wing of the horse and the right wing of the foot, by Cromwell's and Leslie's troopers and the Scottish musketeers and pikemen." After Charles's surrender at Newark, Leslie was placed in a delicate position, from which he issued without having done anything to embroil the two kingdoms still further. Mr. Terry really begins his story at the First Bishops' War, and closes it at the moment when the Scotch were paid off for the surrender of their king. Into the Dunbar campaign, where David rather than Alexander Leslie met defeat, he does not enter, although his appendix contains a number of documents relating to it. As an essay on a striking phase of military history, this book is valuable. Moreover, it escapes all suspicion of having been merely "cribbed" from Firth and Gardiner.

—Last year Prof. Henry Simonsfeld delivered before the Royal Academy of Munich a memorial oration on Wilhelm von Riehl, in which he analyzed Riehl's position as an historian of civilization. This address has since been published by the Academy in a somewhat augmented form, under the title 'Wilhelm von Riehl als Kulturhistoriker' (Munich: Franz)—a well-merited distinction, both on account of the writer whose characteristic traits are here most luminously brought out, and by reason of the interest attaching to the often discussed question of the best aims and methods of historical study. Briefly stated, Riehl's lasting contribution to the stock of human culture is found by Prof. Simonsfeld to be a twofold one. As an artist, he is the undisputed master—if we except Gustav Freytag—of German historical genre painting. As an investigator and thinker, he stands midway between the individualists and the collectivists. Few works probably of the last fifty years have given a stronger impulse to the sociological study of history in all its relations—political, religious, literary, artistic—than Riehl's 'Land und Leute,' or 'Die bürgerliche Gesellschaft,' and it can with probability be said that, but for his activity, the present school of collectivist historians of civilization would not be what it is. On the other hand, no one could be more explicit than Riehl in the assertion of individuality as one of the prime forces in the history of human progress, and it is well worth while to quote at least one of his many declarations on this point, brought together by Prof. Simonsfeld. "The age," he says in his 'Kulturhistorische Studien,' "creates the man, and the man helps to create his age. Every productive mind is at the same time child and father, disciple and master of his time. For what does this word 'time' mean but the sum total of simultaneous intellectual tendencies which press upon, subdue, and shape the individual mind? But this individual mind is also a constituent part of the sum total of simultaneous tendencies; and the more fully the individual man is influenced by these tendencies, the more strongly will he influence, subdue, and direct them. He who knows how to combine these contrasts has the key to the mysterious law of human progress."

—Prof. Otto Harnack, author of 'Die klassische Æsthetik der Deutschen,' has collected his numerous contributions to German literary periodicals, especially the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, in a volume entitled 'Essais und Studien zur Litteraturgeschichte' (Brunswick: Vieweg), which is an interesting index of the present drift of literary criticism in German academic circles. While the new literature, the school of Ibsen and Tolstoi, has found, apart from its large popular following, not a few brilliant theoretical champions among independent journalists and writers (such as Edgar Steiger, Paul Schlenther, Otto Brahm), there is, as far as we know, only one university professor in Germany (Prof. Litzmann of Bonn) who has openly expressed his sympathy with the latest phase of German dramatic or novelistic art. Since one of the principal functions of universities consists in the preservation of old wisdom, this is perhaps a natural and wholesome condition of things, although the new literature would undoubtedly gain much from a somewhat friendlier and more active interest of the academic critics. Prof. Harnack especially, with his keen and deep understanding of what constitute the essential elements of the greatness of classic German literature, would be a most admirable critic and guide for the younger writers of to-day if he chose to give such criticism and guidance; and one cannot help regretting that almost the only reference to Gerhart Hauptmann found in these essays is a most depreciative, if not contemptuous, allusion to his 'Vor Sonnenaufgang.' This lack, of course, does not take away from the value of the bulk of the essays dealing with Goethe and his circle, in which, naturally enough, Prof. Harnack shows himself a strict adherent of the Classicist doctrine as against the unruly aspirations and heresies of the Romanticists. Perhaps the most suggestive of these essays are two dealing with Goethe's relation to Wilhelm von Humboldt and Heinrich Meyer respectively. New and convincing is the proof of Goethe's indebtedness to Raffael Mengs for his views on the imitation of nature; masterly is the sympathetic analysis of Goethe's 'Pandora'; and truly enlightening is the characterization of Ibsen.

—It is strange how so important a language as Hausa could have been so much neglected. It is spoken by one per cent. of the whole population of the world, and is certainly the language of the future for tropical Africa. Philologically it is of the highest interest and value; it may, perhaps, be the key to the yet unsolved problem of the relation of the languages which we used to call Hamitic to the Semitic group. It has been known since Mungo Park's time, and yet only now have we a dictionary of it that can be called in any degree satisfactory ('Dictionary of the Hausa Language,' by Charles Henry Robinson, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, assisted by W. H. Brooks, B.A.; volume i., Hausa-English. Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press; New York: Macmillan). Canon Robinson's work is based on the Dictionary of Schön, corrected throughout and much enlarged. He has fitted himself for his task by residence in the Hausa country and by collecting Hausa

MSS., the orthography of which he takes as a basis. Schön, on the contrary, worked entirely by ear, and was unaware that Hausa had any literature or had even been reduced to writing. In his preface, Canon Robinson deals at length with the phonology of the language and with its relations to Semitic. Setting aside his little absurdity about Hanno's expedition and possible Carthaginian influence—from which the Tyrwhitt Scholar who assisted him might surely have saved him—his remarks are full and good. His difficulty that the Arabic element in Hausa belongs rather to the classical language than to the present-day colloquial idiom is not serious. Hausa speakers have long been in touch with speakers of Arabic; even in mediæval times they were known to Arabic geographers. In all probability, also, they have been much in contact with the Bedawi tribes of the Sahara, and from them would pick up words of the Bedawi dialect, which is comparatively near to classical Arabic. Further, it is evident, though Canon Robinson does not notice this, that they derived their alphabet from the Moors and not from Egypt. It is in Moorish Arabic, therefore, that parallels should first be sought. As for the primitive Semitic basis of Hausa, as distinguished from such loan-words, it is to ancient Egyptian that we should look for comparisons, and not to Coptic, as the Canon suggests. The pyramid texts are none too ancient for that purpose. The lexicon has evidently been compiled with diligence and knowledge. It marks a great advance in the study of an important language and is a step towards the solution of the "Hamite"-Semitic question. The get-up of the book is fully worthy of the Cambridge University Press.

—The movement towards developing and extending a common, artificial language for Norway based on the existing peasant dialects is receiving severe criticism from many leading Norwegian writers and public men. This language reform is only one of many expressions—some wise; more, foolish in the extreme—of the national consciousness that has been developing in Norway during the past fifty years. While all the other demands, as that for a separate Foreign Office and a non-union flag, have been directed against the sister kingdom of Sweden, this one is intended to remove the last evidence of the earlier union with Denmark. The leaders of the "Landsmaal," or national tongue, called by its critics "paper tongue," claim that the true Norse spirit is hampered by being expressed through the inferior and foreign Danish, even when the latter limps under the name of Dano-Norwegian. At a meeting held recently in Christiania, Björnstjerne Björnson and Sophus Bugge addressed a large audience, representing different political tendencies, and exposed the weakness of many of the patriotic claims. Björnstjerne Björnson, the most frankly Norse of the four leading living Norwegian writers, while pressing the claims of Danish as the cultural language of Norway, at the same time warmly recommended the use of the existing dialects as dialects, especially in connection with fiction, to give local color. Prof. Bugge aptly characterized the whole movement when he said that it was the outcropping of a worn-out romantic enthusiasm for the past, of vague dreams of the glory of the Middle Ages, of a greater respect for the letter than the spirit, and of a faulty appreciation of contemporary history and the realities of life.

THE PHILIPPINE JUGGLE.

The Expedition to the Philippines. By F. D. Millet, Special Correspondent of *Harper's Weekly*, and of the London *Times*, etc. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers. 8vo, pp. 275.

Mr. Millet was already favorably known by his career as an artist and war correspondent, and more lately by his well-told and well-illustrated tour of the Danube from the Black Forest to the Black Sea; and his employment as correspondent of the London *Times* gave him, in the Philippines, exceptional advantages. The fruit of these is seen in his chapters on his excursion over the railway to Dagûpan, which our troops have reached very lately, and his attendance at the opening of the Philippine Congress at Malolos. He writes from fullest sympathy with our officers and men in every phase of their arduous and embarrassing task. He went out with Gen. Merritt from San Francisco, and, after the few days' halt at Honolulu to coal (which he put to good use), went on with the headquarters to Manila. His stay did not extend long beyond the occupation of the city and the transfer of the Military Governorship to Gen. Otis, for he took ship for home before the 1st of October. His narrative, therefore, covers the original expedition of the army, the short campaign against the Spaniards, and the establishment by the insurgents of the investing lines about Manila, which was practically a siege as before, the garrison being changed from Spanish to American. For this period he seems to be a competent and candid guide. Both directly and incidentally, Mr. Millet gives us much interesting and useful knowledge of Luzon and its people; and the fifty reproductions of photographs, even the poorest of the snap-shots with the kodak, are full of instruction.

It is, of course, in its bearing on the military and governmental problems that the book has its serious interest. Some telling criticisms are made, both expressly and by implication, on the errors in fitting out the expedition, in the landing of the troops, and in adapting their physical discipline to the new conditions of climate and country; but we must confine our attention to the relations of the army to the insurgents, for the seeds of the subsequent collision with them and of the existing war were planted as soon as the expedition arrived in Manila Bay.

It will be remembered that Admiral Dewey's naval victory had been in the southern bight of the great bay opening to the west, where he had bombarded also the fortifications at the village of Cavité, and driven the Spaniards from them. These works were then occupied by Aguinaldo and his army of insurgents, and here was the harbor where our troops landed, and which became the base for operations against the city of Manila, lying in the northern bight of the bay, some twenty miles from Cavité by land, though not more than half that distance by water. Between the two places was a sandy beach bordered by a fringe of tropical trees, beyond which, again, was a plain becoming marshy and impracticable as one gets further from the shore. Deeper in the interior the country rises to the mountains which are the backbone of the island. The topography decides the line of advance northward along the shore, on either side of the main road from Cavité to the city, called the Camino Real. Sluggish streams cross this route and empty into the bay. These, of course, were lines of defence, and were to some extent entrenched. The fleet could steam along, abreast of the infantry advance, and when the fort of San Antonio de Abad (defending the suburb on the bay) was reached, the heavy naval fire would either drive out the garrison or prepare for our infantry assault.

When Gen. Merritt arrived, not only did Aguinaldo hold Cavité, but Mr. Millet tells us that he had troops on all the principal roads leading out of Manila, and had "completely invested the town, from Caloocan on the north to Maytubig on the south" (p. 61). His forces were organized, and he had several generals in subordinate commands. He was, therefore, the commander in fact of an army similar in organization and in numbers to our own under Gen. Merritt. His troops were neatly uniformed in Spanish uniforms captured at Cavité, were armed with excellent rifles of recent patterns, and the photographs show a soldierly, martial appearance. Our first transports landed Gen. Anderson's brigade within the insurgents' post at Cavité. The second fleet landed Gen. Greene's at Tambo, behind the insurgents' investment lines south of Manila, and MacArthur's followed. The only troops then engaged with the Spaniards were Aguinaldo's, and, to attack Manila, Merritt must advance through the insurgent lines unless he were willing simply to support their attack.

With two such armies bent upon the common purpose of reducing the Spanish stronghold, the first step, an intelligent observer would say, must be a conference between the commanding officers. The part each is to play must be defined. A plan must be arranged and definitely settled, as at Sebastopol the English took the right and the French the left. There should be a commandant of the whole, if possible, as Washington was of the French and American forces at Yorktown. If that could not be arranged, there must at least be action under constant consultation and agreement between the chiefs, as between the English and French in the Crimea. The conduct of war is a matter of such terrible consequences, and the coöperation of armies of different nationalities is so complicated and delicate a business, that it would be about as bad to wage war without such full and constant understanding as it would be to let the brigade commanders make each a campaign of his own, without a common superior or mutual agreement. Such coöperation with a de-facto army, if frankly conducted, does not imply any diplomatic committal to the recognition of the government behind the army. But Mr. Millet confirms what was hardly credible as we got it in current news dispatches of last year, in saying that "no official notice was ever taken of Aguinaldo, although he repeatedly made urgent requests to be recognized as an ally, or at least to be notified of his acknowledged status." It is added that "he never called upon Gen. Merritt, and, although the latter passed through Bacoor, Aguinaldo's headquarters, they never met" (p. 61). Reflect upon it for a moment. Merritt landed his

army upon territory actually held by Aguinaldo, and went into camp under protection of the insurgent pickets and skirmish lines which held back the Spaniards from attacking the boats as they approached the shore. Not only had no previous invitation been sent to Aguinaldo to meet the American commander and make a mutual concert of action or a definite separation, but the course taken was to ignore his existence, and, in the necessary contact with his troops, to shoulder them aside, quietly if possible, and have no official intercourse with them even in doing so.

An organized army is so hard a fact in time of war that not even Mother Eddy's disciples could dissolve it into thin air by faith in its non-existence. When a movement toward Manila was to be made, Aguinaldo's men had to be got out of the way, for they held the line across the shore facing the Spaniards, and it would be awkward marching over them if they resisted it. How should it be done? They would obey no orders except from their own chief, with whom Gen. Merritt would not communicate. Mr. Millet explains it thus: "On the afternoon of the 28th [July], General Greene received a verbal message from General Merritt, suggesting that he juggle the insurgents out of part of their lines, always on his own responsibility, and without committing in any way the commanding general to any recognition of the native leaders, or opening up the prospect of an alliance" (p. 83). We are told that General Greene accomplished this very cleverly by politely inviting to an interview General Noriel, insurgent commander on their left, and persuading him of the desirability of putting in one of our effective batteries opposite the Spanish fort; and when room was made for the guns, two battalions of infantry went in also. Noriel had referred the matter to Aguinaldo, who consented on condition that General Greene gave a written receipt for the part of the lines. We are told that the latter sent to Aguinaldo "a carefully worded letter, stating that he had occupied a specified part of the line," though the author does not vouch for its text.

It is hard to see what benefit could come of such "juggling" more than by frank dealing. The advantage of a verbal arrangement was certainly not in freedom from misunderstanding and later recrimination. Writing is usually insisted on in such cases to prevent disputes afterward. Gen. Greene's dealing with Gen. Noriel was as really the United States recognizing the insurgent army as Merritt's with Aguinaldo would be. The Filipino seems to have been shrewd enough to get a writing at last, and, with this as the proof of some sort of a transaction, we must either stand by the honest revelation of the whole of it, or lie about it. Mr. Millet loyally concludes that "the insurgents were thus beaten at their own game," but it does not seem so clear who was beaten. We are often told that war justifies deceptions of the enemy, which are called *ruses de guerre*, but we do not recall any authority on the laws of war which approves practising them on your friends. On the other hand, history gives many instances in which insincere dealing with friends has made enemies.

Honesty in the matter would not seem to have been bad policy. The natural thing for Merritt to do, and the thing which his training would probably have made most agreeable to him, would have been, immediately upon his arrival, to invite Aguinaldo to a conference, and to say to him: "In our war with Spain we seek to defeat and capture the Spanish army holding Manila. You have an army now investing the place. We have no directions to excite a revolution here, and if peace results from our military and naval operations here and elsewhere, it may be on the basis, so far as these islands are concerned, of leaving them as they were. We cannot pledge you anything in the future; but you command an army, and your purpose seems in harmony with ours. We can recognize you as commandant of an army in fact, and must let the future develop itself. We must either work together to enforce the surrender of Manila, or we must play at cross-purposes. Shall we work together on this basis?"

There can hardly be a doubt that such overtures would have been cordially met. No complications could have arisen at all comparable with those which came from the course actually pursued. The habit of coöperation and transparent dealing would have begotten confidence. If the treaty of Paris had turned out just as it did, the way would still have been prepared for the Filipinos to organize an autonomous government under our friendly protection, and amicable diplomacy would have had a promising field. We are, in this, carefully avoiding the supposition of any ultimate purpose different from that which our Government has avowed at each step in the progress of events. We are simply noting the gross blunder in methods, assuming the policy in general which our War Department indicated to its officers in the field.

Following Mr. Millet's narrative, things went from bad to worse. On the 7th of August Admiral Dewey and General Merritt sent a peremptory demand of surrender to the Spanish Governor-General, threatening an assault and a naval bombardment of the town if the demand was not complied with in forty-eight hours. Of this no notice was given to the Filipinos, who still occupied the whole line of investment except a regimental front on the shore. There was more "juggling," now with the Spaniards, resulting, as Mr. Millet intimates, in an understanding that, after a noisy show of defence, a surrender should be made to our troops, who were to answer for the exclusion of the Filipinos from any occupation of the walled town. This was much the smaller part of the city, being that portion south of the Pasig River which was originally included in a regular bastioned enceinte, as Vienna used to be before the fortifications were levelled and turned into the boulevard of the Ring-Strasse. On the 13th the noisy comedy came off. Our troops advanced along the shore, and the navy knocked the stones and mortar about on San Antonio de Abad, from which, to avoid accidents, the Spanish troops seem to have been early withdrawn.

As our troops went forward with a narrow front along the sands, their flank was, of course, wholly exposed to the insurgent army. A deplorable fiasco would have occurred if Aguinaldo had proved hostile. From a military point of view, the movement was conceivable only on the faith of the trustful friendship of the Filipinos. Though these had been contemptuously ignored, and in their exclusion from knowledge must have suspected that they were looked upon as enemies—though they had grown restive, as the author tells us, and in many ways showed their not unreasonable irritation and distrust of our purposes—yet no allies acting upon an agreed countersign could have gone forward, side by side with our troops, more promptly than they did.

When Fort San Antonio was occupied by our own men, and the columns pressed forward towards the permanent fortifications of the inner city, the Spaniards hoisted a white flag, and a mixed naval and army commission entered to settle the capitulation. While these officers were in conference with the Spaniards, and two hours after the white flag had been shown at noon (p. 152), the firing was still continued along the whole line except that of the advance of Greene's brigade, say along three-quarters of the whole. The Spaniards again closed the gate where Greene had entered in a carriage sent for him, to join the commission, and now fired upon those who approached. The insurgents were pressing through the suburbs on east and north, MacArthur's brigade was following them or trying to elbow through them, and the conundrum was, How to make the Filipinos stop fighting without communicating with them or recognizing them?

At five o'clock a rough draft of the capitulation was hurriedly signed (p. 162). The Spanish flag was still flying on the northwest bastion, in sight of the foreign ships in the bay, but naval officers now hurried to it and replaced it by the American ensign. A half-regiment landed from a steamer with Gen. Merritt, as a headquarters guard. The Filipino puzzle seems to have been settled by having Greene's brigade, with arms a-port, push back the insurgents (whose leaders restrained them from fighting) and admit McArthur's men, keeping out Aguinaldo's, who now learned again how they had been "juggled" as they stood looking foolishly up at the American rifles on the parapet. Our triumph was nearly complete. We had the inner city, and we had not recognized the insurgents, whom we were now ready to bid go about their business. When they visited the city, they were required to disarm, though the Spanish officers, under the capitulation, wore their side-arms.

But the insurgents still held the outer town and the surrounding villages. They established their picket lines and made stringent rules for entrance and exit. For their own support and in the name of the Revolutionary Government which Aguinaldo had proclaimed on June 23, they levied duties on supplies and merchandise entering the city, where prices rose to siege rates. They were constantly offering to come to some distinct understanding or to negotiate a *modus vivendi*, but the bugbear of recognition prevented our doing this. Meanwhile, the picket lines were nearly in contact, and each side sought to "juggle" the other out of some desirable post. Gen. Merritt left things in this condition when he was ordered to Paris to assist the negotiators there in settling the final disposal of the islands under the peace protocol which had been signed on the same day Manila surrendered.

Gen. Otis replaced Merritt in a task that was by no means an easy one. As is always the case, mere necessity brought about

modes of dealing with an army in Aguinaldo's position. Mr. Millet estimates the number of rifles, captured and other, which could be directly traced into Aguinaldo's hands, at 35,000, and he is confident the number of men in the insurgent army was about the same as the number of guns, though not all concentrated at Manila (p. 224). We are told that this army was constantly strengthened by recruits, and that the officers worked diligently in discipline, drill, and firing practice. Of the people he says that "one of their strongest characteristics is an implacable spirit of revenge, and that nothing is more actively provocative of this feeling than a real or imaginary slight or an act of injustice" (p. 61). What must we say, then, of a policy begun in most insulting slights which were continued daily and hourly through weeks and months, of constant wounds to pride, of petty advantages got by "juggling," of persistent refusal to confer or to make a candid comparison of views? The incurable mischief was evidently done before the Peace Commission was sent out to Manila. We wonder the armed collision did not begin sooner, and we do not wonder that Mr. Schurman found so rooted a distrust that it could not be overcome. To call the policy which dictated Merritt's course ignorant and childish would be flattery. The responsibility for it remains to be fixed.

If we keep steadily in mind the fact that Mr. Millet's narrative covers only the period from General Merritt's arrival till Otis assumed command, we shall find that it not only is consistent with such official documents as the President sent to Congress at its last session, but makes them clearly intelligible in the bright light of current events as they were seen by a keen observer. Prior to Merritt's landing, Consul Pratt at Singapore had been the means of putting Aguinaldo in communication with Admiral Dewey, and the latter had brought the insurgent leader to Manila, landed him at Cavité, given him arms and the means of calling his people into the field. The uprising openly declared itself the liberation of the Philippines, and its aim the overthrow of Spanish domination in the archipelago. With Dewey's encouragement, Aguinaldo got together an army, occupied Cavité, fought numerous engagements, drove the Spaniards from a dozen villages, captured two or three thousand Spanish troops, completely invested Manila, and shut it off from all communication with the interior as Dewey did from the sea. Here was no squeamishness about coöperation or recognition.

General Anderson came with the first army detachment and continued the existing relations. He promptly sought from Aguinaldo "a definite understanding, which I hope will be advantageous to both," and asked for "your Excellency's advice and cooperation." His Quartermaster, in a letter asking for horses, buffaloes, and carts, which was written by Anderson's direction, said our troops were there "to expel the Spaniards and to give a good government to the whole people. . . . General Anderson wishes you to inform your people that we are here for their good." Under the initiative Admiral Dewey had taken, the army action was so far harmonious with that of the navy.

On the 25th of July Gen. Merritt entered the bay, and a new spirit at once became evident. What Mr. Millet so clearly saw there, now followed. What were Merritt's instructions? The *fact* is told not only by Mr. Millet, but by Gen. Greene in the long official paper sent to the Senate. "Aguinaldo did not call upon Gen. Merritt on his arrival, and this enabled the latter to avoid any communication with him, either direct or indirect, until after Manila had been taken." Gen. Greene further tells us that "the day before the attack on Manila he [Aguinaldo] sent staff officers to the same general [Anderson], asking for our plans of attack so that their troops could enter Manila with us. The same request had previously been made to me by one of his brigade commanders, to which I replied that I was not authorized to give the information desired." Finally, we have the same authority for saying that after we were in possession of Manila, Gen. Merritt declared to a staff officer of the insurgent army that "even if the services of Aguinaldo's forces had been needed as allies, he should not have felt at liberty to accept them." We will not assume that here was a deliberate juggle with the word "allies."

It was not only after the occupation of Manila, but a week after, that the first direct communication between Gen. Merritt and Aguinaldo took place. The Filipinos held the water-works, and the scarcity of water in the city made some arrangement necessary. Without naming Aguinaldo, Gen. Merritt on the 20th of August addressed a letter to "The Commanding General of the Philippine forces," in reply to a memorandum Aguinaldo had sent to Gen. Anderson suggesting arrangements to relieve the strained situation. Again the mischief of informal communication became apparent, as Gen. Merritt insists upon an oral agreement with staff officers of the Filipinos, in which he is clear as to what he demands, but vague as to the conditions on the other side, and the whole of which, Aguinaldo asserts, were to be distinctly reduced to writing before binding either party. Merritt, on the 24th, treats it as an agreement pure and simple to withdraw the Filipino forces from all the suburbs of the city, and says he "must insist upon the carrying out of this." He adds, "I am the more insistent in this particular because recent instructions from my home Government contemplate this course." Aguinaldo had already given proof of his good faith by allowing the water supply to be resumed, and his long letter of the 27th, which closes the correspondence, is dignified and conciliatory, and bears the marks of sincere conviction that he is in the right.

It is pitiful to be forced to the conclusion that the outline thus drawn will be that which history will confirm. The conscience of our people has groaned over the story of our dealings with the red Indians, in which the ablest and most experienced of our soldiers have borne concurrent testimony that their wars were uniformly provoked by exasperating wrongs. Another war is probably near its close, another chapter is added to a humiliating tale of incapacity to deal with weaker tribes of men. What has been done is now past praying for; but ought we not to enter upon the duty of giving to the Filipinos an opportunity of free development and real self-government, with a clear consciousness of the utter unwisdom of our dealings with them hitherto?

RECENT NOVELS.

A Confident To-morrow. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros.

The Etchingham Letters. By Sir Frederick Pollock and Ella Fuller Maitland. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Parson Kelly. By A. E. W. Mason and Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co.

Stalky & Co. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday & McClure Co.

On Trial. By Zack. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ridan the Devil, and Other Tales. By Louis Becke. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Little Novels of Italy. By Maurice Hewlett. The Macmillan Co.

The Powers at Play. By Bliss Perry. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Silent Singer. By Clara Morris. Brentano's.

In 'A Confident To-morrow' Mr. Matthews brings a young gentleman from Kansas to New York, armed for conquering fortune with a novel in manuscript. This Mr. Sartain is not imprudent, for he has secured in advance a salaried position in a publishing house, thus providing against hunger and heartrendings while his novel is circulating among the "readers." His career is not meant to resemble that of a rocket. He has enough ability to get on, and even that modest provision is not ostentatiously displayed. He temperately treads the middle way. The worst thing he does is to answer an invitation on a postal-card, and the best to fall in love with a pretty girl of excellent character. He has an unconquerable shyness, which diminishes his conversational efficiency and also deprives him of distinction as the personage of a longish novel.

But Mr. Matthews's design is not so much to paint individuals as to compose a characteristic New York group, and present through them some aspects of the city's life. Thus he introduces Mr. Sartain at once into the home of a successful novelist, associating him intimately with art and letters. Mr. Vivian's home is the scene of Mr. Sartain's social experiences, and these are quite within the range of common knowledge. He is uniformly dull at five-o'clock teas, and at first a little awkward at dinner. The object of particularizing the menu of the Vivians' Thanksgiving dinner we confess escapes us; a generalization about this feast which opened Sartain's eyes to observe the beauty of "simplicity and luxury," would seem to us sufficient. A jaded eye might have questioned the perfect taste of "a mould of fancy ice cream, representing a hen sitting upon a nest of spun sugar," but the feeling for gastronomy and æsthetics is otherwise so fine that it is perhaps finical to challenge the hen. The chapters descriptive of Sartain's venture in the editing of a weekly magazine give a side of life not familiar to the public, and one with which the author is most competent to deal adequately. Mr. Matthews rather insists on the modernity of the persons who surround Sartain—a quality which hardly needs emphasis, since they are mostly young and could not very well help being modern. Mr. Matthews encourages the cheerful sentiment that there is no time like one's own time; but, to reflective per-

sons who look before and after, this particular work is not convincing. We all know something of our own time superficially, but its meaning, its heart, what it stands for in human history, is perhaps more deeply hidden from the general than that of times seen in perspective. It is for persons of intuition and acute perception to penetrate and explain our own mystery, and we feel that if Mr. Matthews had gone deeper for proof of validity of his pleasant assumption, he might more completely have brought us all over to a state of blissful content with ourselves.

Several popular and not altogether arbitrary prejudices are dispelled in 'The Etchingham Letters.' Almost every one shirks fiction in epistolary form, feeling that narrative will not be sustained and that characterization will be reduced to description. One cannot easily become interested in affairs to which attention is invited so obviously at second hand. Distaste for works of imagination written in collaboration is, with less reason, almost as pronounced. That two minds will not work as one is a foregone conclusion, and, with unity as the desideratum, one rejects the comfort of the thought that there are many ways in which two minds work better than one. Perhaps the authors of 'The Etchingham Letters' were not much concerned about public approval, and have unconsciously succeeded in those directions where failure seemed foredoomed. At all events, in the correspondence between Sir Richard Etchingham and his sister a domestic drama is carried along smoothly, and the characterization is extremely lively. They are ideal collaborators, because they are bound together by affection, by perfect understanding, and by congenial tastes. Their intellectual curiosities and interests are keen and comprehensive, and the ironical humor which runs through their confidential discussion of the rest of the family and their intimates is similarly happy, savored with a subtle distinction of sex. To speak of the little book justly would be to praise it unstintedly, and that praise may be comprehended in the comment that it is one of those infrequent contributions to "light literature" which are delightfully light and unquestionably literature.

'Parson Kelly' is another example of successful collaboration; also a good tale, swaggering somewhat saucily, yet with excellent credentials, into the exclusive company of refined letters. Among the pleasant paths long trod by Mr. Lang for the entertainment of the public, none is more emphatically his own than are those leading up to and away from and round about the expulsion of the Stuarts. For Jacobite plots and plotters he has the scent of the hound for the hare, though he does not always pursue with the intention of destroying. Mr. Mason's graceful reproduction of an eighteenth-century literary manner has quite recently attracted notice in a tale entitled 'The Watchers'; so to narrate the fortunes of gentlemen who answered to almost any name except their family one, who crossed the Channel to and fro without passports, preferring the night to the day, who had no defined occupation and no visible means of support, all about the year 1720, it would be hard to find persons better fitted than Mr. Lang and Mr. Mason. Being Irishmen, Parson Kelly and Nicholas Wogan show more zeal and fervor than discretion in the service of their king, and the parson's heart so often controls his head that Wogan is kept very busy retrieving his friend's errors by use both of his wits and his sword. They are more heroes of drawing-room intrigue than of out-door adventure, and conduct their important business with great elegance and gallantry, conspicuous figures moving in a charmed circle of satin petticoats and link boys, lace ruffles and ready rapiers. Lady Oxford (whose proceedings are not historical) is a fascinating great lady, wicked but not weak, and with the courage and wit to hold her own against the dreadful tongue of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. Without any private honor, without even good repute, power was still possible to great ladies in the gay society of that cynical age, but none so high-placed, so supreme, as to survive the breath of ridicule. When Lady Oxford knows that her world is just going to laugh at her, the nerve with which she challenges that laugh, the effrontery, the tact, the unscrupulousness are magnificent. It would have been better art, we think, if not better morals, to have left her here, saved for the moment by her own daring and the parson's delicate honor. The last chapter is only a tag, a sop for those who crave definite endings, and especially a tribute to that sentiment, so illogical yet so common to imperfect humanity, that glows virtuously on beholding the degradation of the sinner who has enjoyed a long run of prosperity.

Mr. Kipling has never appeared to less advantage than in 'Stalky & Co.' Unless they are ingenious and funny, the pranks of schoolboys do not make interesting reading for mature people, and a little even of the frolic spirit goes a long way. For youngsters the pranks of such boys as Stalky & Co. make very bad reading. Boys are sometimes mischievous, impudent, and unruly to a degree that invites repression, and we have never known one so devoid of these qualities that it could be necessary to encourage their growth by providing him with printed models. 'Stalky & Co.' may have grown up to become the modest heroes described in the last chapter of their history; but when writing that, if Mr. Kipling kept in mind half of what goes before, we think he forgot that the wisdom of experience has been concentrated in a proverb, "The boy is father of the man."

The lady who, assuming the name "Zack," proclaimed her depressing views of life a year or so ago in a volume of short stories, appears in the meantime to have sunk into deep despair. 'On Trial' is a most discouraging work. The study of ignoble character, the representation of pits which a congenital liar and coward may dig for himself, and the process by which he involves in his ignominy the confiding and innocent, are not cheerful themes for fiction, but they are legitimate. When presented impersonally, objectively, in the Greek dramatic fashion, an elevating, exciting impression of great tragic force can hardly fail to be conveyed. From contemplation of the spectacle we spontaneously appreciate its awfulness, even hopelessness. But this method of standing aloof from your subject, putting trust for its life chiefly in its intrinsic vitality, is not Zack's method. To the moral cowardice of Dan Pigott, the generous weakness of Phœbe, the crude villany of Silas Trustgore, she deliberately adds her own very emotional nature and very excitable style. Her personality so infects her people that at last the thoughtful reader comes to disbelieve in Dan and Phœbe, to discredit the incidents, and to resent having had his feelings harassed and his intelligence imposed on. Such fiction as 'On Trial' is neither useful nor beautiful, but it has a sort of hysterical idealism which is at once responded to by sentimental, emotional readers, and thus gets a reputation for truth to life, even for literary skill, which is not deserved.

The South Sea tales and sketches in Mr. Louis Becke's volume entitled 'Ridan the Devil' are as entertaining and even instructive as are his earlier pictures of similar scenes and people. Like Mr. Kipling, he is great in the art of the single, vivid, complete impression. He characterizes with a phrase, and by a single incident throws a search-light on the history of a fairly long life. He is very quick, very sure, always interesting, and sometimes surprisingly funny. "Bilger of Sydney" and "Denison" enjoying his berth ashore are not figures for refined comedy, but any one who takes a tolerant view of human nature may easily laugh with them till he cries. All the work, indeed, is excellent, and that in spite of odd grammar and uncouth phrases which we take to be the popular grammar and expression of Australia and the South Seas.

The infinite scope and variety of our fiction are immediately striking when one takes up Mr. Maurice Hewlett after Mr. Louis Becke. Extremes of natural ability, of education, of outlook meet on a common ground. Mr. Becke is the man of action and observation in fiction, and Mr. Hewlett the man of letters and contemplation. They come together in admiration for the exceptional and fine qualities of human nature, and in generous understanding of those which are more common but less inspiring. In the very modern form of ironical humor, sometimes gay and sometimes grim, they are as one man. Mr. Hewlett's 'Little Novels of Italy' are tales of times when love and murder and Art flourished greatly, when life had but a precarious tenure, yet ran its course gayly unhampered by morals. He has a wealth of knowledge of those times and a diction of wonderful fluency and color, so that one sees and feels more the outward garment than the inward substance. The identification of the author with his period is particularly interesting. The Middle Ages, or rather the picturesque and sensuous aspects of the Middle Ages, have almost extinguished the modern. Mr. Hewlett appears not as one who trod the austere way of Dante or Savonarola, but as an accomplished associate of Boccaccio's merry company.

The tales in the volume entitled 'The Powers at Play' are all readable, but none is more than that. The Powers play in somewhat perfunctory fashion, and, to escape being fatigued by the spectacle, one must always go out between acts. The most amusing incident is found in "The Fish-warden of Madrid," and the most interesting idea in "Jepson's Third Adjective." In the opening tale the vacillating young doctor is kept up to "His Word of Honor" by an accident. Morally, he appears to be about as insecure as if he had broken his pledge. Technically, the tales have the assurance of a practised hand.

The stories included under the title 'A Silent Singer' have very little technical merit, but, on the other hand, much sympathy

with life, especially with life that for one reason or another has not been prosperous or very happy. It is difficult to read the book without mental reference to the author's fame as an actress, and it is almost impossible not to feel that, had she chosen letters, she would have been equally famous as a writer. Besides sympathy, she has a clear vision, both for character and for causes, and, in spite of a leaning towards the sentimental view, she holds her emotions pretty well in hand. We have many better writers than Clara Morris, but few of them have written better tales.

A Century of Science, and Other Essays. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 477.

Agreeable and profitable reading is assured in any book by Mr. Fiske. The fourteen essays composing this latest volume may not make quite so stimulating a draught as some of his other writings, but what they lack in this they make up in their sparkling flow of information and refreshing good sense. The longest and, perhaps, the most interesting, is a eulogy of the historian Parkman, exhibiting the impressive picture of his life and labors. The two next in order of length are, with one exception, the slenderest in matter. One of these, an account of "Some Cranks and their Crotchets," makes one laugh a little, but the most irresistible things in it are quoted from De Morgan's incomparable 'Budget of Paradoxes.' The other is a refutation, neat as a proposition in Euclid, of the theory that Bacon wrote Shakspere. It is only a pity that the object of attack does not offer sufficient resistance to allow of much strength being put forth against it. Less courteous is a brief insession upon the Rev. Joseph Cook. Three of the remaining essays deal largely with the author's reminiscences. In an account of "Cambridge as a Village and as a City," it is the ancient history that is the most curious. There is little about the aspect of the modern village before its incorporation in 1846, since Mr. Fiske did not see it until fourteen years after that event, when its sweet childish ruralness had given place to an ungraceful hobbledehoy suburbanity. There are two obituary notices of the author's friends, Edward Augustus Freeman and Edward L. Youmans, the latter of autobiographical, as well as other, interest. In a discussion of the arbitration treaty we note that as lately as 1897 Mr. Fiske dreamed that our proud and successful rejection of a standing army might stand as an example that Europe must, in course of time, emulate. So it is that each step toward knowledge of ourselves consists in the dissipation of some illusion.

The author evidently attaches considerable importance to his paper on "The Part Played by Infancy in the Evolution of Man," and in his intimate dedicatory epistle to Prof. Thomas Sergeant Perry he properly reclaims for himself the title to the authorship of the theory that the prolonged period of infancy of men is the cause of the persistence of family relations and so of human society. The objection that man's infancy is not, in fact, particularly prolonged seems never to have received from Mr. Fiske an adequate reply.

An essay on "The Scope and Purport of Evolution" is a protest against the assumption that that doctrine is unfavorable to belief in immortality and in God. Here Mr. Fiske is not at his best. Instead of first endeavoring fully and fairly to state wherein lies the persuasiveness of the line of thought against which he argues, but which has deeply impressed a good half of the thinking men of our generation, he pitches upon a vague and shambling sentence of a German professor, as if showing inexactitude in that could serve to prove there was no justice in the thought behind that awkward mouthpiece. Moreover, instead of considering the natural tendencies of evolutionary philosophy, as such, he limits himself to Spencer's special doctrine, which makes the principle of the conservation of energy the root of all the phenomena of the universe. Now what this results in is a virtual splitting of the universe into two uninteracting departments of matter and of mind, and such a breach of continuity cannot satisfy men long, since it ignores the requirements of the logic of this kind of reasoning.

The strongest of the papers is that which gives its title to the book. This is intended to show that the nineteenth century has been intellectually the greatest of all ages, that the idea of evolution is the greatest product of this greatest age, and that Herbert Spencer is the greatest exponent of this greatest of ideas. Most readers will be ready enough to agree that the trick of inquiring concerning each generic phenomenon how it came about or could have come about, is, on the whole, the most cunning lesson that the nineteenth-century animal has learned. Many among our reading millions innocently suppose that Herbert Spencer invented evolutionary philosophy. They do not realize that what probably first magnetized the youthful Aristotle from a student of medicine into a student of the cosmos was the influence of the strong current of evolutionary thought that had been set up in his environment by Democritus—thought that must have seemed as novel and as scientific to him as that of Spencer first seemed to the youthful Fiske, albeit there is reason to suspect that it was even then ancient lore.

Aristotle, by the way, though he always retained a high opinion of Democritus, did not persist in such unparalleled devotion and faith of discipleship as Fiske retains for Spencer. Some of Mr. Fiske's readers, however, while willing to accord a good measure of applause to Spencer's early discernment of how much slow growth might bring about, will nevertheless remark two circumstances which will limit their admiration of him. The first is, that his 'Psychology' and 'First Principles' were not the earliest expressions of evolutionary philosophy, nor even of evolutionary philosophy of a quasi-scientific cast, for the nebular hypothesis, which to any thinking man carries along with it a general doctrine of biological evolution, was given to the world by Kant in the year 1755. The second circumstance is, that Spencer is really not an evolutionist of a thorough-going kind, since he explicitly proclaims that, in his opinion, evolution is only one of two alternating processes, evolution and dissolution (the γένεσις and φθορά of Democritus), which he places on a par, while he further makes both those processes alike mere consequences of an eternal law that never came about at all, the "law of the persistence of force"; and against any attempt to drive investigation into the origin of that, he sets up a warning notice of no thoroughfare. That Spencer saw and felt some truths before almost anybody else, nobody can deny; but how far his writings have really influenced the deeper thinkers of the century, which seems to be the true point in question, is something Mr. Fiske still leaves in doubt. One brilliant disciple the Synthetic Philosophy can boast; but, after him, we can call to mind only men whom it were flattery to call mediocrities in philosophy. In short, the nineteenth century has brought us all to agree that nearly everything is to be accounted for by evolution; but the question as to how evolution is itself to be accounted for, or what rank it is to take among the uniformities of nature or the categories of philosophy, looks to-day less like finding a speedy settlement than it did soon after the publication of the 'Origin of Species.'

Point and Pillow Lace: A Short Account of Various Kinds, Ancient and Modern, and How to Recognize Them. By A. M. S. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Embroidery and Lace: Their Manufacture and History. By Ernest Lefébure. Translated and enlarged with Notes by Alan S. Cole. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Embroidery; or, The Craft of the Needle. By W. G. Paulson Townsend. New York: Truslove, Hanson & Comba. 1899.

The compiler of 'Point and Pillow Lace' has very efficiently grappled with the task she set herself, and has produced a valuable guide to lovers of lace, excellently well illustrated by magnified photographs of each particular kind and of all details connected with her subject. A. M. S. was incited to undertake this manual by the extreme difficulty of identifying any particular piece in the more exhaustive 'History of Lace' of Mrs. Palliser and other well-known experts, to whose studies she acknowledges her obligation in the production of this work.

The earliest pictorial record of lace is supposed to be in a picture of Quentin Matsys in the Church of St. Peter at Louvain of 1495. In England lace seems not to have come into use on frills and ruffs before Queen Elizabeth's reign. In the portraits of Mary Tudor in the National Portrait Gallery we note plain embroidered linen cuffs, while in the adjoining picture just after her time lace edging is used. It is in the work of the old masters that the history of lace is to be studied. It cannot be traced to more than three hundred years before our own time, and its production in France flagged considerably after the Revolution, during the period when simplicity in dress became the order of the day. The art of fine lace-making is again reviving in France, as also in Italy, where, through the efforts of the late Countess Marcello and the immediate patronage of Queen Margaret, Burano has a lace manufactory exactly following in its ancient traditions, and rose point is produced in Venice almost as fine as in ancient times. Besides the lace-workers in Venice, A. M. S. seems unaware that in Romagna the Countess Pasolini has also revived the industry on her estates for the advantage of the young peasant girls, who thus add to their slender dowries by making rose point and coarser laces when not occupied in field labor; and the Countess Brazza in Lombardy has even more hands occupied with this delicate work.

The great lace-making centres were Ve-

nice, Brussels, and Alençon. Although each had distinctive methods and styles of design and production, fashion often controlled the demand for certain kinds of lace to such an extent that it is not always easy, even for an adept, to judge certain specimens. Our authoress assures us that Spanish point and the so-called Greek lace and Point de Raguse are all of Venetian provenance, just as Point d'Angleterre is essentially from Brussels, notwithstanding its name. Venetian lace-workers brought to Alençon by Colbert under Louis XIV. taught their art in France with splendid results, since in time the French surpassed the skill of their masters, and for a century the lace produced at Alençon was by royal decree called Point de France. We have not space to follow our authoress through her series from mediæval drawn work or *punto tirato* to the humble machine-made lace of Nottingham. Her book will be useful especially to collectors who need knowledge and advice in the purchase of examples of the art.

We have a cheaper and revised edition of Ernest Lefébure's interesting history of 'Embroidery and Lace,' in which he demonstrates the important part woman's work has taken in decoration in the world's history, in the hope of inciting the new woman to devote her energies to these humbler walks of art. The additions include a more complete list and illustrations of different kinds of Irish lace, a further illustration of Greek embroidery (p. 46), and several emendations of the text. We observe, however, in a footnote (p. 240), for which Mr. Cole is responsible, that Ragusa is described as having been "one of the principal Adriatic ports belonging to the Venetian Republic." The Republic of Ragusa was always independent of Venice, while open to Venetian trade and influence. Its independence was terminated by French occupation under a treaty in the Napoleonic wars. The illustrations which profusely intersperse the text, though poor in execution, are very useful, and well chosen to give an idea of the historic pieces of embroidery described.

Mr. Townsend's little manual, with a preface by Walter Crane, is intended as a practical guide to students of the beautiful art of embroidery. It treats of design as well as of the diversity of methods, and abounds in examples of all kinds of embroidery, from ancient times down to our own. The illustrations are, unfortunately, of a cheap character, which falsify the values of the colors represented, and therefore fail to be as instructive as they should. The diagrams of stitches at the end are very intelligible, and will be found useful to beginners. Our author says but little that is really of practical use as to design; he justly warns his readers to avoid certain well-known pitfalls, such as representing flowers in a naturalistic manner and forcing light and shade; he advises on what lines nature should be studied by seeking to express the characteristics of the plant, flower, or fruit designed, its growth, the way the leaves spring from the stem, its buds in different stages of development. He insists on being truthful to facts, but on their being treated decoratively. His views are unquestionably correct, and he seems to have sought them at excellent sources, judging by the list of books he quotes as having helped him for this work. The difficulty of producing a good design remains, however, unsolved, and the examples of modern work among the illustrations show how very far we are from understanding decoration, and how in less enlightened times, before so much was thought and written on art problems, personal taste and the natural desire to embellish objects of daily life produced a far more attractive result. The panel of Pomona, which serves as frontispiece, designed by Sir Edward Burne-Jones and William Morris and very inadequately represented here, is the only remarkable modern piece of work in the volume. We have always understood that the Royal School of Art Needlework excelled rather in its execution of work than in its designs.

A General Survey of American Literature. By Mary Fisher. Chicago: McClurg & Co.

The author of this comely and well-printed book complains of Walt Whitman (p. 363) that "He is like a little second-hand country shop that calls itself the 'World's Bargain Store' and has the earth for its sign." It evidently does not occur to her that this description is not wholly inappropriate to her own book, the comprehensiveness of whose title is curiously in contrast with the mediocrity of its execution. This would perhaps be scarcely worth saying, were it not that it illustrates a serious peril of our widespread public-school system, namely, the constant multiplication of text-books proceeding from teachers who are themselves of crude and untrained mind. This book, which is a sample of many, is honest, sincere, courageous; but it is on the other hand immature, unequal, and goes little behind the ordinary sources of daily knowledge.

It has plainly undergone little revision, and makes mistakes which any common encyclopædia would have corrected—as, for instance, where it repeatedly spells Charles Brockden Brown's family name Browne (pp. 13, 17, 18, 138, 383), or says of James Russell Lowell that "The city of Lowell, Massachusetts, was named after one of his ancestors, and another was the founder of the Lowell Institute, Boston" (p. 312), although as a matter of fact it was his uncle whose name was given to the city, and his cousin who founded the Institute; the former event occurring when Lowell was a baby and the other after he had left college. So the Quinquennial Catalogue of Harvard University would have shown the writer that Jones Very, the poet, was never tutor in Greek at the Harvard Divinity School, but in the college itself; nor did he ever study theology in that school (p. 127). So her severest charges against Margaret Fuller (p. 139), that she did not recognize Wordsworth as a "new star," and that she "left no memorable word" about Goethe, are easily disposed of by her own published letter (Memoirs i., 167), in which she says of Wordsworth, in 1836, "I find my insight of this sublime poet perpetually deepening," and that passage in which Prof. Hedge, then unquestionably the best German scholar in America, says of her critique on Goethe, "As far as it goes, it is one of the best criticisms extant of Goethe" (Memoirs i., 96).

These are misstatements more serious than the misspelling of a man's name, and in regard to Charles Brockden Brown himself a little more knowledge of the literary history of the period would have shown the author that his novels, while still hampered by the ghost of Mrs. Radcliffe, really laid the foundation for modern American realism in their description of Philadelphia society and manners, of the roving Indian, the newly arrived French musician, the gray cougar amidst his limestone caves. His novels had a distinct influence on the Godwin and Shelley circle in England, and Mrs. Shelley, in her novel of 'The Last Man,' founds her description of an epidemic on "the masterly delineations of the author of 'Henry Mervyn.'"

There are no doubt many other school text-books of no more value than this. If we select this for criticism, it is because it is one of the latest and most ambitious, both in preface and in title. A book calling itself 'A General Survey of American Literature' which does not mention Harriet Beecher Stowe, even in its index, or quote a line of Emerson's poetry, must be regarded as self-condemned in advance.

Botanizing: A Guide to Field Collecting and Herbarium Work. By William Whitman Bailey, A.M., Professor of Botany in Brown University. Providence: Preston & Rounds Co. 1899.

This is an honest and successful attempt to attract amateurs to the delightful study of plants in forests, fields, and waters. The endeavor is made to show the casual as well as the expert collector that, by the employment of a few simple appliances and by the exercise of a certain amount of patience, it is possible to accumulate at small cost in spring and summer a wealth of material for fascinating investigation during the winter months (which here extend from November through April). Prof. Bailey believes with Charles Darwin, that "if you catch quite a beginner and want to give him a taste of botany," you must "tell him to make a perfect list of some little field or wood." The taste of botany acquired in this manner speedily becomes a taste *for* botany, and yields the refreshment to the tired brain of the worker in other fields that was so often curative in the cases of John Stuart Mill, John Ruskin, and a host of other busiest thinkers.

Of late there has been a feeling in some circles that botany consists largely in the acquisition of materials for the exercise of what is known as nomenclature—a device for attaching personal names to helpless plants; and it has been further felt that, if the supply of personal names to be commemorated should outrun the supply of plants, it would be necessary to reshuffle the cards and name the species all over again. Fortunately, there has been a very large number of students who have preferred to look upon plants not so much as things to be named as things to be studied, and there have been many diligent observers who have taken up the task of asking all sorts of searching questions of the plants themselves, such as: How did you happen to settle here? Who were your ancestors? Are your relations to your neighbors at present agreeable? What are you good for? and, Where do you think of going next? The answers to such questions are given by the plants, sometimes rather vaguely, and oftentimes very clearly. The amount of information which has been acquired in this way concerning the structure, the habits, the uses, the diseases, and the probable origin of plants, is now rea-

sonably large, and in its printed form is accessible in numerous works. Some of our very latest text-books are filled with these answers stated in a charming way. Profs. Atkinson, Barnes, Coulter, and a good many others in our country have restated the answers in attractive form, and numerous local clubs are searching in a quiet manner for wider information by putting all the questions more specifically in "some little field or wood."

To all beginners and all experts who are to ask these questions, Prof. Bailey's book is a convenient aid. But it is more than this: it is filled with a great amount of wise advice as to the gardens and museums, private and public, and especially the herbaria, the most useful of all. The range of collecting is very wide, comprising everything from fossils to seaweeds. Many of our readers have doubtless fallen in with some of Prof. Bailey's occasional poems, and have noted their good taste and high literary excellence. Good taste and literary excellence characterize the present volume of prose.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Castle, E. The Light of Scarthey. F. A. Stokes Co.
Devereux, Mrs. R. Side Lights on South Africa. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Dodge, H. N. Christus Victor: A Student's Reverie. Putnams.

SOME BOOKS PUBLISHED IN 1899 BY

Henry Holt & Co.

29 West 23d St., New York.

Augier et Sandeau's Le Gendre de M. Poirier.	(Symington.)	12mo. Boards.	*$ .30
Beers' English Romanticism—XVIII. Century.		12mo	2.00
Buck and Woodbridge's Expository Writing.		12mo	* 1.00
Buck's Argumentative Writing.		12mo	* .80
Canfield's French Lyrics.	(Over 230 selected poems in French.)	16mo	* 1.00
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Daniels' Elements of Public Finance.		12mo	* 1.50
Dowson and Moore's Adrian Rome.	A contemporary portrait.	12mo	1.25
Eighteenth Century Letters.	(Bimley Johnson.)	2 vols. 12mo. *Each*	** 1.75
SWIFT, ADDISON, and STEELE. (Poole.) 1 vol. JOHNSON and LORD CHESTERFIELD. (Birkbeck Hill.) 1 vol.			
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 11, 1900.

The Week.

It was made evident in the first session of the Senate after the holiday recess that the Administration policy of secrecy and suppression regarding the course of affairs in the Philippines can no longer be pursued with impunity. When Mr. Pettigrew of South Dakota offered a resolution directing the Secretary of War to furnish the Senate information as to the circumstances under which the present war with the Filipinos began in February, 1899, four Republicans were promptly on their feet to object. Mr. Pettigrew is so little respected, and has such small influence in the Senate, that any protest from him against the smothering of the proposed inquiry would have counted for little. But it was a very different matter when that veteran Republican leader, Mr. Hoar of Massachusetts, denounced what he termed an "attempt to throttle Senators" in their efforts to obtain information concerning the "deplorable conditions" which have existed in the Philippines for some time past; and gave notice that, if there was to be an absolute suppression of all requests for information concerning the war with the Filipinos, he should object to the taking up of other matters during the morning hour when such resolutions are pending. This declaration of independence served its purpose, and forced Mr. Aldrich, who had led in the objections to the Pettigrew resolution, to disclaim any intention to suppress information.

The policy of hush about the Philippines ought to have been applied to official documents before the attempt was made to enforce it in the Senate. Gen. Otis's report, for example, throws a glaring light upon the blundering which led to the war with the Filipinos. When the President's illegal proclamation of December a year ago reached him, he was thunderstruck—not at its illegality, but at its unwisdom. So what did he do but edit it! Here is his own account of the matter:

> "After fully considering the President's proclamation and the temper of the Tagalos with whom I was daily discussing political problems and the friendly intentions of the United States Government towards them, I concluded that there were certain words and expressions therein, such as 'sovereignty,' 'right of cession,' and those which directed immediate occupation, etc., which, though most admirably employed and tersely expressive of actual conditions, might be advantageously used by the Tagalo war party to incite widespread hostilities among the natives. The ignorant classes had been taught to believe that certain words, as 'sovereignty,' 'protection,' etc., had peculiar meaning disastrous to their welfare and significant of future political domination, like that from which they had recently been freed."

Accordingly, Gen. Otis took the liberty, only to be justified by his acute apprehensions respecting the military situation, of modifying the President's proclamation, which he saw would be a firebrand. But, unluckily, Gen. Miller at Iloilo printed the document entire, with the amazing result, as he telegraphed Otis, that "the people laugh at it." Then from Iloilo the proclamation in its unexpurgated form found its way to Luzon, and Gen. Otis plaintively records that "it was not long before it was delivered at Malolos, and was the object of venomous attack." Think of it—laughter and venom for that humane offer of President McKinley not to kill the Filipinos if they would be good and submit to him! They certainly deserve no mercy after that.

As the only member of either branch of Congress who has been in the Philippines, Senator Beveridge of Indiana was sure of an attentive hearing when he rose on Tuesday to defend the Administration's policy. Mr. Beveridge came into prominence in his State as a "boy orator," and there has never been a more striking illustration of a man "inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity" than he now presents. For "spread-eagleism" the Senate chamber has never heard anything to equal that part of his speech in which he turns seer, and interprets the meaning of expansion as a policy in national and world development.

We have been waiting for the imperialist press to go into transports over Gov. Leary's order abolishing slavery in the island of Guam, but we have waited in vain. The reason, however, we can make a shrewd guess at. After defending the toleration of slavery in the Sulu islands, you cannot suddenly rise up and bless an American Governor who breaks out in noble indignation at the spectacle of slavery under the United States flag, and boldly declares it in violation of the Constitution of the United States. The dilemma is an awkward one. If Gov. Leary is right, Gen. Otis and President McKinley are wrong; if they are correct in their view of the legal right of slavery to exist under our flag in the Sulus, then he is all at sea in maintaining that it has no such right in Guam. There cannot be two rules of law for like cases. And if it is not our law or our Constitution that applies, but the *Outlook's* "Mosaic dispensation," we submit that it is just as good for Guam as it is for the Sulus. Gov. Leary appears to be a sort of Sancho Panza ruling his island. Some of his orders regulating agriculture and domestic life have a distinctly comic flavor. But this decree of his abolishing slavery, even in the mild form of peonage, is no joke. Nor is it a joke that the American people are now so humiliated by the existence of slavery under their jurisdiction in the Sulus that they cannot even applaud its abolition in Guam.

Senator Foraker of Ohio is going to force consideration of another question which is only less important than our course in the Philippines. This is the relation that Porto Rico shall occupy to the United States. From the very nature of the case, no excuse for maintaining the present military administration can long be found in an island where there is no danger of outbreaks. A civil government of some sort must be established at an early day. Even the great temporizer in the White House admitted in his message to Congress last month that some legislation should be enacted at this session with reference to Porto Rico. Mr. Foraker on January 3 introduced a bill which would establish a form of government that would treat the island like one of our existing Territories. He proposes that the President shall appoint a Governor, a Supreme Court, seven heads of departments, and five native citizens, who, with the Governor and department heads, shall constitute the upper branch of the Legislature; that the lower house, consisting of thirty-five members, shall be elected by the citizens of the island; that the latter shall also elect a delegate to Congress, who shall have a seat but no vote—as has always been the rule with our Territories; and that the Constitution and laws of the United States, so far as the latter are locally applicable, shall be extended to Porto Rico, with the consequent prohibition of export duties and with free trade between Porto Rico and the United States proper.

We continue to receive circulars from the Planters' and Farmers' Association of Cuba, asking for assistance in procuring the repeal of the "Foraker amendment," which prohibits the granting of any charters or franchises in the island while it continues under our military government. In the last one so received we are reminded that every State in the American Union has upon its statute-book a law permitting franchises to be taken by persons needing them by simply filing a schedule with the names, purposes, and amount of capital stock of the incorporators. Yet Cuba, just emerging from centuries of Spanish oppression, cannot get a charter for a mortgage bank to lend her farmers the capi-

tal to rehabilitate their cane-fields. This is certainly a trying situation. If only financial considerations were taken account of, nothing could be said in favor of the Foraker amendment. But the political consideration is involved in the financial one. The Cuban papers which favor an independent government are strongly opposed to a repeal of the *ley Foraker*. *La Discusión*, for example, urgently insists that no charters should be granted in Cuba except by "a government or entity freely chosen by the Cuban people." If franchises are granted by the military commander, there will be a rush of the capitalist and speculating class to the United States authorities, and gradually the feeling of independence and the desire for it will be sapped, and the resistance to annexation will be lessened in both countries.

The appointments of Gens. Young, MacArthur, and Ludlow to brigadier-generalships in the regular army are the most interesting in years to army officers. Not since 1873, when George Crook was similarly promoted, have any officers below the rank of colonel in the regular army been given these coveted places. But Gens. MacArthur and Ludlow were not only lieutenant-colonels when advanced, but staff lieutenant-colonels as well, and it would be necessary to go back to civil-war times to find similar cases. For decades past, line officers alone have been deemed eligible for promotion to the line generalships, and a staff officer could hope to become a brigadier-general only by appointment as head of his own corps. That this departure from well-established tradition will create considerable ill-feeling among the forty-two colonels of cavalry, artillery, and infantry of longer service who have been jumped, cannot be doubted. At the same time, no one will deny that these places have been bestowed upon men who have thoroughly earned them. The services of MacArthur and Young in the Philippines would have won similar, if not greater recognition, in any foreign service, while Gen. Ludlow's work in Havana has been of a far higher and better kind. It is an interesting and extraordinary fact that the last-named officer was nominated to and confirmed by the Senate for a brigadier-generalship which does not become vacant until January 21, on the retirement of Gen. Anderson. We do not recall another case where appointment was made to an office before it was vacated.

The greater part of the speech which Senator Aldrich made in reporting back the currency bill of the House with the finance committee's amendments will receive the hearty concurrence of all the advocates of sound money. There was little that could be called new in what he said, but the saying of it in the Senate by authority of one of its committees is so opposed to the custom of that body that it arrests attention at once. It is a stroke upon the clock of time signalizing that the United States is about to put the great question of the standard of value beyond further dispute, and address itself to other issues. Mr. Aldrich did well to expose the sham and pretence of those who profess to believe that the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 by the United States alone would have the effect of lifting the value of silver up to the level of gold. He characterized this belief as either dishonesty or insanity. He said that the passage of the bill before the Senate would not disable this country from joining in a future conference to promote international bimetallism. That is quite true, but it puts international bimetallism *hors de combat* just the same. There is no discernible movement in the world to call another such conference. All the movements are in the direction of the single gold standard. Russia has adopted that standard and has actually resumed specie payments. India, by declining the allurements of the Wolcott Commission, has ranged herself under the same standard. Austria, in spite of her political difficulties of recent years, has steadily pursued the course which she laid out for herself in 1893. And now the United States, which has not departed from the gold standard at any moment since specie payments were resumed in 1879, makes public declaration that "the standard unit of value shall, as now, be the dollar, and shall consist of 25.8 grains of gold nine-tenths fine." This is practically giving notice to the world that we have no further desire to join in conferences to bring about a change of standard.

The bill to amend the Interstate Commerce law recently introduced by Senator Cullom, it is understood, was prepared in the office of the Interstate Commerce Commission. It has been submitted, in a more or less formal manner, at meetings of commercial associations, where commendatory votes have been obtained. Railroad managers do not appear to have participated in the preparation of it, although a comparison between its terms and those of the bill presented by the Commission last year shows that modifications have been made in certain features that were then especially criticised. The bill, as now presented, may be regarded as an official proposition, and it will doubtless be made the basis of any legislative action that may be had during the present session of Congress. It therefore should receive the utmost publicity and the most careful consideration, both in respect to its general scope and its details. The Interstate Commerce act, since its passage in 1887, has been amended in a few comparatively unimportant particulars. The bill now introduced proposes to rewrite eight sections of the act and to add two new sections. The changes proposed are important, affecting as they do the short-haul section, the publicity section, the punishment section, the commission-procedure sections, the enforcement section, and the annual-report section. The additions proposed provide for a national classification of freight and for rehearings by the Commission. The important fifth section, which prohibits pooling agreements, is not affected. No attempt is made to relieve the roads from the difficulties created by the interpretation which has been given to the anti-Trust law. Intimations, however, have been thrown out that a section authorizing pooling and other agreements may perhaps be added in committee, provided that the language of such amendment be guarded to the satisfaction of the Commission, and that the desires of the Commission as now formulated be not interfered with.

The measure is entirely one-sided; it contains only regulative features. It does not in the least attempt to protect carriers in their rights, or to assist them in their efforts to transact the business of transportation in conformity with the requirements of the law. This course of procedure seems unfortunate, and likely to prevent, rather than to promote, the attainment of much-needed amendments of the law. It is not usual for a public body, in proposing a legislative measure, to ignore deliberately the interests of an important section of its constituents. In the present case this has been done, and it seems like asking a good deal to expect the roads to unite cordially in action to make the proposed reconstruction of the statute a practical success. Certainly this result cannot be arrived at unless the propositions of the Commission are all inherently just, and unless other necessary features are to be welcomed as proper to be incorporated in the bill.

The announcement that a majority of the Senate committee on privileges and elections will make an adverse report upon Quay's claim to a seat by the appointment of the Governor of Pennsylvania is no surprise. All the members of that committee sat in the Senate when a somewhat similar question came up during the last Congress on an appointment by the Governor of Oregon (all but two of the nine having been on the committee then), and they stand now where they stood before. Mr. Hoar, the leader of the minority in the committee, has always been a stout defender of the Governor's power in the premises, and, of course, it is a question of principle with him. He is quite right in the indigna-

tion which he expresses against those people who have written letters begging him not to stand by the appointee of the Pennsylvania Governor because that appointee is a "bad man," while it was right for him to sustain a similar exercise of power by the Governor of Oregon when the latter named a good man. This represents the same attempt to elevate prejudice over Constitutional duty, as a Senator sees that duty, which was tried, unhappily with success, at the other end of the capitol last month, when Representatives who believed that Roberts of Utah came with credentials which entitled him to a seat, pending an investigation, refused to admit him because there was a popular clamor for his exclusion, without regard to either Constitution or precedents.

The champions of Quay say that the fact that a majority of the committee on elections and privileges is against him will have no effect upon the result, when the final vote shall be taken in the Senate. Nevertheless, it is true that it is a decided advantage to have any proposition come before either branch of Congress with a favorable report; and if the majority in this case had been for Quay, his friends would have claimed, and with good reason, that the "moral effect" would help him decidedly. It would make it easier for new members to take the Quay side of the controversy, and less difficult for old members who are on record against the Governor's power to shift their ground. The only hope for the Pennsylvania boss from the start has been that there would be many such changes of base, since without them there would be an assured majority against him. So far the only Senators willing to confess that they will turn around on grounds of personal friendship are Quay's man Penrose of Pennsylvania and Carter of Montana. There are few others who are open to the suspicion of joining a band with such leaders. Everything consequently now indicates that Quay cannot get his seat by Gov. Stone's appointment, and if he shall fail in this, his prestige at home will be gone. Indeed, there are already signs that the Republican politicians of Pennsylvania have concluded that his power is broken, and the rats are beginning to desert the sinking Quay ship.

Mr. Bryan stands by his colors. It has been hard work to maintain that the country was being ruined by the gold standard and the money power during these years of prosperity, but the recent collapse of prices in Wall Street furnishes an argument. In his speech at Omaha on Monday, he assured his hearers that those who studied the money question in 1896 foresaw the danger threatened by the gold standard, and pointed out that its permanent establishment would involve us in every financial disturbance accruing in Europe. Behold now, a few victories by the Boers have so frightened the bankers that they have suppressed their sympathy for a struggling republic, and are hoping for the extension of the authority of a queen. If a little war like this nearly brings on a panic, what would happen if war should break out between two gold-standard countries of the first class? The moral of this is, have nothing to do with the gold standard and be financially independent. It might seem a proper reply to this argument to say that the financial consequences of a war between two great Powers would be very much the same whether they used the gold or silver standard, but doubtless Mr. Bryan would retort that there are no first-class Powers having the silver standard, and hence there could be no war between them. Perhaps if we could make sure of enduring peace by adopting the silver standard, we might be tempted to try the experiment, but the danger would be that other Powers might do the same thing, and then we should be worse off than we are now. The argument that we ought to adopt the silver standard in order to escape financial disturbance is so absurd as to make it plain that Mr. Bryan has almost exhausted his ammunition.

The conference of leading Populists from a number of States in the West and Southwest at Lincoln, Neb., on Friday simply proved what had been clearly enough foreshadowed before—that the managers of that party heartily favor Bryan's renomination, and are ready to coöperate to that end, in whatever may be the most effective way, with their fellows in the so-called Democratic party. In point of fact, there is no longer any difference of principle between the managers of these two organizations. There is an element in the Populist party which was not satisfied with the Chicago platform of 1896. It is composed of sincere but narrow and ignorant men, who believe in an irredeemable paper currency, and "lots of it," and who cared for the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1 only as a short step on the long road which they wanted to travel. This "Middle-of-the-Road" element would like now to nominate an independent Populist ticket on a platform of its own, the cornerstone of which should be the issue of greenbacks without limit. But these people have no leaders with the slightest influence. The professional politicians of the Populist party know that there would be nothing in such a campaign for them. Their only possible chance is in another fusion with the so-called Democrats who supported Bryan in 1896, and who want him for the leader again in 1900. These professional Populist politicians absolutely control the machinery of their party, and they will run it in Bryan's interest. The same class among the so-called Democrats who have accepted Bryanism control the machinery of that organization, and will run it to the same end, with hardly any more effective opposition from the element which is tired of the leader and of his cause than the Populist politicians will encounter from the "Middle-of-the-Road" element.

Gov. Pingree's administration in Michigan, admittedly a failure in the matter of the promised changes in the method of taxing railroad and other corporate property, on which issue he was elected, bids fair to end now in disgrace through the peculation of his subordinates in the military department. There, as elsewhere, war provided the opportunity for designing men to enrich themselves at the State's expense. As disclosed by the investigation of the grand jury, the officials in charge of the military department, under the pretence that the soldiers to be furnished to the United States for the war with Spain needed new equipment, entered into a conspiracy with a manufacturing concern, whereby the old equipment, bought from the State for about $12,000, was resold to the State for $60,000, the conspirators sharing the stealings. One of the indicted parties is a fugitive from the State, and several others are awaiting trial. One of them held very confidential relations with the Governor; and although there is nothing to indicate that the latter was cognizant, in the slightest degree, of the stealing, the developments must needs smirch the Administration.

Few who followed the testimony before the French High Court expected that the charges of conspiracy to overthrow the republic would be sustained. Accordingly, it is no surprise to find most of the defendants acquitted. Conspiracy is a crime notoriously hard to prove in any court. Evidence in plenty was adduced that Déroulède and his fellows had indulged in the wildest kind of talk, had held suspicious relations with Socialist and Royalist plotters, and had in general conducted themselves like men who wished to be taken for dangerous conspirators. But proof of overt acts of treason was lacking, and concerted treason was still further from being demonstrated in court. This failure to convict may discourage the Government from prosecuting Gen. Mercier, as it has been hinted that it would soon do for his part in the Dreyfus affair. That doughty soldier is now standing for a vacant seat in the Senate, counting upon Royalist and anti-Semite support, and is evidently ready to play the part of Boulanger II., if the way opens.

THE GOVERNMENT DEPOSITS.

The recent outcry against Secretary Gage for alleged favoritism to one large bank in depositing the surplus funds of the Treasury, brings to notice afresh a serious danger in the financial situation and equally in the political. We need not go back to Gen. Jackson's time to learn what enmities may be stirred up by adroit politicians against banks, and how fatal such enmity may become to parties and public men. The bank war of Jackson's time culminated in the removal of the Government's deposits from the Bank of the United States, and their transfer to the so-called "pet banks" of that period, and later to the independent Treasury system, which is still in force. The independent Treasury system means that the Government itself takes care of its own collections and disbursements of money without the aid or intervention of banks. At first sight this seems the proper thing for a government to do. Private individuals make their own collections and disbursements; why should not the Government do likewise? But private individuals deposit their surplus money in banks. They do not carry in their pockets or keep in their private safes more than they need for daily disbursements. The Government, it is true, is now equipped with the apparatus for taking care of its surplus funds. It has vaults and offices more capacious and commodious than any private bank whatsoever. Why should it not receive, store, and pay out its own funds regardless of the banks? Why should it not continue to do what it set out to do when the independent Treasury was first established?

If the Government's collections and disbursements were made in equal times and amounts, there would be no reason for storing a dollar of its money in any place except its own vaults. If, however, its collections grow to an enormous mass, creating a corresponding vacuum in the money market, then it is obvious that there ought to be some method of avoiding contraction and returning this idle money to the channels of business. This goes without saying, and the only question is how the equilibrium which has been disturbed by the operations of the Treasury shall be restored. As the *Financial Chronicle* says in a recent article on this subject, the business community want no favors of the Treasury in this matter, but simply ask it to keep "hands off." In all other countries, all the public money is deposited in banks as soon as it is received by the collecting officers, and is drawn out when wanted by the checks of the disbursing officers. Thus the surplus or balance on hand at any time is at the service of the business community in the form of loans and discounts like the balances of private depositors. No tightness of money can ever arise from the Government's arbitrary withdrawal of funds from business circles.

The state of the Treasury, present and prospective, is such that early attention must be given to the disposal of the surplus. Prosperous business now insures the largest income that the taxes are capable of yielding at any given time, and the war-revenue act is now at its best. Although the war in the Philippines is not likely to come to a sudden end, it is not likely to be as expensive as heretofore, but in any case there will probably be a surplus during the ensuing twelve months of $100,000,000. It is estimated that this surplus will reach $60,000,000 about the time that the political campaign becomes hot next fall. If this money is locked up in the Treasury, it may cause a financial crisis. If it is deposited in banks, as was done by Secretary Fairchild in the midst of the campaign of 1888, then the present Secretary of the Treasury will probably be subjected to the same kind of ignorant or malignant slander that was then heaped upon Mr. Fairchild, importing that he was governed by political motives in the selection of banks to receive the overflow of funds from the Treasury. If he goes into the market to buy bonds he will run up the price, and subject himself to the charge of favoring the bondholders and bond speculators.

In view of these facts and prospects, the *Financial Chronicle* suggests that Congress pass a law requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to deposit each week in depository banks all the money collected by the Government in excess of its current expenses; Congress to fix at the same time the security that shall be required for the same. The security now required is Government bonds, with a margin of ten per cent. computed not on the market value, but on the par value of the bonds. This is considerably more security than private borrowers are required to give when they borrow from banks, and the *Chronicle* thinks that it might properly be fixed by law at something less. The main point of the suggestion, however, is to take from the Secretary the discretion and responsibility which he now exercises of depositing or not depositing the surplus in banks, and of determining the margin of security required. Of course, the Secretary, exposed as he is to suspicion and blackguardism whatever he may do, or even if he does nothing, will welcome such a law. All his successors in office will be glad to be protected by it, and the business community ought to be equally so, since such a law would be a guarantee against unnecessary contraction of the currency. There could be no contraction due to the operations of the Treasury that could not be relieved by the deposit of bonds as security. Any contraction not severe enough to call out this kind of security would not be intolerable. We all look forward to a time when we shall have no war on our hands, when the national debt shall be paid, and when we may reduce the taxes to the measure of the expenditures. Then the independent Treasury system may again vindicate its *raison d'être*. At present, however, something ought to be done to relieve the strain which it produces, and we see nothing better than the *Financial Chronicle's* plan for meeting the crisis.

GOV. ROOSEVELT ON TAXATION.

A large part of Gov. Roosevelt's message this year relates to taxation; and while the opinions expressed are rather indecisive, they are not more so than those of the best authorities we have on that subject. State and local taxation remains, as it has been during the past fifty years, a great puzzle for both statesmen and economists. The American principle that all rights should be shared equally and all burdens be borne equally, has been translated to mean that all property should be taxed equally. Nothing seems fairer than this. Long ago it took the form of the general property tax, which was embodied in most of the State constitutions, but was somehow left out of that of New York. The principle underlying it was, however, embodied in the State law, but was gradually minimized in practice. The general property tax requires that all property shall first be valued, and that then Mr. A shall pay the rate which the Legislature finds necessary, say 2 per cent., on the value of his real estate, that Mr. B shall pay it on that of his horses and wagons, Mr. C on his merchandise, Mr. D on his railway and bank stock or bonds, Mr. E on his cash, and so on through the list.

It was early discovered that this fair-seeming plan could be carried out only as regards property which could be found and estimated by the officer appointed to make the valuation. Real estate could always be found. Some kinds of personal property could be found and valued with more or less accuracy and fairness, but a large and increasing share of personal property could not be found so as to be put upon the assessor's lists unless the owner cooperated with him. Few owners would take the necessary pains to get themselves taxed as much as they ought to be, even when they were required to make out lists of their personal property under oath. The system broke down in practice in New York, and in nearly all the States. So it has come to pass that real property is taxed more heavily than it ought to be if the principle of equality of taxation is to be observed.

When the fact became well understood that personal property in the many forms and guises which it has taken in the progress of society, and especially in stocks and bonds, could not be

taxed with any approach to certainty and equality, the Legislature turned to the corporations themselves, and said, "Here is the source of the income which ought to, but does not, pay its share of the public expenses; here is something that resembles real estate in the fact that it cannot hide; let us tax the income at its source." Hence came the corporation tax—a reasonable tax, but one which was in some danger of being carried to excess whenever corporations should become unpopular. The facility with which they could be reached made them a tempting object to the taxing power, which is the legislative power. Up to the present time, however, it cannot be said that the corporation tax has been unduly severe in New York. The franchise tax passed at the last session of the Legislature, has not yet gone into operation, and we do not yet know whether it will prove a valuable addition to the fiscal and social apparatus of the State or not. Although the details are very complex and are not yet unravelled, there is nothing in the outlook which is in any degree discouraging. The underlying idea of the law, that a corporation enjoying a special franchise, such as the right to use a public street for a private purpose, should pay a special tax for it, is sound in principle. Whether it can be taxed as real estate is a disputed question among lawyers, but it is not likely that the courts will declare the tax unconstitutional.

The next step in the evolution of personal property is the Trust. This is a very vague term, and Prof. Clark rendered a real service to the literature of the subject when he said at the Chicago convention that a Trust is "any corporation that is big enough to be menacing." The corporations that come under this definition have naturally exercised the power which our laws and jurisprudence give them, of seeking their domicile in the States where they are taxed least. They can exercise their powers in any State of the Union, or they could do so until certain States began to pass anti-Trust laws; but, having their domicile in only one State, they have aimed to secure the minimum of taxation, if not entire exemption, in other States. Gov. Roosevelt gives much space to the subject of Trusts in his message, without presenting any clear idea of what he would do with them, or about them, till near the close of his disquisition. Here he makes two very pregnant suggestions. One is that Trusts should be subjected to the law of publicity, *i. e.*, that their financial condition, their earnings, and their operations should be open to public inspection, criticism, and possibly censure. He thinks that many of the evils complained of may be cured by the force of public opinion in this way. The suggestion is plausible, and it is sustained by experience in the treatment of railroads in Massachusetts and elsewhere. Then he adds:

> "Where a Trust becomes a monopoly, the State has an immediate right to interfere. Care should be taken not to stifle enterprise or disclose any facts of a business that are essentially private, but the State, for the protection of the public, should exercise the right to inspect, to examine thoroughly all the workings of great corporations, just as is now done with banks; and, wherever the interests of the public demand it, it should publish the results of its examination. Then, if there are inordinate profits, competition or public sentiment will give the public the benefit in lowered prices; and if not, the power of taxation remains."

Yes, the power of taxation remains, and there is no danger that it will not be exercised. The power of the corporations to control the Legislature through political bosses will also remain, and the struggle for such control is likely to become more momentous with the progress of time. The Governor has done well to bring these subjects up for discussion. They would force themselves to the front soon even if he should leave them alone.

"A DAY OF HUMILIATION."

A widespread demand has been made in England for the appointment of a day of national humiliation, fasting, and prayer. The London *Times* has printed columns of letters from indignant people who want to know what the civil and church authorities are thinking of not to have called upon the people to prostrate themselves before the Almighty, now that his displeasure has been so clearly shown in the reverses which have befallen the British arms in South Africa. It might seem that every man is at liberty to go off and humiliate himself all alone—go into his closet, shut the door, and pray to the Father who seeth in secret. But no, what is wanted is national humiliation and supplication. Hence the impatient cry for the Queen, or the Archbishop of Canterbury, or Lord Salisbury, or the Commander of the Forces, or the newspapers —somebody, anyhow—to name a day for the nation to put on sackcloth and ashes.

Nothing has been done, however, and it is probable that nothing will be done. The difficulties are too numerous and great. It is doubtful if the Nonconformists could be got to humble themselves on a day named by the Church of England authorities, or vice-versa. And the civil rulers will surely be slow to move. It would look too much like calling upon the people to pray God to deliver them from the disasters into which the folly of their Government had brought them. This would be too inconveniently of the nature of a Liberal election placard (and dissolution cannot be long adjourned) for a Conservative Ministry to issue it. So we think that, however richly entitled to a day of humiliation England may deem herself, no day formally and officially so called will be set apart.

And is it not true that devout Englishmen would find a good many awkward questions rising in their minds if such a day were to be appointed? Would they be beating their breasts and crying out "Miserere nobis," simply because their armies had been whipped, or because they had been fighting in a bad cause? What does the Divine displeasure mean when expressed in a lost battle? If the English had won, would that have shown that they were men after God's own heart? Then what are we to say of the Boers, who did win? These are but specimens of the moral and religious perplexities which arise as soon as a nation at war begins to feel it is losing because it has been forgetting God. Perhaps it forgot him when it began the war. And the complication becomes simply terrible when the war is against so notoriously pious a people as the Boers, who hold prayer-meetings in their camps, go to battle singing hymns, and devoutly ascribe every victory to the good hand of God upon them.

Then, again, if England is to repent in dust and ashes, it would be necessary to specify what for. Repentance is good for the soul only when it ceases to be general and comes right down to the facts. Here would be fresh dangers. All the Liberals would abase themselves before the Most High for belonging to a country which had tolerated a Conservative Government. Imagine that devout churchman, Sir William Harcourt, making his confession; would it not surely run: "Lord, have mercy on Joseph Chamberlain, miserable sinner"? If Mr. Lecky were to do an act of public penance in Dublin, what would it be most apt to be? We think it would be to humble himself before his Maker on account of the university which he represents in Parliament. He himself had described Mr. Chamberlain's conduct in terms of the severest moral condemnation; yet Trinity College, Dublin, the other day conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. upon that statesman. What is more, the Latin orator, Prof. Tyrrell, spoke of him as a man whom all looked up to with the utmost confidence ("summa fiducia suspicimus"). We think that Mr. Lecky could make out a strong argument for the belief that it was upon this act, more than upon the unlucky British soldiers, that the Divine displeasure had been visited, and that it was for this that repentance is in order.

The truth is, we suppose, that the whole order of ideas involved in the observance of days of national humiliation is ill at ease in the modern world. The heathen way, of course, was to abuse divinities, instead of worshipping them with fresh devoutness, when disasters befell. A fetish gets sadly banged about when its tribe loses a battle. Something of lurking reproach used to appear even in Old Testament addresses to Jehovah

in times of calamity. It is possible often to detect something like it in national prostrations before God to-day. "Why has Thou cast us off?" "Do not disgrace the throne of Thy glory." We know, of course, that none of the moral difficulties we have spoken of ever cross the consciousness of thousands of devout souls who simply turn to God, in public as they do in private distresses, as a very present help in time of trouble. But when the humiliation is made official and ostentatious, all sorts of awkward things come in. In England, for example, a fixed day for public penitence, with business suspended, would necessarily be treated by multitudes as a holiday, and amusement and irreverence would be rife. And would not the most saintly minded Englishman jump from his knees to rush out and buy an "extra" with news of a great victory on the Tugela?

DELAGOA BAY.

Mr. Lucas, the historian of British Colonies, is doubtless right in saying that the opening of the Suez Canal led at first to a decided flagging of English interest in South Africa. The Cape was, historically, the half-way house to India. Naturally, therefore, it seemed to lose its critical importance to the empire when a shorter and safer route to Bombay was made possible by way of the Red Sea. But it was not long before there came a dawning sense that South Africa was not only on England's road to an empire, but was an empire in itself. The immense mineral and agricultural development of the territories accessible through Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Durban induced a quite new idea of the value of those ports. Inevitably, also, it led to a longing in the breasts of English statesmen to own the fine natural harbor of Delagoa Bay.

That possession of Portugal had been languidly contested for by Dutch and Portuguese for generations, but it did not become the prize it is until gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and until the establishment of an English protectorate over Bechuanaland made it highly desirable for England to have at least the right of access through Delagoa Bay. Desire had already found law to justify it. Great Britain, in the early seventies, claimed, by virtue of an old treaty made with a native chief in 1823, all the territory up to the southern shores of the estuary. Portugal, on the contrary, claimed both shores and as far down the coast line as 26 degrees 30 minutes south latitude. In 1872 the two Powers submitted the dispute to the arbitration of the President of the French Republic, Marshal MacMahon. He decided in 1875 wholly in favor of Portugal.

Next came English diplomatic efforts to obtain from Portugal rights of passage through Delagoa Bay, with a certain control over Portuguese territory lying between the Bay and the Transvaal. Sir Robert Morier, British Minister in Lisbon, actually succeeded in securing a treaty from Portugal in 1879, conferring such valuable privileges upon England. If she enjoyed them now, what a different face would be put upon the war! But the treaty was never ratified. The Conservative government then in power treated the whole matter with supine indifference, just as it did Sir Bartle Frere's urgent representations from the Cape, and the invaluable instrument went by the board. However, there came later the Anglo-Portuguese convention of 1891, which contained a pledge that Delagoa Bay should never be alienated to any Power except Great Britain, and also assured to England the right of preëmption of any territories south of the Zambesi within the Portuguese sphere of influence. Thus no room is left anywhere on the eastern coast of South Africa for the intervention of any European nation.

The third act in the drama is the Delagoa Bay Railway controversy and arbitration, of which we have been hearing so much. This arose in 1889. In that year Portugal seized the Delagoa Bay Railway, which had been partially built under a concession held by an American citizen, Edward MacMurdo, and annulled its charter. This act led to vigorous protests by our State Department, conjointly with the British Foreign Office (English subjects being also parties in interest), and in 1890 Portugal agreed to submit the matter to arbitration. Three jurists were named by the President of the Swiss Republic to pass upon the matter, which they have now been doing these nine years, supported in their arduous investigations by the knowledge that they were drawing a salary of $25,000 a year each. Of course, the question is an intricate one; knotty legal and engineering problems have to be solved; yet, even so, and allowing for the death of one of the arbitrators, the delay seems extraordinary. A decision was confidently expected three years ago. On July 8, 1897, Salisbury characteristically said in the Lords, in answer to an interpellation on the subject:

> "If my noble friend asks me what are the prospects of the arbitration, my answer is that I am informed that the decision will speedily be given; but I am afraid I shall not carry much comfort to his mind when I tell him that the same information has been supplied to me for several years past, and also to the noble lord opposite [the Earl of Kimberley]. Therefore I fear I must leave the noble lord to such consolation as he may be able to obtain from the reflection that, after all, he is supporting a sound principle of arbitration."

The suspicion that the case was being nursed along for some ulterior end was heightened, if not confirmed, by what came to be known of the Anglo-German agreement of 1898. That England was to get Delagoa Bay in some fashion, and that Germany was to come into control of Portuguese possessions on the west coast of Africa, adjoining the German protectorate declared over Damaraland in 1884, was asserted by those having the best means of information. All doubt on the point was removed by the official note issued in Lisbon last Saturday. In that, the Portuguese Government declared that England and Germany, "having previously reached an agreement between themselves," had notified Portugal that, in case she needed a loan, they were prepared to guarantee it, and "further suggested that the loan should be guaranteed by the colonial and customs receipts." Now, as soon as the Delagoa Bay Railway decision is made, which will undoubtedly be against Portugal, and may compel her to find $15,000,000 or $20,000,000, she will need a loan. Then the benevolent English and German governments will come forward to urge the money upon her. If she will not borrow peaceably, they may force her to. The result, we suppose, will be an occupation of the Portuguese colonies in South Africa very like the English occupation of Egypt. Sovereignty may not be asserted—the fiction of Portuguese sovereignty may be kept up as solemnly as that of Turkish sovereignty in Egypt—but the colonies will be administered under foreign control. Time and method are uncertain. The Boer war may hasten or may retard the step. But that Delagoa Bay is to be under British control in the near future, is what the international map-makers undoubtedly regard as a fixed fact.

"IGNOBLE PEACE."

I noticed in the *Evening Post*, a few days ago, some merriment over Gov. Roosevelt's comments on what he calls "ignoble peace." The Jingoes who look on war as boys look on football, think that people make peace because they are tired of the fun. But the fact is, you may count upon the fingers of one hand the wars that have been concluded for any other reason than the inability of one side or the other to continue them. One of the combatants has to sue for peace, because he has no more men or money to continue the fight, so that ignoble peace is largely a creature of the Jingo imagination. These sportive men would have had England continue the contest after Lord Cornwallis's surrender, the French after the battle of Waterloo and after Sedan, and Austria after Königgrätz. People make peace when they are conquered, not for the purpose of affording sermons to Jingo historians.

If Gov. Roosevelt used the phrase "ignoble peace" properly, he would make it mean, not simply peace after war with sword and gun. It means peace after any kind of dispute between man and man. No matter what kind of difference you have with your fellow-man, if you make any concession to him which you feel in your conscience is bad for him, or bad for you, or bad for the community, in order to procure something you desire, you are guilty of "ignoble peace." Gov. Roosevelt has apparently a comic notion that everybody is

prone to commit "ignoble peace" unless closely watched and warned. This is probably the result of excessive preoccupation with one subject. He is constantly thinking about fighting, and wishing people would fight more, and he naturally gets to thinking that it is an act of baseness to stop fighting. He wants them to fight freely in order to elucidate his theories of human society. He reminds me in this of the people in the Roman amphitheatre, who, as Seneca tells us, used to be furious with the gladiator who spoilt their fun by showing a disinclination to be killed. His belief in the general proneness to "ignoble peace" is very like the state of mind a few years ago of the opponents of marriage with a deceased wife's sister in England, who wrought themselves up into thinking that every man in England wanted to marry his deceased wife's sister, and could be saved from this enormity only by legislation and constant admonition. In like manner, one would imagine from Gov. Roosevelt's sermons that everybody in America was infected with a morbid lust for shameful submission to enemies.

But it is sadly true that there is rife in America to-day some disposition to an ignoble peace. Two-thirds of our evils, both in public and in private life, are due to it. The indisposition to have principles, to stand fast and adhere to them, to meet the enemy in the gate, and sink or swim, live or die, for what you believe will be right rather than pleasant, is the curse of the nation and the great obstacle to reform.

Gov. Roosevelt himself is one of the great illustrations of it. We believed, and thousands believed, too—thousands who were just as brave as Gov. Roosevelt—that had he brought back the laurels of San Juan to the aid of reform in this State he might have been elected Governor on a new basis, and without the aid of Platt. From a correspondence which I saw between him and Col. Waring, I judge that Col. Waring believed this, and said so to Gov. Roosevelt. But Gov. Roosevelt, knowing well what kind of man Platt was, what kind of politics he stood for, what his career for the last twenty years had been, deliberately threw the reformers overboard, and made an "ignoble peace" with said Platt. The gentlemen of the Republican Committee of Twenty-five, who exposed in January, 1896, enormous, astounding primary-election frauds committed by Platt's machine, and put their names to a report in which they said, as one of their number, Cornelius N. Bliss, asserted in a published interview at the time, that Platt's conduct was so bad that they could never again coöperate with him, "even in a good cause," and almost immediately afterwards dined with him, wined with him, and gratefully accepted office at his hands, were guilty likewise of "ignoble peace." In fact, "ignoble peace" is what Gov. Roosevelt is "conferring" about, every week, with the machine. The only reason for "conference" is to find out how little "ignoble" his peace will have to be. To say that he is conferring in the interests of good government is like saying that Luther ought to have conferred with the Pope, and that an occasional supper with the devil would be a great help to a revival preacher.

Of course, it may be said that Gov. Roosevelt had to have the help of Platt in order to be elected, but if he cannot bear defeat in a good cause, how absurd it is to keep preaching to his neighbors about "ignoble peace." We may be sure that unless we can procure the services of men who have the courage "never to submit or yield," and who have sufficient confidence and hopefulness to believe that it is the right thing which will sooner or later win, we may abandon the silly idea that we shall reform the State by "conferring" with bad men and tinkering charters and "jamming" bills.

E. L. G.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT NEW HAVEN.

NEW HAVEN, January 2, 1900.

The Archæological Institute of America has a peculiar constitution. It is formed of nine "affiliated societies" which are established in Boston, New York, and other cities. Its Council is made up of delegates from the affiliated societies and a few ex-officio members, and, at its annual May meeting in New York, listens to no learned papers, but simply transacts business. The Institute has conducted important excavations in Asia Minor, and has published two volumes of Papers with regard to these in its Classical Series; it has carried on interesting explorations and researches among the Indians in the southwestern part of the United States, and has published five volumes of Papers in its American Series; it has fostered the American Schools of Classical Studies at Athens and in Rome, which are in a sense its daughters, and maintains a fellowship in each of them; it generously supported the excavations on the site of the Argive Heræum by the School at Athens; it subsidized the *American Journal of Archæology* in its earlier series, and publishes the current series of that periodical as its own *Journal*. But the Institute hitherto has held no general meetings for the reading of papers, such as are held by the Philological Association and other scientific bodies, except that, just five years ago, it took part in the joint meeting of learned societies which was held in Philadelphia to do honor to the memory of Prof. Whitney, who had recently died. In the revision of the regulations of the Institute three years ago, provision was made for such general meetings, but none was held until this year.

The opening words of Prof. Norton's address on the first evening of the meeting held in this city December 27-29 were:

"The first general meeting of the Archæological Institute of America is a fitting celebration of the coming of age of the Institute. Twenty-one years will be complete next spring since its foundation. The hopes of its founders have not been disappointed, and this meeting is the assurance that what the Institute has up to this time accomplished is but the promise of still better achievements."

Since the main purpose of such gatherings is recognized as being not so much the imparting and acquisition of knowledge as the promotion of personal intercourse between those who are engaged in the same field of work, and stimulus and encouragement to scholars who are necessarily somewhat isolated in their investigations, even without regard to papers the meeting at New Haven would be regarded as entirely successful. The registered attendance was ninety-four, exclusive of the Yale contingent, representing forty-three institutions of learning. Never before, except perhaps at the "Whitney meeting" to which reference has been made, have so many classical scholars been gathered in America. From Harvard came Profs. Norton, Goodwin, F. W. Putnam, Smith, Warren, Wright, C. H. Moore, and Mr. G. H. Chase; from Columbia, Profs. Perry and Wheeler, and Drs. Earle, Young, and Olcott; from Princeton, Profs. Marquand, West, and Frothingham. Prof. Kelsey came from Michigan, Prof. Slaughter from Wisconsin, Prof. Fossum from Minnesota, Dr. Hussey from Chicago, and Prof. Carter from Montreal. Most of the colleges of New York and New England were represented by two professors. The weather was favorable, the building of the Yale School of Fine Arts in which the meetings were held was charmingly convenient, the doors of the Graduates' Club were hospitably thrown open, and opportunities for informal discussions abounded.

The President of the Institute, Prof. John Williams White, being absent from the country, Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, Honorary President of the Institute, delivered the principal address, on the "Work of the Archæological Institute of America"—an address which was not only graceful and highly finished, but strong and inspiring. This address, we are glad to learn, is to be published in an early number of the *Journal* of the Institute. President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University, a Vice-President of the Institute, presided at the earlier sessions.

The executive committee, which had charge of the arrangements for the meeting, had expressed the desire that the range of papers might be as broad as the constitution of the Institute, and embrace the whole field of archæology. Naturally, however, a large majority of the scholars present were classical scholars, and most of the papers presented were in the department of classical archæology. The influence of the American School at Athens was indicated by the fact that exactly half of the papers offered were by former students or professors of that school. The session of Thursday morning, presided over by Dr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia, was devoted largely to the special interests of museums, their collections and recent acquisitions, and to excavations. The executive committee has expressed the hope that the annual meeting of the Institute may bring together year after year the administrative officers of museums. On Thursday afternoon Mr. C. P. Bowditch presided, and opened the session, which was devoted chiefly to American archæology, by an exceedingly clear and forcible address on the explorations which are conducted in Central America. He was followed by a paper by Prof. G. Frederick Wright on Objects of Archæological Interest in the State of Ohio, and by an address by Prof. Putnam on Ancient Pueblos of the Chaco Cañon.

Too many papers were presented at the meeting. Though several were withdrawn when the situation became evident, and others were presented only in an abstract, no time was afforded for public discussion, and one or two whom the audience would gladly have heard to the end were obliged to stop abruptly. But, at the first meeting of such a body, this infelicity is not surprising. Naturally some papers were read which will be more intelligible in print, but, by the free use of the oxy-hydrogen lantern, the subjects which demanded illustration received it, and the attendance on the sessions remained good until the adjournment on Friday noon.

Many results of importance were presented, but most of these were too technical to be reported here. Of the papers of general interest, perhaps those by Dr. William Hayes Ward on "Goddesses in Early Babylonian Art," by Prof. Sterrett on "Some Troglodyte Dwellings in Asia Minor," by Mr. E. P. Andrews of Cornell on "The Inscription on the East Architrave of the Parthenon," by Prof. Putnam on "Ancient Pueblos," and by Dr. Young on "Ancient Greek Dressmaking," were most enjoyed. These were all well illustrated—Dr. Young's by a manikin, as well as by views on the screen, and Mr. Andrews's by a long strip of paper which enabled him to show how he deciphered his inscription merely by means of the holes for the nails which had held the bronze letters attached to the architrave. Prof. Sterrett's account of the dwellings in the great pumice-stone cones which stand near the River Halys in Asia Minor was like a fairy-tale to many of his hearers.

This meeting was not for business in the strict sense; the management of the affairs of the Institute is left to its Council. But resolutions were adopted with regard to two matters—urging that objects of antiquity and art should be admitted to this country free of custom-house duties, and that our Government should take measures to protect and preserve the remains of an earlier civilization within our own borders—not allowing the indiscriminate digging for relics which threatens to destroy many important monuments. With this action of the general meeting of the Institute all thinking men are likely to be in accord. Y.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION IN NEW YORK.

NEW YORK, January 1, 1900.

The seventeenth annual meeting of the Modern Language Association was held at Columbia University on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday of last week. The headquarters of the association were at the Hotel Empire, at the corner of Columbus Avenue and Sixty-third Street, but there was a good deal of scattering, as was natural in a large city.

One of the most noticeable features of the meeting was the fact that this Association, which one is wont to regard as still young, is passing into the hands of a younger generation. There were a number present who were instrumental in the organization of the Association in this city some sixteen years ago, and their presence gave character and attractiveness to the gatherings, but not more than two of them read papers. With very few exceptions, the papers presented were by men whose doctor's diplomas are not five years old. There is also a marked difference between the average paper of to-day and that of fifteen years ago. At that time the subjects presented at the meetings were often of a general character, such as were more or less familiar to a considerable number of the members present; hence discussions, sometimes considerably prolonged, were usual. To-day the average paper is technical and presents the results of the writer's special study, and it is rare that other members are in a position to criticise off hand what is thus laid before them. The fact that many able papers in this way pass without discussion led to the proposition that, in future, the number of papers be reduced so as to leave more time for discussion, and that persons be selected beforehand to lead debate. But it was made clear that it was not lack of time, but a change in conditions, that has brought about the general abandonment of discussion, and it was finally decided that any attempt to stimulate it artificially would be unwise.

There was a good representation of the country as a whole. Though the central division of the Association was in session at Nashville, the South and so much of the Middle West as lies east of Chicago were well represented at the New York meeting. Lower Canada also sent delegates and two good papers. Of individual institutions, Michigan was represented by three papers, Harvard by two, not counting the address of President von Jagemann, and Bryn Mawr, Johns Hopkins, Pennsylvania, and Western Reserve by two each. There were no papers read by delegates from Brown, Cornell, Princeton, or Yale, nor, strange as it would seem, by representatives of any universities or colleges in or near New York. Two of the papers were presented by ladies: one by Dr. Gertrude Buck of Vassar on the present state of rhetorical theory, and one by Miss Julia Leavens of Brooklyn, on modern English dictionaries. Two extremes in the form of woman's activity in linguistics could hardly have been more marked; Miss Buck's clear, calm, and modest presentation of a well-considered paper contrasting sharply with the sensational dilettantism and naïve assumption of Miss Leavens.

Thirteen of the papers dealt with English themes, six with German, three with Spanish, and one each with Italian and French—in contrast with the half-dozen papers on French subjects that were presented at the previous meeting. The increase in the number of papers on Spanish subjects cannot be brought into any connection with recent history. One, on the poet Luis Barahona de Soto, was sent by Prof. Rennert of the University of Pennsylvania, but read only by title; in another, Prof. Marden of Johns Hopkins presented a capital explanation of an interesting alteration in the 'Poema de Fernan Gonzalez,' and Prof. Bourland of Michigan discussed the date of the 'Rimed Chronicle' of the Cid. Literature, or rather the history of literature, seems to be most cultivated by the members of the Society. There were eighteen such papers to four or five that dealt with philological problems, and two or three with matters of rhetoric. The nearest approach to pure literature was made by Prof. Edgar of Victoria University, Toronto, in his paper on the nature poetry of Shelley and his contemporaries. Prof. Tupper of Western University, London, Ontario, presented a study of Pope's imitations of Horace; the paper of Dr. Thorndike of Western Reserve treated of the influence of court masques on the regular drama, and of the light which this throws on the chronology of the drama of 1605-15; Mr. E. K. Putnam of Harvard discussed the Lambeth version of 'Havelok,' and Prof. McKnight of Ohio State University the Germanic elements in 'King Horn,' while Mr. Arthur Brown of Harvard presented an able paper on the Round Table before Wace. In German literature, Goethe and Hauptmann monopolized attention: Prof. Manning of Delaware College discussed the date of the first paralipomenon of 'Faust,' and Dr. Eggert of Chicago the curse-idea in "Iphigenie auf Tauris"; Dr. Schuetze of Pennsylvania read a paper on fatalism in Hauptmann's dramas.

Of the philological papers probably the most important was that of Prof. Callaway of Texas, on the appositive participle in Anglo-Saxon. Prof. B. J. Vos of Johns Hopkins discussed rime-parallelism in Old High German verse, and Prof. Kurrelmeyer of Franklin and Marshall College presented a study of the development of the type of the first person plural imperative in German—a portion of his Hopkins doctor's thesis. Prof. Hempl of Michigan explained the rise and fall of the forms *a'n't* and *ha'n't*, and Prof. F. N. Scott, also of Michigan, read an interesting paper presenting students' reminiscences of the impressions that grammatical terminology first made upon their minds. In his presidential address on Thursday evening, Prof. von Jagemann of Harvard urged that philologists should regard the discussion of matters of good usage as a part of their proper field of activity, and should not leave it to dilettanti and amateurs; but he warned them that learning alone would not suffice as an equipment—a liberal spirit and a willingness to recognize the claims of all periods and of different sections being essential.

In behalf of the committee on international correspondence, Prof. Magill of Swarthmore read an interesting report on the rapid progress made during the year in the use of this important aid in the acquisition of modern languages. Inquiries may be addressed to Prof. Magill at Swarthmore, Pa. (see also *Modern Language Notes*, vol. 14, page 48). The final presentation of the report of the Committee of Twelve on methods of instruction and the training of teachers did not elicit detailed discussion. The report is printed in full as chapter xxvi. of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897-8 (U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, 1899), and is incorporated in the Report of the committee on College Entrance Requirements, July, 1899.

The Association is also interested in various celebrations that are soon to take place. The seventy-fifth birthday of Dr. Frederick Furnivall, the distinguished English scholar who established the Early English Text Society, the Chaucer Society, and various other societies for the promotion of English studies, will be celebrated this year in England. Various members of the Modern Language Association of America are to contribute papers to the jubilee volume that is to be published, and all are urged to aid in putting the Early English Text Society on a sound financial basis, contributions to be sent to Prof. Bright of the Johns Hopkins. As the year 1900 brings the five-hundredth anniversary of the death of Chaucer, it was decided to constitute one session of the next meeting of the Association a Chaucer Session, at which papers dealing with Chaucerian subjects only will be read. The year following is the one-thousandth since the death of King Alfred, and will be celebrated throughout the English-speaking world. Papers will be contributed to the memorial volume by Profs. Bright, Hempl, Kittredge, and others, and the Modern Language Association will delegate its Secretary and other members to represent it at the celebration in the city of Winchester, which was the capital of Wessex, the royal residence and the burial-place of Alfred. The American Dialect So-

ciety, which is practically a section of the Modern Language Association, held a business meeting Friday noon. The Secretary, Prof. Emerson of Western Reserve University, reported that the publication of *Dialect Notes* would be resumed at once, and on his motion the price of back numbers was reduced in such a way as to stimulate sales.

The social features of the meeting were pleasant and sufficient. President Low welcomed the Association to Columbia, and on Thursday evening, with Mrs. Low, received the delegates and others at his home. The University gave a luncheon in the Engineering Building on Thursday noon, and "the courtesies of the club" were extended to the delegates by the University Club and the Century Club. A considerable number of the members joined in a *Kneipe* at Hollander's on Wednesday evening. Heinrich Conried, manager of the Irving Place Theatre, kindly placed his private box at the disposal of some of the members, who were thus given the opportunity of seeing Schweighofer, the distinguished Viennese comedian.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in conjunction with the Philological Association and other similar bodies, presumably at Philadelphia. The new President is Prof. Thos. R. Price of Columbia.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT ITHACA.

ITHACA, December 30, 1899.

The common experience that a quiet locality and academic auspices are the most favorable conditions for a successful gathering of scientists, was fully confirmed by the results of the twelfth annual meeting of the American Economic Association held here this week with Cornell University. In the absence of distracting engagements, in the occasion for personal intercourse, and in the stimulus of informal discussion, no recent meeting of the Association has been so successful. The programme was on the whole less striking than that of the preceding year, and the American Historical Association was not in joint session; but, on the other hand, a single roof sheltered practically all of the members in attendance, and the close and continuous contact which resulted more than compensated for the lacking elements. The essential qualities of the memorable Indianapolis meeting were reproduced without the inconvenience of a snow blockade.

The most important single event of the meeting was, as had been expected, President Hadley's stimulating address as President of the Association, on "Economic Theory and Political Morality," delivered at the opening session on Wednesday morning. It was a continuation of his presidential address of the preceding year, and was characterized by the same acuteness of thought and clearness of expression. The central argument of the address was that, in the endeavor to increase his influence upon the political world, the economist "should undertake to realize the very highest ideals, as a scientific man who stands above the clouds of prejudice and therefore sees farther than those about him; that it is his high mission to be the representative and champion of the permanent interests of the whole country, in the face of conflicting claims from representatives of temporary or partial ones."

This view of the mission and the duties of the political economist, President Hadley pointed out, has been challenged on three grounds: as bad psychology, bad politics, and bad ethics. As a matter of practical psychology, no one, it is contended, can make his judgment as to national well-being independent of his social antecedents and his ethical training. It would accordingly seem far better to recognize from the first that each of us represents a locality or a class, and that the moral judgment of each observer is sure to be affected and, to some degree, distorted by his own personal prepossessions. In the second place, an attempt on the part of the economist to represent the total interest of the public, even if it proved approximately possible, would not be good politics. "Even if you believe yourself wholly disinterested, you must appeal to classes and secure the partial good which is attainable, rather than aim at the greater good which you are from the outset fated to miss." Finally, this latter view of the matter is not only practical politics, but practical ethics. The man who would sink the interest of a class in a supposed general public interest, is but depriving that class of its own natural safeguard in the struggle for existence.

Upon analysis, it appears that the views thus outlined are an outgrowth of our experience with two important institutions: competition and representative government. Competition has led people to see how frequently the self-interest of the individual, as given free play, conduces to the general advance of the public. Representative government has shown how a full expression of opinion by those who speak for the several parts or classes in the community, can be made to contribute to an advance which inures to the advantage of all parts and all classes together.

President Hadley's vigorous dissent from this theory of struggle and compromise as a normal means of progress was based upon a brilliant interpretation of the real nature and function of modern competition and representative government. It is not a struggle between different parts for their class interests, but struggles within each class that work out in an economic harmony. The success of competition, so far from warranting us in the adoption of a system of political morality and a theory of political progress based on advocacy of class interests, proves rather the advantage and even the necessity of subordinating those interests to a wider common good. With respect to representative government, profounder study of constitutional history shows that parliaments and congresses in the really great periods of their history have been valuable as a field not of compromise between local interests, but of information as to general ones; not for the consummation of private bargains, but for the creation of public spirit. To the extent to which our representative assemblies have ceased to be places for debate and have become bodies for the making of laws rather than for the making of opinion, they have lost in salutary influence.

However undesirable it may have been in the past, certainly, in the light of recent political and economic developments, it has become impossible for those who are placed in authority to represent personal or class interests, without gross violation of fundamental dictates of sympathy or of justice. President Hadley's own note was one of high optimism:

"We shall meet the new collective needs of industry and government with a true collectivism of spirit and purpose. Not with that superficial collectivism or socialism which, like the individual that it strives to supersede, often makes too much of mere political machinery, and believes that men are to be saved by their institutions rather than their characters; but with a public spirit which demands, as a part of the national ethics, that men shall shape their course on the basis of conviction rather than of compromise, and that public discussion shall look towards a common understanding rather than a bargain."

In the animated discussion of President Hadley's address, the leading part was taken by Prof. John R. Commons, whose contribution was in the form of a detailed review of the address. He urged that the economist should acknowledge that no man is great enough or good enough to stand for such an abstraction as society as a whole. It is out of the combined result of public-spirited men contending for their own convictions and authorized to speak for others whose convictions are the same, and who are able to make concessions in the interest of all, that all of society is truly represented. Not the individual economist, but the combined economists, represent the permanent interests of society as a whole.

The most attractive single session of the meeting was, beyond all question, that of Thursday morning, devoted to papers and discussion upon the subject of corporations and Trusts. The points of approach were hopelessly at variance, and the residuum was somewhat less than might have been expected. But interest never flagged, and only the peremptory summons of a formal luncheon appointment was able to effect adjournment. Two of the three papers presented were by non-professional economists, ex-Secretary of the Treasury Charles S. Fairchild and Mr. James B. Dill of New York city, and their crispness and vigor illustrated anew the wisdom of varying academic abstraction with a strain of practical experience in the arrangement of the programme. Mr. Fairchild described in clear and explicit detail the complex operations incident to the financiering of a typical Trust. Mr. Dill captivated his auditors by a characteristically sparkling address upon "Some Tendencies in Recent Combinations which may become Dangerous," in which graphic if not scientifically accurate distinction was drawn between legitimate corporate enterprise and "incorporated wind," and a vague degree of "publicity" was suggested as a corrective of corporate abuses, as viewed from the investor's standpoint.

A really substantial contribution to the discussion was made by Prof. Sidney Sherwood of the Johns Hopkins University in a thoughtful paper upon "The Influence of Trusts in the Development of Undertaking Genius." Prof. Sherwood urged that the costly wastes of our modern industrial system are the wastes of misdirected production, and that it is the natural and spontaneous effort of a progressive industrial organization to get undertaking genius at its head which has produced the Trust. In other words, the persistence of the Trust is dependent upon its securing and retaining the highest leadership. It is upon this historic superiority in undertaking genius in the capacity for organization that our future economic supremacy must rest. The destruction of Trusts

would be the death-blow to our hopes for industrial leadership in the international struggle for future mastery. They are the most effective agencies for preventing the waste of competitive production. What is needed is an enlightened public appreciation of the possibilities for good which they offer, and a calm and wise limitation of their possibilities for evil through governmental regulation.

The afternoon sessions of both Wednesday and Thursday were devoted to the presentation and discussion of miscellaneous papers in theoretical and practical economics. Probably the most striking contribution was that of Prof. H. C. Emery of Bowdoin College on "The Place of the Speculator in Distribution," in which attention was called to the differentiation in recent industrial organization of the functions of risk-taking and entrepreneur's superintendence, and to the difficulty of assigning the compensation for industrial risk to any of the recognized factors or shares in distribution. In precision and clearness the paper left nothing to be desired, and its publication is likely to stimulate profitable discussion. The only other contribution to economic theory was a careful exposition of Senior's surprisingly modern theory of monopoly by Prof. Richard T. Ely of the University of Wisconsin. No one of the classical economists has suffered greater neglect at the hands of students than the author of the abstinence theory of interest, and it is to be hoped that Prof. Ely will supplement his partial review by a full study of Senior's place in the history of economic thought, and, better still, by an adequate edition of his scattered writings.

The subject of municipal finance was represented by a carefully prepared paper on "Taxation as a Partial Substitute for Borrowing to Cover Permanent Municipal Improvement," by Prof. E. D. Durand of Stanford University, author of the valuable study of the finances of New York city. The dangerous tendency of American, and, indeed, of British, municipalities to provide by funding instead of taxation, not only for permanent additions to the municipal plant, but for improvements properly chargeable to current income, is familiar. Grave embarrassment is, however, encountered in the rigid application of the salutary corrective suggested by Prof. Durand. The ordinary American city is in the midst of critical change from a mere industrial segregation to a self-conscious entity. The prevalent conditions are imperative municipal improvements, burdensome tax-rates, and inelastic revenues. Under such circumstances it is idle to suppose that a municipal electorate will content itself with cobble-stone pavements, surface drainage, and obsolete school-houses, while local borrowing remains so easy and agreeable a process. Expediency seems the only practicable rule that can be laid down for the fiscal conduct of American cities in this particular within the near future. To "pay as you go" is by all odds the safer rule; but, as was noted in the discussion of this important paper, the likelihood of decline in the burden of present municipal indebtedness through refunding operations and through a more consistent policy of amortization, and the certainty of progressive increase in the basis of municipal taxation, offer some justification for specific departure therefrom.

The three papers read on Thursday afternoon were all concerned with railway economics. Mr. W. H. Baldwin, jr., President of the Long Island Railway, discussed the organization and usefulness of railroad relief and beneficiary associations. Dr. B. H. Mayer of the University of Wisconsin presented an admirably clear and scholarly study of railway charters, and Prof. Henry C. Adams, Statistician of the Interstate Commerce Commission, considered certain aspects of the pooling problem.

The final session of the meeting was held on Friday morning. Prof. John Graham Brooks spoke of the work of the Consumers' League, and of the movement against the sweat-shop by the adoption of a League label, affixed to garments made under decent industrial conditions. Prof. Walter F. Willcox of Cornell University, now Chief Statistician of the Twelfth Census, described the plans for the approaching Census, and further details were added by Mr. H. T. Newcomb, Chief of the Agricultural Division. Both statements were objective and guarded, and yet the impression left was one of hopeful anticipation as to the scientific value of the forthcoming enumeration. It was impossible not to recall the discussion upon the plan and organization of the Census which took place at the New Haven meeting last year, and equally impossible not to feel a keen sense of gratitude to the special committee whose admirable report and critical essays on the Federal Census appear to have exerted direct and important influence.

Pressure of time permitted a bare reading of the report of the special committee on colonies, constituted at the last meeting, and composed of Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, chairman; the Hon. Charles S. Hamlin, Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, and Dr. Albert Shaw. The efforts of the committee have been directed to securing information regarding the fiscal methods and economic conditions of typical modern colonies, with a view to suggesting tentatively, on the basis of this information, some general principles which might be applicable to the government of the new dependencies of the United States. With the material thus far secured, the committee felt itself warranted merely in offering certain general suggestions as a preliminary report.

These included the recommendations that the finances of each colony should be managed exclusively for the sake of the colony and its development; that each colony must be considered by itself, and its system must be adapted to its conditions; that each colony should be made, as far as possible, self-supporting, but the mother country may well sustain the colony's credit or make temporary advances; that, in undeveloped colonies, important public works may well be owned by the Government and managed by Government officials. Sources of revenue should be selected in accordance with the economic and social conditions of the colony. Where the development of trade with foreign countries is the chief economic consideration, import duties should be very low or practically nonexistent. In colonies of undeveloped economic resources, the chief reliance for general government income should be on excise duties, levied primarily on a few articles of general consumption. When any colony has decided advantages in the production of some specially favored commodities, it may be desirable to impose business licenses or similar duties, or even low export duties, on such commodities. Local revenue should in most cases be derived in a large measure from real estate, business licenses, and kindred specific taxes. In the administration of fiscal affairs, natives wherever possible should be utilized as officials, and native customs continued during the period of transition; but the desires of the United States Government are to be paramount and its decisions final. In those dependencies where it is difficult to secure an adequate supply of efficient native labor, the question of an admission of foreign labor should be seriously considered. Finally, for the proper administration of the fiscal system in any of the dependencies of the United States, it is absolutely essential to establish a civil service which is beyond question as respects the ability and honesty of its personnel.

As intimated at the outset, the peculiar success of the meeting was largely due to the opportunities for personal contact and social intercourse which it offered. In securing this result, the social courtesies extended by the local committee were in great measure responsible. The members of the Association lunched in Sage College on Wednesday and Thursday as the guests of Cornell University; they were received by President and Mrs. Schurman at a delightful reception on Wednesday evening, and a convivial smoker on Thursday evening at the Town and Gown Club was the crowning function of the meeting.

The business transacted by the Council of the Association was for the most part routine. A slight change was made in the form of publications, and the Executive Committee were authorized to appoint special committees on the agricultural problem and on the negro question. The only changes in the officers of the Association were the election of Prof. Richard T. Ely as President, and the consolidation of the offices of Secretary and Treasurer in the person of Prof. Charles H. Hull. Detroit and the Christmas recess of 1900 were selected as the time and place of the next meeting, thus making possible a joint session with the American Historical Association. J. H. H.

Correspondence.

THE SEIZURE OF THE *BUNDESRATH*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A question of international law seems to have arisen between England and Germany. It is in respect to the capture of the German steamer *Bundesrath* by a British cruiser, on the ground of her carrying contraband of war, claimed by England to be destined for the Boers, to a neutral port.

Heretofore the right of capture of contraband goods being carried to a neutral port has been understood to exist only where the ulterior destination is to a belligerent port. It is stated that England claims that, to justify the capture, the ultimate destination need not be to a "belligerent *port*." But a neutral has the undisputed right to sell and deliver munitions of war to a belligerent; and if this extension of the rule in favor of belligerents should be admitted, it would place the trade of neutral nations

under restrictions that would not be tolerated.

Suppose a war between England and France in which a New York merchant orders and receives certain goods that are munitions of war from his correspondent in Germany. Under international law he has a clear right to buy the goods and, on receiving them, to sell and deliver them in Canada. Could a French cruiser capture the vessel and carry her into a French port for adjudication, on pretext that the ultimate destination of the goods was to a place or (we will say) to a military post in Canada?

FRANCIS J. LIPPITT.

BOER PREPARATIONS FOR WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "An American," in your issue of December 14, evidently believing in Boer deep, sinister designs against the British Empire (designs of which we heard nothing before the war), asks: "Did the big guns and the big officers come in during, previous to, or subsequent to the franchise discussions?" The following figures enable us to answer the question. They have been brought together from official sources by Mr. Alfred Marks, a London banker, have gone the rounds of the press here, and have, so far as I know, never been questioned. These are for the last ten years all the heads of account of Transvaal expenditure under which it has been suggested that military preparations could have been included:

	Military	Public Works.	Special Payments.	Sundry Services.	Total.
1889	£75,523	£300,071	£58,737	£171,088	£605,419
1890	42,999	507,579	58,160	133,701	742,439
1891	117,927	492,094	52,486	76,494	739,001
1892	29,739	361,670	40,276	93,410	525,095
1893	19,340	200,106	148,981	132,132	500,559
1894	28,158	260,962	75,859	163,547	528,526
1895	87,308	353,724	205,335	838,877	1,485,244
1896	495,618	701,022	682,008	128,724	2,007,372
1897	396,384	1,012,866	248,684	135,345	1,793,279
1898	*163,451	383,033	157,519	100,874	804,877

* First nine months.

There is no special rise in such expenditure until after 1894. In that year the nature of the reception by British residents accorded to Lord Loch in Pretoria naturally aroused the Boers to a sense of their danger. In 1896 came the raid and its virtual condonation by the British Government. Since 1896 the expenditure has steadily declined. Will these figures satisfy "An American"? Doubtless not. During your war of the Rebellion, I never knew any one's opinion on this side concerning the war altered by argument. There is much truth in "Lewis Carroll's" dictum: "My view of life is, that it's next to impossible to convince anybody of anything."

Yours very truly, ALFRED WEBB.

SHELMALIERE, DUBLIN, December 25, 1899.

TELL IT NOT TO THE TAGALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your readers may be interested to know how long the books sent from Europe are kept in New York. You will see that the wrapper I enclose, which left Edinburgh on December 11, has been stamped twice in New York—on December 21 and January 5—so that it stayed fifteen days in your city. New York custom-house officers must have taken a very long vacation. The duty is charged here with extreme rigor. For the "Vazír of Lankurán," a Persian play with an English translation, which costs half a guinea, I had to pay ninety cents duty. An attempt has even been made to make me pay duty on postage, and it took me some time to prove to the officials that they had no right to do so. A book sent from Germany by registered mail is very often marked here as dutiable, and, even after the package is opened and the book found to be a foreign one, it is not delivered to the addressee immediately, but the postmaster has to write to Boston in order to get permission to deliver it free of duty, which takes some five days.—Yours respectfully,

JOSEPH DE PEROTT.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS., January 7, 1900.

ERRING WITH PLATO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with recent discussions regarding the initial year of the new century, it has already been noted in your columns that the same confusion marked the beginning of the present one. The jest in Heine's 'Reisebilder' that because he was (assumedly) born on the 1st of January, 1800, he was therefore one of the first men of the century, is another illustration, in which he doubly falsified the record. At about the above date, Schiller writes to Goethe with greetings "for the new year and the new century"; and Goethe, replying under date of January 1, 1800, responds that he is "right glad to have finished in Schiller's company, on the previous evening, the year and the century, too."

Very truly yours, H. S. WHITE.

ITHACA, N. Y., January 1, 1900.

Notes.

An anonymous antiquarian has been at the pains to prepare an 'Historical Index' to the series of expensive manuals of the corporation of the city of New York known as Valentine's (1841-1870), which went under with the Tweed régime. They are rich in matter concerning the annals, buildings, manners and customs of this city, jumbled together and only to be sifted with great labor. Francis P. Harper has ventured an edition of 250 copies of this collection of 2,325 references.

Balthasar Hubmaier and Faustus Socinus will be combined in the next volume of the "Heroes of the Reformation" series, being treated respectively by the Rev. Henry C. Vedder, D.D., and the Rev. Alexander Gordon. Messrs. Putnam have also in press 'A Book for All Readers,' by Ainsworth R. Spofford of the National Library at Washington; and 'Let There be Light,' "the story of a workingmen's club, its search for the causes of poverty and social inequality, its discussions, and its plan for amelioration," by David Lubin.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have ready a literary map of England, prepared by Prof. William Lyon Phelps of Yale, which is designed to convey a knowledge of the mother country to school children and college students, and should have a still wider utility.

Mr. Frank Stockton's 'Rudder Grange' celebrates its twentieth year in the fine uniform edition of this writer's works which the Scribners have in hand. A younger brother and less famous is 'The Hundredth Man,' which forms the companion volume. Mr. Stockton could hardly have found a more sympathetic illustrator than Mr. Frost, whose designs are frontispieces only, and harmonize perfectly with the elegant typography.

The pot-pourri of 'Stories from Old-Fashioned Children's Books, brought together and introduced to the Reader by Andrew W. Tuer, F.S.A., adorned with 250 Amusing Cuts' (London: The Leadenhall Press; New York: Scribners), is arranged by dates, ranging from 1767 to 1828. There is no other order, and typographically this curious collection is quite disorderly. The pictorial illustrations are of a generally poor and rude character, and the text (as Mr. Tuer himself warns) had better be attacked at intervals. Numerous facsimile title-pages are given, and one of these does injury to Bewick by attributing to him cuts that he was guiltless of. The book was worth making, but how much better it might have been done!

Harper & Brothers have reprinted from the *North American Review* a number of papers on the South African question under the title 'Briton and Boer.' The first of these, and the only one of great value, is Mr. James Bryce's statement of the "Historical Causes of the Present War in South Africa." Of this we need only say that it is an incomparable piece of work, not merely in its estimate of the forces in operation, but also in the compactness of its presentation of the facts in the case and in the marvellous impartiality of its view. Perhaps none of its statements can be successfully controverted, and yet the advocates of the British cause will feel that somehow the ground on which they stand has been seriously undermined. The papers by Karl Blind, Francis Charmes, and Demetrius Boulger indicate that while the great Powers may not combine against England, the sentiment of Continental writers who have been friendly to her is unfavorable to her present course. It is unnecessary to say that those who have been heretofore hostile have not been propitiated.

The house of Cotta in Stuttgart announces Friedrich Theodor Vischer's "Shakespeare-Vorträge," to be issued in six volumes, the first of which, comprising 510 octavo pages, has just appeared. In an introduction of 228 pages the author discusses the Baconian hypothesis and a variety of kindred questions, gives a survey of the pre-Shaksperian drama, describes the theatre of his time, and deals at length with editions, translations, criticisms, etc., of Shakspere's works in different countries. The rest of the volume is devoted to the analysis and appreciation of "Hamlet." These lectures were justly celebrated when they were delivered many years ago at the University of Tübingen. Unfortunately there is no complete manuscript of them in existence, and the editor, Robert Vischer (the Professor's son), is obliged to reproduce the text so far as possible from the stenographic notes of students. The result is a fair summary of the substance of the lectures, without the fulness of elucidation and grace of style which originally characterized them.

Edwin Bormann, perhaps the most plausible of all "Baconians," follows up a volume ('Das Shakespeare-Geheimniss,' Leipzig, 1894) well illustrated with facsimiles that alone give it value, with a similar one entitled 'Bacon-Shakespeare's Venus und Adonis.' It is an exact reprint of the ori-

ginal edition (1593) of the poem, with annotations for the purpose of discovering in the text cryptographic allusions to Lord Bacon. This part possesses the usual marks of hallucination, but every owner of the book will be glad of the authentic pictorial apparatus. Bormann has announced his intention to publish all the works of Shakspere in the same style and with annotations from the same point of view. If he carries out this plan, we shall have a series of volumes which, so far as paper, typography, exact reproductions of the earliest texts, and rare illustrations are concerned, will leave nothing to be desired and will be a delight to all lovers of English literature.

The Florentine antiquary Leo Olscki has recently discovered in the house of a Venetian patrician a complete copy of the Bible with Nicholas Lyra's commentary, printed in 1471-72 by Arnold Pannartz in the palace of the Marquis Pietro Massimo at Rome. This work is extremely rare, and a copy of it was sold in Italy not long ago for 30,000 lire. The copy found by Olscki is richly illustrated with colored drawings of real and fabulous beasts of a symbolical character, heads of angels, plans of sacred edifices, and six emblematic jewels. The drawings are by a contemporary artist, probably Andrea Mantegna, or at least by one of his pupils. Luther is known to have prized this commentary highly, and to have used it in his interpretation of Holy Writ. This indebtedness gave rise to the saying: "Si Lyra non lyrasset, Luther non saltasset"—If Lyra had not played the lyre, Luther would not have danced.

The Statistical Year-Book of Canada for 1898, issued by the Department of Agriculture, is the fourteenth volume of this valuable annual. It contains all needful information as to the agricultural and mineral products, trade and commerce, finance, transportation by rail and canal, the post-office, insurance, temperance, crime and education; and, in an appendix, records the personnel of the several governments of the Dominion.

Amid the usual interesting variety of the *New England Magazine* (Boston: Warren F. Kellogg) in the January issue—illustrated articles on Peter Faneuil and his famous Boston Hall, "White's Selborne Revisited," Northampton, and others—the sketch of Mrs. Ellen Cheney Johnson and the Sherborn (Mass.) Prison for Women, by Isabel C. Barrows, may preëminently claim attention. The death of Mrs. Johnson could but be felt, by those who knew her and had seen her at her post of superintendent, as that of a necessary person; one could not imagine the work going on without her. As the minister is the church, and the editor the paper, so she was that innovating institution which is one of the gems in the humane diadem of Massachusetts. Worth reading the article is in every word, and this passage is worth quoting: "It is doubtful whether any other penal institution in the world encourages reading to the extent that this does. Every woman is compelled to have on her dress skirt a large, strong, flat pocket into which a book can be easily slipped."

The multitudinous thoughts which M. Brunetière puts forth in his survey of the "Literature of Europe in the Nineteenth Century" (*Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 1) will very likely awaken dissent or doubt in the minds of most readers as often as their hearty concurrence; but it will be found that the "curve of evolution" is, on the whole, skilfully traced. The features inviting criticism are, on the negative side, some very noticeable gaps, natural enough where the field is so vast, and, on the positive, an occasional infelicitous grouping of writers and certain startling comparisons, as, for example, when George Eliot, Tolstoy, and Dostoyevsky are associated with Balzac, Flaubert, and Dickens, to suggest, in the field of literature, a counterpart of the Dutch school of painting (p. 672); or when (seemingly for the sake of a pleasing rhetorical contrast to Musset and Leopardi) Heine is said to pour out in his lyrics with poignant utterance his suffering from doubt or unbelief (p. 660)! Where in Heine's lyrics can M. Brunetière have found "les sanglots les plus purs" of that tenor? And, without wishing to forestall what the future may bring, can it be said at the present time that Wagner's poetic activity has had as important results as his musical achievements (p. 661)?

By an unfortunate error our recent review of Dr. Spingarn's 'Literary Criticism in the Renaissance' stated that, among others, Paccius, Parrhasius, Landi, Capriano, Piccolomini, and Giasone di Nores did not seem to be included in this study. All are included except Parrhasius, as a correspondent has pointed out to us.

—The *Atlantic* for January gives the place of honor to the autobiography of W. J. Stillman, which takes us back to the first half of the century. Of his early childhood Mr. Stillman paints a rather depressing picture; it is hard to remember that so small a stretch of time separates us from the period when parents, no matter how tender-hearted, felt themselves under the necessity of flogging their children for what we should now consider trivial offences. It is easy to see that the idea at the root of the system was that the vice to be eradicated by the lash was disobedience; it mattered little, in this view, what the proscribed act was, so long as it *was* proscribed. The violation of the parental order was the crime, the heinousness of which was equally great in all cases. Such a system could not outlive the discovery, made early in this century, that the amount of obedience secured was not in proportion to the amount of physical pain inflicted for disobedience. To many readers T. J. J. See's "Recent Astronomical Discoveries in the Southern Hemisphere" will be as interesting as anything in this number of the magazine. Thanks, in great measure, to American astronomers, the exploration of the Southern heavens has been undertaken within the last thirty years "with a degree of thoroughness commensurate with the inherent interest of the richest portion of the celestial sphere." Like all popular astronomical papers, this one is, to the layman, full of surprises. Mr. See calls attention, for instance, to the "somewhat remarkable fact" that, since the time of Newton, "no certain advance has been made toward explaining the nature of gravity," adding that Laplace made numerous investigations to ascertain whether it is propagated with a finite velocity, like light and electricity. The result of his labors was that, if gravity has a finite velocity, it must be "millions of times" greater than that of light, which travels at the rate of 186,000 miles per second. Mr. See goes on: "From Laplace's investigations, and those made since his time, the indications are that gravity acts instantaneously throughout the universe, and is not propagated like other forces with a finite velocity. The nature of gravity thus remains an enigma, and it is not easy to see how any light can be thrown upon the cause from which it arises."

—The current *Scribner's* opens with Mr. Roosevelt's profusely illustrated Cromwell. Like some of his predecessors, he takes occasion to allow his study of the Protector's life to reveal his views of contemporary politics. He declares that what rendered it necessary for England "to pass through the fiery ordeal of the Civil War in order that she might be saved," was that she had been steeped, "during the first forty years of the country," in an "ignoble and therefore an evil peace." Such a peace "is as great a curse as the most unrighteous war." Those who doubt this, says Mr. Roosevelt, "would do well to study the condition of England during the reign of James I. and during the first part of the reign of Charles I. England had then no standing army and no foreign policy worthy of the name. The chief of her colonies were growing up almost against her wishes, and wholly without any help or care from her. In short, she realized the conditions, as regards her relations with the outside world and 'militarism,' which certain philosophers advocate at the present day for America." *De te fabula.* In other words, those who are opposed to militarism at the present day would have America take the attitude towards the outside world in which James I. and Charles I. put England. Mr. Roosevelt is too hard on Charles I. If Charles were alive now, he would necessarily sympathize with much that Mr. Roosevelt writes. For instance, he was a great naval reformer, at least in theory; it was his anxiety to give England a fine navy to counterbalance those of France and Holland which led to his imposition of the ship-money tax. Hampden and his friends resisted this, but the tax was sustained in the courts. "The Poetic Cabarets of Paris," by Eliot Gregory, with illustrations by Mr. Gregory and E. Potthast, gives some entertaining information about a part of the life of Paris little known to Anglo-Saxons. To understand Paris one must understand the *cafés*, just as to understand London one must understand the clubs. We have or may have heard Yvette Guilbert sing; but how many Americans have any knowledge of Jules Jouy, who wrote her ballads, and is a man whose praise has been sounded by such critics as Sarcey and Jules Lemaître? Undoubtedly many of these ballads, like Yvette Guilbert herself, are under the ban of propriety, but the same cannot be said of Caran d'Ache and his great café success of the "Épopée of Napoleon"—and what distinct knowledge or estimate have we of that? Perhaps the Bohemia of our day will yet produce its Mürger, and then we shall know more.

—*Harper's* has an illustrated article by Arnold White on "The British System of Colonial Government," which contains a good deal of information not readily accessible. Mr. White has had exceptional opportunities for observation, as he has served, since its creation in 1887, on the voluntary committee which administers the Bureau

of Emigrants' Information under the control of the Colonial Office. From 1793 down, for sixty years, the same minister had charge of the business of war and the administration of the colonies. Only in 1854 were the two separated. According to Mr. White, the separation was due to the "Crimean fiasco." How many Colonial Secretaries there have been since 1854 does not appear; but from 1794 to 1899 there were forty-six secretaries who administered either the War and Colonial Office jointly, or the latter separately. The continuity of administration is kept up by under-secretaries and a permanent staff; otherwise, with such constant changes of the head, effected through the mutations of domestic politics, there could be none. When Lord Palmerston took charge, he is reported to have addressed one of the permanent officials on his first visit to the office in the following words: "Let us come up stairs and look at the maps and see where these places are." The Colonial Minister is directly concerned with the details of forty distinct and independent governments, to say nothing of scattered dependencies which do no possess regularly formed administrations. The line of demarcation between the duties of the Colonial Secretary and the Secretary for Foreign Affairs is not clearly marked out. Lord Salisbury's bailiwick includes the British North Borneo Company, the Somali Protectorate, British East Africa, the Niger Coast, and the Uganda Protectorates; the Transvaal, officially recognized by England for fifteen years as the South African Republic, and which no one pretends is a colony, is, as every one is aware, under Mr. Chamberlain's care. There is a good deal more information than literature in this number of *Harper's*. For the latter we turn inevitably to Mrs. Humphry Ward's "Eleanor." This is at least a real novel by an accomplished hand. It introduces a new type, in a woman's man who has given up politics (he might have been Prime Minister) to write a book which shall, however, be his political vindication; and a new form of an old type—the American girl abroad. In this case the little charmer is a Vermont Methodist, who has perfect manners, but does not know how to dress or arrange her hair. The hero, it should be said, is a Catholic reactionary, and if he does not become interested in the pretty Methodist, the readers of instalments yet to come will certainly be surprised.

—The *Century* is so devoted to art that criticism of it as periodical literature covers only half the ground. Such a paper, for instance, as that of Frederick A. Cook on "The New Antarctic Discoveries" is mainly interesting through its novel "pictures in color after photographs by the author." The same cannot be said, however, of Joshua Slocum's "Sailing Alone Around the World," which will, no doubt, soon appear as a book. The present number contains the fifth instalment, "From Australia to Cape Town, South Africa." The pictures, by Thomas Fogarty and George Varian, are decidedly subordinate to the nautico-literary yarn spun by the hardy and cheerful skipper and master of the *Spray*. We have to go back to Marryat for anything at all like it, but it must be remembered that Marryat was a writer of mere fiction, while Capt. Slocum confines himself strictly to fact. Were it not for this we should give him credit every now and then for drawing on his imagination. For instance, his interview with Paul Krüger (he made incidentally the trip from the Cape to Kimberley, Johannesburg, and Pretoria) is curious. Judge Beyers, the gentleman who introduced Capt. Slocum, mentioned that he was on a voyage round the world, upon which the President of the South African Republic corrected the Judge rather sharply, reminding him that the world was flat. "You don't mean *round* the world," said the President, "you mean *in* the world"; and not another word would the President utter. The Judge is reported to have been "embarrassed," as well he might be, but the Captain was delighted, and gave the story to an enterprising journalist of Cape Town, who made a very good caricature of it for local consumption. But what is a caricature compared with the report of the original conversation by the person to whom the remark was addressed? It is the narrative of the actual voyage of the *Spray*, however, rather than the account of what happened to the author when ashore, that gives the story its value. An out-of-the-way piece of fiction is Ernest Seton-Thompson's "The Biography of a Grizzly," with pictures by the author. Perhaps, after all, it should not be regarded as out of the way so much as a novel development of an old species of story—that in which an animal is the hero. Æsop made use of animals for one purpose, the author of 'Black Beauty' for another, and still more recently we have had Kipling unlocking the secret thoughts of wolves, tigers, and other wild beasts. Mr. Seton-Thompson's tale might never have been written had it not been for Kipling, but his grizzly is what might be called a romantic or operatic bear, who dies to slow music in the last act, and makes us feel happier for having known him. Wahb may or may not be real, but he possesses interest, which (*pace* the realists) is more important in fiction than verisimilitude.

—New signs of the fusion, or at least *rapprochement*, of the two great currents of higher education may be observed at the University of Göttingen. Prof. Klein, the famous mathematician, who, perhaps from fear of giving umbrage to some possible labor organization, delighted his American audiences with such a harmless subject as the "Theory of the Top," has founded a "Society for the Advancement of Applied Physics," counting among its members, aside from eight professors of the University, several representatives of German industrial firms. Furthermore, the newly opened laboratories for electrotechnics (under Prof. Descoudres) and of general technical physics (under Prof. Eugene Meyer) are attracting students whose instruction would hitherto have fallen rather within the province of technical institutions. Another step towards modernizing higher education is suggested by a petition to the Prussian Minister of State from a large number of German jurists, contending that graduates from the Realgymnasia should no longer be refused admission to the law courses in the universities. A similar agitation among the medical profession, it will be remembered, has been going on for some years. Protests against such "Americanizing tendencies," however, are, and no doubt will continue to be, heard from various quarters. Thus, the new rector of the German University of Prague, Dr. von Holzinger, the classical philologian, in his inaugural address (published in *Hochschul-Nachrichten* for November) has no sympathy whatever with such new-fangled ideas as the welding of polytechnic school and university into a "mongrel colossus," the presence of women students in the "Männeruniversitäten," and that "new growth upon the ancient university body, called university extension."

—Volume xxvi. of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan consists of a single booklet, containing four papers of value. Dr. Ludwig Riess contributes an exhaustive "History of the English Factory at Hirado." At this island, called "Firando" on old maps, the English opened trade in 1614, attempting also agencies at Osaka, Yedo, Sakai, Kioto, Shidzuoka, and Uraga, and on Tsushima for the trade with Korea. The English factory did not follow the policy of their Dutch rivals, which was to do business as wholesale traders, selling to Japanese shop-keepers on a credit system; it wanted to sell directly to the consumer by means of its branch offices and agencies. The story, exceedingly interesting in detail and worthy of study, is one of failure. After ten years the enterprise was abandoned, and with it the hope of opening China also to trade. The only trace left on the spot of the former English factory at Hirado is part of the wall of the burial-place on a hill outside the town. Incidentally, on the subject of extra-territorial jurisdiction and its embodiment in modern treaties, our envoy, Mr. Townsend Harris, is fully justified by Sir Ernest Satow, British Minister and one of the first scholars in Japanese. Harris's action "was perfectly in accord with Japanese ideas." Prof. Ernest W. Clement opens a chapter in the feudal chivalry of Japan in his charming paper on the "Instructions of a Mito Prince to his Retainers." The subject is ably followed up by Mr. J. H. Gubbins in his too brief sketch of "Laws of the Tokugawa Period" (1604-1868). Mr. John Foster Fraser tells of his travels through upper Burma and western China. The appendices, discussions, and data concerning the Society are all of prime interest to the student of Japan.

JOHN BULL, PAINTER.

The Life and Letters of Sir John Everett Millais, President of the Royal Academy. By his son, John Guille Millais. With 316 illustrations. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1899. 2 vols., 8vo.

Sir John Everett Millais: His Art and Influence. By A. L. Baldry. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan Co. 1899.

These two books, the one mainly biographical, the other mainly critical, deal with the extraordinary career of an artist who, beginning as a rebel, ended as the official chief of British art, and who lived through a storm of savage criticism to become the most popular painter ever known, and the darling of the great British public. From "Johnny" Millais, P.R.B., to Sir John Millais, P.R.A., was a vast stride; and from the painter of "Ophelia" and "The Huguenot" to the painter of "Bubbles" seems, at first sight, an even longer one, though critics have differed as to its direction. To us, however, looking back from the vantage ground of the present, it seems certain that Millais was essentially the same from beginning to end, that his ultimate triumph was always assured, and that the only

wonder in the matter is, that it should have taken the British public so long to discover that he was the man for its money. As a matter of fact, it did not take the public as long to find this out as it did the critics, and the engraving of "The Huguenot" was selling like hot cakes while the press was snarling and snapping at the painter's heels.

John Everett Millais was born at Southampton, June 8, 1829, of a family of poor gentlefolk from the Island of Jersey, where much of his childhood was passed. He exhibited a remarkably precocious talent for drawing, and was taken to London at the age of eight to begin the serious study of art, entered the schools of the Royal Academy at ten, and had taken every prize that that institution offered to students before he was twenty. It was this pet of the schools, this predestined Academician, who in 1848 joined with the earnest but obscure Hunt and the flighty and untrained Rossetti to found the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and unfurled the banner of revolt against accepted methods of painting. Both the younger Millais and Mr. Baldry rate Millais's influence in founding the Brotherhood higher than has generally been done hitherto. Rossetti has been generally credited with the leadership, but this claim is scouted by the present writers, who consider him as rather an uncertain ally. As little as possible is said by either of them about Ford Madox Brown, who had begun to do Pre-Raphaelite work before the Brotherhood was heard of; and while Hunt's vigorous personality cannot be overlooked, the general impression is given that Millais was not only the most conspicuous figure in the fight that followed, but the real leader as well. The truth seems to be that Pre-Raphaelism was a very complex movement, compounded of Rossetti's poetic mediævalism, Hunt's religious mysticism, and Brown's naturalism and love of detail, and that it was only with this last that Millais had any real sympathy. His "Isabella" was influenced by Rossetti, and his "Carpenter's Shop" by Hunt; after that, his Pre-Raphaelism took a color of its own and became merely a manner of painting. He was much the most brilliant executant of the set and a splendid fighter, and therefore naturally bore the brunt of the opposition aroused by the movement.

There are, however, not wanting signs that the opposition was less serious than has been thought. The fact is lightly passed by, with scarce a mention, that in 1850, the year of "The Carpenter's Shop," when the "storm of execration" was at its loudest, Millais was elected an Associate of the Academy, and the election annulled only because it was discovered that he was not yet of the requisite age. In 1852 came "The Huguenot," the first picture definitely his own; and in 1853, when "The Proscribed Royalist" and "The Order of Release" appeared, the Academy capitulated. It had taken only five years to force its doors, and Millais was an A.R.A. at twenty-four. Meanwhile it is well to note that his pictures were almost invariably sold, and for what still seem very fair prices. The "bullying" of the press really did him no harm, and brought out Ruskin in his defence. He was the most discussed and therefore the most famous artist of the day. In his letters he grumbles much and talks of efforts to "put him down," and seems to dream of a conspiracy against him. The fact is, rather, that few young artists have had so easy and rapid a road to success.

As early as 1850 he had confided to W. Bell Scott that Pre-Raphaelism was "all nonsense," and that "one could not live doing that"; and in the same year he said to Mrs. Combe: "People had better buy my pictures now, when I am working for fame, than a few years later, when I shall be married and working for a wife and children." How far the fact that one "couldn't live doing that" influenced the change, it is hard to say, but it was within two years of his marriage that his break with Pre-Raphaelism began to show itself in "Sir Isumbras," and it was more clearly accented by "The Vale of Rest" and "Apple Blossoms" in 1859. For a time the fight was on again in all its fury, with Ruskin now at the head of the enemy. These pictures were still too Pre-Raphaelite for his old opponents, while they had ceased to be Pre-Raphaelite enough for his old friends, and nobody was pleased. The "Apple Blossoms," which seems to us one of his most artistic productions, was, perhaps, the most unpopular picture he ever painted. This time, however, the opposition collapsed even more quickly; "The Black Brunswicker" of the next year becoming vastly popular. In 1863 appeared "My First Sermon," the earliest of his pictures in what may be called his "Christmas *Graphic*" style, and he was made a full Academician at once.

Madox Brown lived and died an unsuccessful man. Rossetti was the painter of a clique and the founder of the æsthetic cult. Holman Hunt, by dint of dogged persistence and by his appeal to the religious sentiment, worked his way through long neglect to a partial popularity. Millais was, almost from first to last, a favorite of the British Philistine, because he saw with the eyes, thought with the brain, and felt with the soul of the average Briton. Mr. Baldry says, speaking of "Chill October" and its successors, "The unquestionable popularity that Millais gained by his excursions into landscape was certainly due to the fact that his observation was of the ordinary and everyday kind"; and a little later:

> "He never could be ranked among the inspired painters of the open air, nor could he ever be said to have dealt exhaustively with the problems presented by natural phenomena. He remained untouched by the subtleties of atmospheric effect, by the varieties of momentary illumination, or by the fleeting glories of aerial color, which provide the student of nature's devices with the chief incentive to artistic effort."

This is very acute criticism, and it is surprising that the author of it did not see that, in everything else as in landscape painting, Millais's "observation was of the ordinary and every-day kind," and that his phenomenal success was due as much to the fact that he never puzzled his public by seeing what it could not see, as to the fact that he saw and rendered what it did see with wonderful accuracy.

In the 'Life and Letters' we are given many illuminating glimpses of Pre-Raphaelite methods of study and production. The formula was something like this. One took a canvas into the country and found something that interested him as a background. Often the subject of the picture was still undetermined, and always the figures were, at most, lightly outlined on a white ground. Leaving a space for the figures, the background was painted "inch by inch," as Ruskin used to say. It might take months to complete, but changes of season mattered as little as changes of light, and the painter who could work eleven hours a day "under an umbrella throwing a shadow scarcely larger than a half-penny" without noticing that the sun had changed its position, was not likely to be bothered by the succession of blossoms. When the picture was "done, all but the figures," it was taken to London, and there, in a studio, the figures were painted with equal minuteness from life. And this was supposed to be truth to nature. It is not until "The Proscribed Royalist" that we hear of any effort to paint the figure in the same light as the landscape, the effort consisting in letting in the sun through a window. In this case Millais also rigged up a lay-figure on the spot to get the draperies right with their surroundings. He does not seem to have done the like very often. Brown's conscientiousness in painting out of doors in cold weather to get the purple color of the flesh was never much in Millais's line. The minuteness of finish Millais gradually abandoned. The painter who had said, in 1851, "Great success blunts enthusiasm, and little by little men get into carelessness, which is construed by idiotic critics into a nobler handling," could say of Ruskin in 1859, "He does not understand my work, which is now too broad for him to appreciate, and I think his eye is only fit to judge the portraits of insects"; but the change was in reality only a superficial one, and the "breadth" was that of brush-stroke only, not of point of view.

The truth is that Millais was, all his life, equally insensible to truth of values and beauty of tone; to the larger truths of nature as to the greater qualities of art. The lack of minute finish in his later work only renders more evident the limitation of view that was always there. It is not more essentially—only more visibly—artificial than his early work. But if Millais never had any sense of values, no more had he any feeling for composition or for drawing as such. He drew fairly well as regards accuracy to fact, but we see nothing in his work to show that he ever cared for line or form as a means of artistic expression. In fact, we do not think he ever cared for any purely artistic quality because it was artistic. He was a typical Englishman, with the Englishman's love of sport, of out-of-doors, of the family, and of sentiment. He loved a landscape because it was a good spot for fishing or shooting, an incident because it was heroic or sentimental, a woman because she was handsome, and a child because it was a pretty child; he never cared for or thought of what he could make of it in a work of art—the grace of an outline, the intricacy of a pattern, the dignity of a silhouette, or the harmony of tone and color. He looked at landscape like a game-keeper, and it has been said that he saw children "like a nursery-maid." In early days he enjoyed the minutiæ of realization, and in later days he revelled in the sleight-of-hand of suggestion, but it was always representation that he cared for, never art; and representation of mere fact, never of effect.

He has been much blamed for the falling off of imagination and invention in his later work—as we think, unjustly. He had never had much, and what little he had was illustrative, not pictorial, imagination. His tendency to produce his result with as little trouble as possible showed itself at least as

early as "The Huguenot." He had meant merely to paint two lovers, but Hunt persuaded him that the motive was not sufficiently dignified, and that some historical episode must be suggested. The white scarf did the business, and a picture resulted that took the public taste. As Mr. Monkhouse says, in 'British Contemporary Artists':

"The picture touched the dearest sentiments of the English, it appealed to their sense of beauty, to their affections, to their love of moral courage, and to their religious convictions. If Millais had thought it all out beforehand . . . he could not have chosen a subject more attractive to the visitors of the Royal Academy."

The type of picture once established was adhered to, and "The Huguenot" was followed by "The Proscribed Royalist," "The Order of Release," and "The Black Brunswicker." Gradually it dawned upon Millais that even this much of invention was more than was necessary, and that one figure and a title (if the figure were that of a pretty woman) would answer the purpose; and he painted "The Gambler's Wife" and "Yes or No." What did it matter? All he cared for himself was the model and the sleight-of-hand. "If I were a rich man," he said, "I would pay some one to paint pictures for me, and spend my time in putting high lights in the boots." His executive talent nearly reached the level of high art at times, and "The Yeoman of the Guard" and "Mrs. Bischoffsheim" are so brilliantly executed as to be nearly great. At worst it degenerated into a wormy, stringy handling that is distressing. On the other hand, his later attempts at grand art, such as "Jephthah" and "Victory, O Lord!" are lamentable failures. Better a hundred "Cherry Ripes" than one such Historical Picture. After all, there is subject enough in "Cherry Ripe" for a Sir Joshua, or even for a Velasquez, if only there were the artist eye to see it.

But if Millais was very little of an artist and only half a painter, he was an illustrator *pur sang*. Trollope said that 'Orley Farm' was the best illustrated of any novel ever published, and probably he was right. Millais's merits and faults equally helped to make him a good illustrator, and in Trollope he found the man he was best fitted to illustrate. The author gave the ideas, and the artist found the forms; and the more he was occupied with sheer representation and the less he bothered about composition, the better. All Millais's illustrative work shows his remarkable fitness to become eye and hand to another man's brain. He did not have persistent visions of his own which came between himself and the page, to lead him, as they led Rossetti, into fantastic embroideries upon the text. What Millais saw in his reading was just what the average Englishman sees there, and that he put down quite clearly and comprehensively. In Trollope he found a man of his own type—an average Briton like himself—and we have Trollope's own word for it that Millais's drawings are an exact transcript of what the author meant.

There was one other field in which Millais's preoccupation with representation rather than art, and with fact rather than with aspect, was of service to him—that of portraiture. The very greatest portraits are works of art also, but there is a level at which artistic preoccupation hinders veracity. Millais will not rank with the greatest portrait-painters, but at least he did not allow style or line or tone to stand between him and a clear perception of the sitter. In his portraits of women and children he did, indeed, allow the desire of prettiness to master him; but in his best portraits of men he is earnest and veracious, and some of England's greatest men will probably be remembered as he has represented them.

The late President of the Royal Academy always knew what his public liked, and always gave it them, while he had sufficient skill as a technician to merit and to retain the respect of his professional rivals. He was far from a great artist, but he was a most industrious and honorable man, and probably deserved all that he received. If there were, perchance, truer artists who were neglected while he succeeded, they had their reward in the doing of their work and the hope of a posthumous immortality, even if their portraits do not hang in the Uffizi.

The 'Life and Letters' is somewhat confusingly written, skipping back and forth and sometimes giving contradictory accounts of the same event; but it succeeds, on the whole, in drawing a clear picture of the cheery, hearty, determined, straightforward, eminently British personality of the man. Mr. Baldry's unpretentious little volume is quite definite in its presentation of his view of the artist, a view which we only partially share. The larger book is profusely illustrated, perhaps too profusely for the greatest glory of Millais, yet it needs supplementing here and there by reproductions only to be found in the smaller. More than once the 'Life' gives a fragment of a picture only, without warning that it is not the whole, and in one instance this is set right by the other book. Both are needed, and, from the two, aided by a faculty of reading between as well as in the lines, a clear conception may be formed of the most thoroughly English of modern painters.

McCRADY'S SOUTH CAROLINA.

The History of South Carolina under the Royal Government, 1719-1776. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1899. Pp. xxviii, 847.

Mr. McCrady has continued, in the present volume, the work begun with so much success in his earlier book on 'South Carolina under the Proprietary Government.' The volume now issued, covering the period from the end of the proprietary administration until the establishment of independence, is similar in plan and execution to its predecessor, and has much the same characteristics as a piece of historical workmanship. There is the same wide investigation, the same wealth of local detail, and the same pronounced loyalty to the State. If the later work is less interesting than the earlier one, the reason is to be found, doubtless, in the more noticeable absence of striking situations in the period dealt with, and the less direct bearing of events upon the general course of our history; but the service has been painstakingly performed, and Mr. McCrady's volumes are pretty certain to remain the authoritative history of the South Carolina colony for some time to come.

The historian of a State of the American Union has presented to him a difficult task. Few States have what may be called individuality—few, that is to say, have passed through such experiences as to give them a distinctive and well-marked character, or to invest their annals with a general interest apart from that which attaches to the career of the nation. The political affairs of any State other than one's own are commonly not viewed as matters of general concern. In every-day thinking there is a marked tendency to merge the State, as a political organism, in the larger life of the nation, and to estimate the importance of State affairs by the relation they bear to the common life of the whole people, rather than as, in and of themselves, matters of distinct and permanent importance. There are, however, exceptions to the rule, and South Carolina is one of them. Largely, no doubt, because of its prominent position in the great discussions over slavery, nullification, and secession, South Carolina has come to be looked upon as one of the foremost of the Southern commonwealths, possessing a certain distinction of character and manner which has tended to make its citizens South Carolinians first and Americans afterwards. It is manifestly of great advantage, therefore, to the historian to have for his subject a political unit which stands out conspicuously among its companions, and does not need constantly to be disentangled from a mass of wider interests in which its own identity is largely lost.

The characteristics which, operating through nearly the whole period of its history, have combined to give to South Carolina its peculiar prominence, are its unique social life, its system of slavery, and its attitude towards constitutional interpretation. The first and last of these, already outlined in Mr. McCrady's earlier work, are traced with additional wealth of fact and illustration in the present volume, though without, we think, adding materially to the former presentation. More than any other colony, South Carolina developed, from the beginning, at once a social class and a social caste. The social and political importance of Charleston, as the centre and source of provincial life, was not markedly lessened when the back counties came to be settled; and the political turbulence of the new settlements, and their long-time clashing with the provincial administration, were legitimate outgrowths of the centralized control and pervading indifference to changing conditions, which had marked the colony from the first. One misses, in South Carolina history, the voice of the people, the widespread discussion of politics and men, the surge and ferment of a political life in which the rights of one were the concern of all, that fill so large a place in the annals of a colony like Massachusetts. What we have, instead, is the political activity of a small, compact, and assertive ruling class, intelligent, zealous, and patriotic, knit together by intermarriage and community of interests, and dominating by their wealth, their aggressiveness, and their solidarity the political life of the province. It is the presence of this class which insures, for the genealogical details with which Mr. McCrady's volume is thickly strewn, so general a local acceptance; and it was this governing class, at once the State and the rulers of the State, which, more than any other one thing, gave to South Carolina its striking political complexion, and made it, in a larger sphere, once the way was cleared for it, so powerful and impressive a political force.

So, too, though in lesser degree, with con-

stitutional interpretation. Of the genesis of the strict-constructionist view of things, in the long struggle between the colony and the proprietors, Mr. McCrady has already given an acute and interesting exposition; and he does not add greatly to it in the volume before us. The times, however, had changed. With the transfer of the proprietary rights to the crown, the immediate occasion of difference was removed; and the disputes which soon began with the royal governors, while locally important, contributed little in the way of new principles of colonial opposition. As the breach with the mother country widened, however, the disposition to insist upon the letter as well as the spirit of colonial rights once more asserted itself; and the pretensions of King and Parliament came finally to be resisted in South Carolina on much the same lines as those on which the people had resisted the imposition of Locke's "Fundamental Constitutions."

The discussion of slavery in South Carolina, by a loyal son and prominent citizen of the State, could hardly fail to be of some importance; and Mr. McCrady's treatment of the topic, though brief, is of as much general interest as anything in his book. It was the distinction of South Carolina to be the only colony in which the negroes outnumbered the whites; and the horrors of its rice swamps, the severity of its slave code, and its devotion to slavery as a domestic institution worthy of all commendation, have been set forth in vivid colors by numerous writers. Bearing in mind the period of which he is treating, Mr. McCrady's statements do not tend to confirm the extreme views of slavery opponents. As he exhibits it, slavery in South Carolina was by no means unusually severe. The slave laws, while rigorous in terms, provided punishments for whites who should ill-treat, maim, or kill their slaves; and the evidence shows that the laws were enforced. While the large number of slaves emphasized the need of control, and doubtless gave to the customary slave code a degree of harshness not always found elsewhere, there does not seem to have been, in this early period, the pervading fear of negro uprisings sometimes represented; nor were the insurrections which occurred followed by any special increase of severity towards the slaves. A curious exhibition of confidence was given by the reënactment, in 1720, of a law of 1708 providing for the organization of a negro militia, and this on the heels of a recently attempted outbreak. As to the general condition and treatment of the slaves, there does not appear to have been any noticeable difference between South Carolina and the other colonies, save that the labor of rice cultivation was peculiarly exhausting, and shortened the average life and usefulness of the blacks.

It is partly, no doubt, because of its distinctive character, and partly because of its geographical location, that the history of South Carolina, during the sixty years covered by Mr. McCrady's volume, seems somewhat aside from the social and political life of the other colonies. About much of it there is an undeniable air of remoteness. Not until the Sugar Act and Stamp Act brought the beginning of the end, did South Carolina come into the close contact with the other continental colonies which ultimately made union possible; and, even then, one can but feel that the province follows rather than leads, and that the springs of organized resistance are elsewhere. The record, as here brought out, is as honorable as any; but South Carolina had not felt, or even imagined that it felt, the burden of restrictive parliamentary legislation as much as had some of its neighbors, and its incentive to protest and revolt was, in consequence, not so keen. As elsewhere, too, the aggressiveness of the Revolutionary party met, at first, but a languid response from the majority of the people; while the arbitrary enforcement of the non-importation agreement aroused the opposition of those who, while not averse to ultimate independence, shrank from an independence so rudely ushered in.

Mr. McCrady's book has, as we have said, the general traits of its predecessor. It has also, in the main, the same limitations and defects. Like most elaborate State histories, there is much attention to local happenings, and considerable allotment of space to matters of antiquarian interest. The strict chronological arrangement makes against the interest of the narrative, and renders it difficult, at times, to follow the main course of events. To any but an ardent South Carolinian, the reading of the book can hardly be other than a task. It is unfortunate, too, that the author should not have thought it worth while to assist the reader by some of the mechanical helps commonly thought essential to good bookmaking. In a volume of 800 pages, there are no chapter headings except dates, and no page headings save the repeated title of the book. There is, however, a good table of contents, which the earlier volume wanted, and a full index. The citations of authorities lack uniformity, and show occasional errors, due, apparently, to hasty proofreading. These are minor blemishes, however, and do not detract seriously from the merits of a work which can unhesitatingly be pronounced a valuable and needed addition to American historical literature.

The Stones of Paris in History and Letters. By Benjamin Ellis Martin and Charlotte M. Martin. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

There is, we are confident, no ironical purpose in the publication of two volumes which, on the eve of the Paris Exposition of 1900, declare, in the opening sentence of their introduction, that the work is in no wise intended for such as see in the Elysium of good Americans nothing more than a "city of shows." The magazine articles of which it is composed have already given prospective tourists some inkling of the *Paris inconnu, négligé*, which may be visited with profit at any hour between the *café au lait* of early morning and the *apéritif* of late afternoon. More comprehensive, as well as more ambitious, than Mr. Hare's useful guidebook to the antiquities of Paris, the present work seeks to vivify those fascinating streets by repeopling them with notable personages of history and fiction, and thus, if we may be allowed the figure, of masking the odor of modern asphalt with the aroma of historical and literary suggestion.

The topographical knowledge shown in this book is singularly wide and detailed. Hardly a step taken by its authors between Père Lachaise and the Bois, between the Butte Montmartre and the Observatoire, but opens up a vista on the interesting past; and, though making no profession of exhaustiveness, the long succession of stories contained in these volumes omits very little of permanent value to the completeness of the retrospect. We can readily imagine the pleasure of the intelligent traveller who, on substituting these volumes for the traditional red-covered handbook, discovers that the "Pension Vauquer" still exists in an objective tangibility as real as that of "Les Jardies."

Secure though they are on their own ground, the collaborators seem to have been less wary in their verification of assertions along the neighboring byways. This applies to fact and opinion concerning certain literary notabilities whose haunts are visited in these wanderings. Thus, in a chapter on "The Scholars' Quarter" (i., 93), it is said that Calvin "was induced by a daring relative to read the Bible, and the ultimate result was Calvinism, as it has been interpreted by his bigoted disciples," without any indication as to the direction and degree of the alleged divergence. We were under the impression that the 'Institution' is still the basis of Calvinistic theology. The well-known remark of Voltaire to Congreve, during the Frenchman's visit to England (1726), is here (i., 197) reported as having been addressed to Wycherley, who died in 1715. It may be true to declare that "slight trace is to be found of Jean-Jacques Rousseau in the Paris of to-day," but it argues a misconception of his influence to add that signs of it are equally absent "in the minds of men of to-day" (i., 206). On the same page we read that Rousseau sent his five children successively to the foundling hospital, "according to his own statement, which is our only reason for doubting that he did it." The testimony of a literary man regarding his own actions stands, it would appear, on a different footing from that of an ordinary witness in a court of law. We should further like to know on what authority it is said that of music "Rousseau knew nothing, except by the intuition of genius" (i., 206). Again, when reference is made (ii., 12) to the hissing of Sainte-Beuve by the students of the Collège de France (1854), it should be noted that, though the critic ascribed the misadventure to purely political motives, his own change of front towards the Romantic movement had aroused literary hostility in many of its younger energumens.

Errors, or slips of minor importance, for the most part easily avoidable, are noted in the following instances: Lancres (for Langres) as the birthplace of Diderot may be a misprint; but Saint Thomas of Aquinas is to us a new designation of the Angelic Doctor who immortalized Aquino. Chateaubriand's name never appears with a circumflex accent in any sound French authority. Lamartine, with all his slipshod style, was surely not guilty of exalting Charlotte Corday's heroic crime in such a barbarism as "l'ange de *l'assassination*." In magazine articles of this character it may seem hypercritical to insist on details of style and expression; still, when we read (i., 60) that Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, "loved maids-of-honor, and, indeed, paintings in general," the ambiguity of this quotation might, we should think, have provoked some comment from its too conscientious transcribers. When the latter give loose rein to their fancy, the reader may chance to be surprised with such a paraphrase of Mirabeau's celebrated aphorism (ii., 8) as the following: "A volcano is not to be squirted

cold by rose water." Given a small-sized volcano and unlimited rose-water, we should like to try the experiment.

But these volumes are, in other respects, an excellent means of preparation for an unconventional tour about Paris. They bring before one's very eyes a crowd of details, which, interesting though they are, find little space in guide-books, and none at all in the memory of the most garrulous courier; while the illustrative photographs and woodcuts give to description and narrative the welcome addition of concrete reality of presentation.

The History of the Great Boer Trek, and the Origin of the South African Republics. By the late Hon. Henry Cloete. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

Side-Lights on South Africa. By Roy Devereux. London: Sampson Low, Marston & & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.75. 1899.

The Hon. Henry Cloete was Commissioner for Natal in 1843-4, and, before and after that date, was prominent in the affairs of that colony. Between 1852-5 he delivered a number of lectures before a literary society in Pietermaritzburg, the substance of which is now reproduced by his grandson in this volume. At the present crisis, this statement of the origin of the conflict between the English and the Dutch is of no little value. It is, of course, free from the distorting passions which affect most of the publications now appearing on South African affairs; and while Mr. Cloete was a firm believer in the "paramountcy" of Great Britain, he gave a very fair account of the events that caused the Boers from time to time to submit and to rebel.

Mr. Cloete laid emphasis on the fact that the Boers were a pastoral people and a slaveholding people, and if it is considered what degree of civilization is attained before agriculture is regularly practised, much light is thrown on their history. When England acquired the Cape Colony, the Boers had been accustomed to receive grants of land for their "laagers," measuring from ten to thirty square miles. This policy not only removed the settlers from the influence of government, but also resulted in constant encroachment on the lands of the native tribes. Hence there was incessant friction on the frontier, and the British Colonial Office alternately defended the "pioneers," as such aggressive settlers have been called in this country, for the sake of the endangered Cape Colony, and, when the responsibility became too great, or the Government changed in England, took the part of the outraged natives. So things went till the great Kafir rising in 1834. This was put down by the British Government, which, however, refused to allow the claims for compensation made by the Boers, and the latter in disgust migrated in great numbers to Natal. From similar causes the trek into the Transvaal followed.

Into these particulars we need not enter further, but those who wish to understand the South African situation may well consult this authority, whose simple and slightly archaic style makes his lectures pleasant reading. We note that the account of one of the earliest defeats inflicted by the Boers on English troops, almost sixty years ago, reads like the reports now coming to hand of the recent surprises. We may also note, in the interest of historical accuracy, that Mr. Cloete was the person to whom some rather celebrated counsel was given. On his departure from England some one, whom he describes as "an eminent special pleader of Lincoln's Inn," said to him, "Now, Mr. Cloete, you have entered the law, and may possibly one day be elevated to the judicial bench. Allow me, therefore, to give you one friendly advice. Whenever you have to give your judgments, abstain as much as possible from giving your reasons; for your judgments may often be perfectly right, and yet your reasons altogether wrong." It only remains to determine the name of the "eminent special pleader" in order to put this often misquoted story on the footing that its merits deserve.

There is much good description of scenery in 'Side Lights on South Africa,' the authoress of which was correspondent of the *Morning Post*. Nor are her accounts of political and economic conditions undeserving of attention, her British prejudices being not offensively displayed. Her testimony is positive as to the unwillingness of the British Outlanders to accept the franchise in the Transvaal Republic. Their discontent was due to the fact that they chafed under Boer rule, and were determined to be free from it. Mrs. Devereux mentions incidentally numerous circumstances which show that it was not the oppressiveness of the Boer government which was the real grievance, but the fact that it was not British government. Of course, the exactions and restrictions of the Transvaal government are assigned as the cause of discontent, but there is a lack of specific charges. Concerning the high rates on freight, it is to be remembered that the Cape Colony exacts a heavy transit duty on merchandise passing through its limits.

Another fact mentioned by this writer deserves consideration. Mr. Rhodes's Chartered Company has the right to take one-half of the vendor's interest in every company organized for gold-mining. It has generally contented itself with 30 per cent., and to favored concerns it grants easier terms. Were such exactions practised at Johannesburg, the English press would ring with them. Mr. Rhodes has also formed a railroad combination intended to force the transportation of goods over his lines, instead of by the far shorter route by the east coast. In Kimberley Mr. Rhodes is an absolute ruler. The native workmen, when not below the surface of the earth, are confined in a strongly guarded pen. The whole development of Rhodesia may be said to depend on what is there called a proper supply of laborers, but which is really the maintenance of slavery.

On the whole, Mrs. Devereux's book is well written, and contains a good deal of information. Being made up of newspaper letters, it would be unreasonable to demand a very systematic arrangement of its contents.

L'Education au point de vue sociologique. By J. Elslander. Paris: H. Le Soudier. 1899.

M. Elslander is not the first to tell us that our system of education is all wrong, or to point out a road to its regeneration. His book has a certain vigor, thoroughness, and scientific air, however, which separate it from much that is written on the subject. While he shows faults in detail, he does not allow the reader to suppose, even for a little while, that these faults are attached to a structure fundamentally sound: the structure itself is the worst fault of all, the inevitable parent of all the rest. And this is so because our whole system of education, physical, intellectual, and moral, assumes certain conditions of society and educates children to conform to those conditions. Now *conformity* is the one word with which M. Elslander will have nothing to do in education, so far as it applies to anything but "Nature." The forces of "Nature" are beneficent in their effect upon the child always and everywhere, but restraint imposed by the hand or will of man is inevitably bad. The child's natural impulses are invariably good until they are perverted by impertinent interference in the name of education. These impulses themselves, not a predetermined programme, should be the guide in education; we should follow where they may lead, not try to make the child what we wish him to be. Develop every aptitude displayed, with no curbing whatever, and develop it just when and where it is displayed. All interference with the child's personality, all bumping against its egoism, is sure to do mental and moral injury.

The average reader will hardly fail to wonder whether M. Elslander has any children of his own, and, if so, just how he succeeds practically in steering as absolutely clear of conflict with their egoism as his book demands. Is it their natural disposition to want their faces washed and their clothing changed at about the right time? Certainly a large proportion of parents find serious and frequent occasion for conflict with the egoism of their children along this line. But possibly our notions as to clean faces and clothes are merely a product of a perverted and perverting civilization, not a part of the eternal fitness of things. Seriously, when one proposes absolute non-interference with natural impulses in education, and insists that his plan must be put in operation from earliest infancy, such points as these become of the deepest importance, and we can hardly let M. Elslander off from the charge of dodging when he ignores them.

Much as we should like to be convinced that there is a way to bring up children without any of the conflict that is usually so disagreeable to both sides, we must say frankly that this book justifies no such conviction. There are parts of it, however, which we wish that most parents and teachers might read. The thoughtful observer knows that many a child is curbed and fretted unnecessarily and harmfully in the home, that much of the work in the primary schools is stale and uninteresting and unprofitable. He knows that much of the moral instruction given is capricious and contradictory, that many of the answers to the questioning of morally perplexed children are mere evasions. He is well aware that the exercise of discipline has too often the practical effect of cultivating in the child the idea that it is all a matter of superior strength—that his own turn will come when he, too, has grown strong, and then the account will be evened up. The thoughtful observer knows all this, we say; but not all of us who have the responsibility of young children upon us, whether as parents or teachers, are thoughtful observers, and M. Elslander has put these things and others of the same nature in such a way that the reader can hardly pass lightly over them.

And their rehearsal is likely to have all the more effect when the reader sees how easily they may be turned into plausible premises for conclusions fundamentally repugnant to what he is apt to consider as the fundamental elements of a sound social organization. Or, to put the matter in another way, the asthor has given us an extremely suggestive book in a field where genuine, earnest thought is sorely needed; and he who does this does often a better service than one who writes a sound logical treatise which we may read without any mental or moral shock, and then neglect without any compunction of conscience.

The volume before us does not pursue the subject beyond the earlier years of the child's development. Of course so radical a revolution as is proposed needs to be elucidated clear through, and the author promises to complete the work in another volume.

E. T. A. Hoffmann's Sämtliche Werke, in 15 Bänden. Herausgegeben, mit einer biographischen Einleitung, von Eduard Grisebach. Leipzig: Max Hesse. 1899.

One of the most marked tendencies of contemporary European life might be designated as the return to Romanticism. What is Nietzsche's "Uebermensch" but a Wilhelm Heinse or Friedrich Schlegel redivivus? What is Maeterlinck but a new Novalis? What does this revelling of nearly all the most recent painters, poets, and dramatists in hazy, capricious, abrupt, symbolical conceptions—not to say hallucinations—mean but a reaction against the self-satisfied common sense of the Bismarckian age, an essentially Romantic attempt to go back of the world of appearances to the world of the great unknown, to the fleeting shadows and the unfathomable night of the infinite? Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that renewed popularity should have been brought to a writer who, after having profoundly influenced the imagination of the contemporaries of Heine, Victor Hugo, and Carlyle, seemed to be unable to hold his own in the realistic atmosphere of the last generation, a writer who may fairly be called the master, among the Romanticists, in the gruesome, erratic, and morbidly fantastic—E. T. A. Hoffmann, author of 'The Golden Pot' and 'The Devil's Elixir.'

It is only fair to add forthwith that this formula does not by any means express the whole of Hoffmann's literary character. It is a significant fact that three of the most artistic representatives of modern German realism—Friedrich Hebbel, Heinrich Seidel, and Gerhart Hauptmann—testify to the great stimulus which they received from him, and it is not too much to say that his true mental make-up consists of a most subtle combination of visionary, somnambulist imaginings with an unusually shrewd and wide-awake observation of actual life. To have demonstrated this double quality of Hoffmann's work constitutes the principal merit of an account of his life which was published in 1894 by Dr. Georg Ellinger ('E. T. A. Hoffmann, sein Leben and seine Werke,' Hamburg: L. Voss), the first biography of Hoffmann worthy of the name. Ellinger shows convincingly that Hoffmann's whole literary career was the continual struggle of a most sensitive artistic nature against the philistinism and æsthetic obtuseness of commonplace surroundings. Had his path been freer, had he not been obliged to fight first against desperate need, later against the miserable literary coteries of provincial towns, and finally against the narrow-minded bureaucracy of the Metternich régime, his literary development would probably have been much more normal, and less marred by intellectual eccentricities and antics. As it was, these eccentricities seemed the only possible outlet for his creative energy, and we can only regret that, instead of dissipating this energy in so many different directions, as story-teller, critic, composer, conductor, designer, fresco-painter, and jurist, he should not have concentrated it upon literature alone. Surely, he had the stuff in him for a great classical humorist; and some of his characters at least—above all, the melancholy, thoughtful, impassioned, and inspired Kapellmeister Kreisler, in whom Hoffmann seems to have embodied the best of his own self—take rank with the finest of Jean Paul's creations.

The present edition of Hoffmann's collected works opens with a biographical introduction by Eduard Grisebach, which, while adding hardly anything to Ellinger's book, gives a convenient summing up of its main results, and helps to bring out Hoffmann's personality by wisely selected passages from his correspondence. The works themselves are marshalled in chronological order from the 'Phantasiestücke in Callot's Manier' to the 'Neueste Schicksale eines abenteuerlichen Mannes' and other posthumous fragments; while the last volume contains a number of essays and sketches hitherto hidden in out-of-the-way periodicals or newspapers. Of the illustrations, the eight engravings after Callot, which are taken from the first edition of the 'Prinzessin Brambilla,' are particularly commendable. Altogether, this seems one of the most attractive and useful editions of Hoffmann that have thus far appeared.

The German Sectarians of Pennsylvania, 1708-1742. A Critical and Legendary History of the Ephrata Cloister and the Dunkers. By Julius Friedrich Sachse. Philadelphia: Printed for the Author. 1899. Octavo, xx+506 pages.

'Since 1881, when Pennypacker gave an account of the Ephrata Martyr-Book in the *Pennsylvania Magazine*, interest in Ephrata and Ephratana has increased with wonderful acceleration. It was soon ascertained that about fifty German books and pamphlets, previously unknown to collectors of Americana, had been printed during the eighteenth century by the Dunker Community of Ephrata, and a bookseller of Lancaster, Pa., issued catalogues offering some of these imprints at high prices. Seidensticker, in 1883, published the first comprehensive history of this singular sect, and gave the first critical analysis of its mystic theology. So great was the interest that Hark in 1889 was led to publish a translation of the 'Chronicon Ephratense.' Other investigators, chief among whom was Sachse, travelled from house to house through Lancaster and Lebanon Counties, and discovered manuscripts of much value, especially a roster of the celibates and a diary of the sisters' cloister. In 1892 a lot of type was turned up by the plough, and in 1898 more was found in the collar of one of the old community houses. Letters and pamphlets have been discovered in European archives, and many legends handed down by family tradition have been reduced to writing. From all these sources Sachse has produced a book of great interest to students of the religious history of colonial times. It is profusely illustrated with facsimiles of autographs, with initial letters and tail-pieces from the Ephrata manuscripts and books, as also with twenty-eight plates of portraits and buildings, and thirty-eight facsimiles of title-pages of rare books.

Seidensticker's work on the Ephrata Community ('Ephrata: Eine amerikanische Klostergeschichte,' Cincinnati, 1889) has never received the recognition it deserves. It is remarkable for its characterization of personages, is written from a broad, philosophic standpoint, and is invaluable for its thorough analysis of the mystic theosophy promulgated by the magnetic Conrad Beissel. The monks and nuns of the Ephrata cloisters are set forth as actors on a stage where the play was real to them, while to Seidensticker it was merely an exhibition of human nature, guided and swayed by the impulses of a peculiar religion and the circumstances of environment. To him the monastic community was an interesting phenomenon, that rose, flourished, and died without exerting material influence on the morals or theology of the people of Pennsylvania. Sachse's work, on the other hand, makes Ephrata the central feature of German influence in Pennsylvania during the eighteenth century. Mennonites, Lutherans, Reformed, Schwenkfelders, and Moravians are mentioned and briefly discussed, but these revolve like satellites around the central planet of the Seventh-day Dunkers at Ephrata. Sachse excels Seidensticker in detailed descriptions. The rise of the cloister buildings is minutely explained; scenery is painted vividly; we hear the tolling of the midnight bell and the whistling of the winter wind. His knowledge of bibliography is wide and thorough; matters of family relationship are set forth painstakingly, and numerous legends appear now for the first time in print. Yet it must be said that, in characterization, in critical analysis, and in a certain appropriate philosophic sarcasm, Seidensticker's modest work holds the higher place.

In truth, the influence of Conrad Beissel and his teachings was but slight. Even in the height of the prosperity of the cloister its celibate inmates numbered only about eighty, and the total number of adherents to the faith was probably less than 300. The Mennonites were counted by thousands, and the same was true of the Lutherans and Reformed. The Moravians, though few in number, exerted an influence, on both the colony and the Indians, beside which that of Ephrata was insignificant. Ephrata deserves attention as a phenomenon, both social and religious, but so isolated was it that its work had become almost forgotten in the early years of the nineteenth century. Its quaint monastic life, its peculiar Biblical theosophy, and its publications, all of which were due to its founder, Conrad Beissel, have made it, however, of greater interest than its actual influence would warrant. He who likes to lose himself in reverie over the deeds and thoughts of a cloister life of a century and a half ago will find full opportunity when reading the charming chapters of Sachse.

The book has its defects, like everything in this imperfect world. The principal title is misleading, but this, perhaps, is corrected by the sub-title. The statement that Ef-rā-taaw indicates the pronunciation of Ephrata does not agree with our experience. Errors of the printer are found on pages 354 and 414, the latter being inexcusable, as it occurs in a well-known passage of Scripture. Several statements that appear for the first time are not properly justified; for example, we should be glad to know the authority for the details of the initiation said to have been practised by the Zionitic brotherhood, as also the authority for designating the sisterhood as the "Order of Spiritual Virgins." These points will perhaps be explained in the second volume, which is to cover the period 1743-1800; in this period the Ephrata publications appeared, the community attained its maximum prosperity, then declined and died.

Text-Book of Vertebrate Zoölogy. By J. S. Kingsley, Professor of Zoölogy in Tufts College. Henry Holt & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 447; illustrated.

Text-books and manuals compiled from publications of original research bring the rapidity of scientific progress forcibly to mind. If at all comprehensive, as they leave the press they are behind the times, which is the more to be regretted if contents and presentation are of particular value. The present work, one of the best of its kind, is not an exception; and, beyond the unavoidable omission of many later advances, it may also be criticised for features that could readily have been changed with advantage to both author and readers. We refer to matter selected many years ago to which more recent modifications have not been applied. The classification, likewise, is not up to present demands, and will hasten displacement in favor of works better adapted to modern records. Another drawback to usefulness is the omission of bibliographical references and bibliography. Desire to examine the sources of information necessitates transfer of attention to works less chary of hints that all of vertebrate zoölogy is not included in their pages. Opportunities for fault-finding are extended by mistakes in identification, incorrect illustrations, and credits wrongfully given or omitted entirely—the last not so objectionable, perhaps, in a case like that of a skull with bisected maxillaries and obliterated lachrymals. The proofreader may be charged with slips like a "rental portal system," a "ductus curvierii," or a "See Lamprey," but a greater amount of abnormal orthography in a particular section, repeated in the index, tells of unfamiliarity with the subjects, thus: "Malapterus," "Hyperotretia," "Tutidanus," "Champosaurus," "Opoderodonta," "Telosaurus," "Sphrynidae," "Chordediles," etc. Occasional inexact statements are to be noted, as in case of the snakes, for instance.

Comparatively, the errors are few and of minor importance. Averaging the entire volume, this is a text-book of a high degree of excellence; it is better in the half pertaining to vertebrate morphology, containing the author's specialties of investigation, and less to be commended in that relating to classification of vertebrates. Prof. Kingsley's long experience as an instructor has enabled him to bring together in the best shape for teaching a great amount of material of which teachers and pupils will be glad and prompt to avail themselves.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, W. The Diuturnal Theory of the Earth. New York: Myra Andrews & E. G. Stevens. $3.50.
Biographical Sketch of Major-General John Sedgwick. Privately printed.
Brière, G., and Caron, P. Répertoire Méthodique de l'Histoire Moderne et Contemporaine de la France pour 1898. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Edition.
Cartwright, Julia. Beatrice d'Este of Milan. A Study of the Renaissance. London: J. M. Dent.
Catherwood, Mary H. Spanish Peggy. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Crane, F. The Religion of To-morrow. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Crowninshield, Mrs. S. San Isidro. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Eddy, Sarah J. Friends and Helpers. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Firth, C. H. The Clarke Papers. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co.
Gage, Matilda J. Woman, Church and State. New York: Truth Seeker Co. 75c.
Gannett, Rev. W. C. Of Making One's Self Beautiful. Boston: James H. West Co. $1.
Hay, J. Sir Walter Scott. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Hayes, J. R. Swarthmore Idylls. Wilmington, Del.: J. M. Rogers Press. 75c.
Hazell's Annual for 1900. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney. 3s. 6d.
Hennessey, J. D. A Lost Identity. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Herford, Oliver. An Alphabet of Celebrities. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Hobart, Mary E. The Secret of the Rothschilds. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 10c.
Hoby, Sir T. The Book of the Courtier. From the Italian of Count B. Castiglione. London: David Nutt. 18s.
Holden, E. S. Elementary Astronomy. Henry Holt & Co.
Holmes, T. R. Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul. Macmillan. $6.00.
Hooker, John. Some Reminiscences of a Long Life. Hartford, Conn.: Belknap & Warfield. $1.75.
Howells, W. D. Their Silver Wedding Journey. Harpers. 2 vols. $5.
Hudson, T. J. The Divine Pedigree of Man. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Kipling, R. From Sea to Sea. Letters of Travel. Scribners.
Knowlson, T. S. The Art of Thinking. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. Judea from Cyrus to Titus. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Lawrence, Ida E. Day-Dreams. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Lee, Prof. G. C., and Carroll, Prof. M. Orators of Ancient Greece. Putnams. $3.50.
Letters of David Ricardo to Hutches Trower and Others. Edited by J. Bonar and J. H. Hollander. Henry Frowde. 7s. 6d.
Macaulay, G. C. The Complete Works of John Gower. Vol. I. The French Works. Henry Frowde. 16s.
Meyer, Prof. O. E. The Kinetic Theory of Gases. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Nabuco, J. Um Estadista do Imperio: Nabuco de Araujo. Sua Vida, sua Opinioes, sua Epoca. 3 vols. Paris: H. Garnier.
Nova Anthologia Oxoniensis. Translations into Greek and Latin Verse. Edited by Prof. R. Ellis and Prof. A. D. Godley. Henry Frowde.
Origins and Issues. London: The Chiswick Press. 3s. 6d.
Peaslee, J. B. Thoughts and Experiences in and Out of School. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings. $1.50.
Phillips, W. S. Just About a Boy. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Rawnsley, Rev. H. D. Sonnets in Switzerland and Italy. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Ripper, W. Steam-Engine Theory and Practice. Longmans, Green & Co.
Sawyer, Edith A. Mary Cameron. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co.
Shakespeare, W. King Richard II. Cassells. 10c.
Shelby, Annie B. Standard Whist. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.
Sherratt, Harriott W. Mexican Vistas. Rand, McNally & Co.
Statham, Rev. S. P. H. The History of the Castle, Town, and Port of Dover. Longmans, Green & Co.
Taylor, E. R. Moods and Other Verses. San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard. $1.25.
Thorold, W. J. Near the Throne. Meyer Bros. & Co.
Trübner, Dr. K., and Mentz, Dr. F. Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1900.

The Week.

Senator Hoar rendered an important service to the cause of human freedom by the few words of reply which he uttered at the conclusion of Senator Beveridge's speech on Tuesday week. Although he had announced his purpose to make a set speech on the subject of the debate, he saw the importance of pricking without delay the gas bag that the Indiana Senator had been so long inflating. This was done neatly and effectively by calling attention to the fact that, in the whole of Mr. Beveridge's address, so carefully prepared and printed and distributed before delivery, the words *right*, *justice*, *duty*, and *freedom* were wholly wanting. He went on to say that "practically every statement of fact in Senator Beveridge's speech was refuted by reports received from Admiral Dewey, Gen. Otis, and other official sources." This was a most sweeping statement, justifiable only by knowledge of the existence of reports from those officers which have not yet been made public. That such documents exist, or that Senator Hoar believes they exist, was made manifest by the resolution of inquiry which he at once introduced, asking for copies of all official communications to or from Aguinaldo or any other person commanding or representing the forces in hostility to the United States in the Philippines. In a subsequent letter, Senator Hoar makes more definite reference to this unpublished correspondence, saying that he has himself read some of these letters, and that they establish the fact that Aguinaldo is an honest, patriotic, and brave man, and is the chosen leader of the Philippine Islands. From other sources the report has gained currency that, at the time when the President sent his proclamation to the Filipinos which Gen. Otis altered on account of its incendiary character, peace had been practically secured. It has been rumored of late that the naval and military authorities in the Philippines, before the President's proclamation was received, were on the point of coming to an arrangement with Aguinaldo, by which hostilities would have been avoided altogether. If such are the facts, then the responsibility for all the waste of blood and treasure that has taken place since we bought or took the islands, rests on William McKinley.

Senator Beveridge has received a second lashing from the Republican side of the chamber, and from an unexpected quarter. Senator Wolcott took the same line of criticism as Mr. Hoar in a rather more picturesque manner. The immoral character of Beveridge's discourse on the wealth of the Philippines upon which we were to gorge ourselves, was held up to indignant scorn, and his highfalutin rhetoric was riddled with merciless sarcasm. Mr. Wolcott was not wholly free from highfalutin himself, but it was of a better kind that Beveridge's. He gave his attention also to the pretentious talk about the glory we were to acquire from an honest administration of the Philippine government. "With the municipal corruption that all admitted existed, it was ridiculous," he said, "to talk of appointing a lot of Indiana politicians in the Philippines and letting the reflected glory of the republic shine across the seas." It is true that Mr. Wolcott favors holding the Philippines as a matter of duty, or what he considers to be duty, but his exposure of the moral turpitude of Beveridge's plea for pelf was something for which he deserves hearty thanks.

Senator Beveridge unconsciously put a knife into the very midriff of the Administration when he declared that we must hold Manila in order thence to "command the trade of China." Then what has all the boasting been about, in connection with the "open door" in China? Are the diplomatic laurels to be plucked all green from Secretary Hay's brows? We have been assured over and over again that the Administration, by obtaining an international agreement for equality of trade privileges throughout the whole Chinese Empire, had already commanded the trade of China. Secretary Wilson was glorying in it publicly only the other day. England has been congratulating us on our great diplomatic achievement. No one said a word about Manila in the whole business. But now comes this tall talker of the Wabash and pours despite on the entire affair. If we do not hold Manila, that Chinese trade is for ever gone, he says, which the Administration had just informed us was for ever secured in quite another way. But the Indiana Senator seems to have a certain natural awkwardness in support of his friends.

The influence of the political "pull" in the relations of the national Government with the banking business of the country is clearly illustrated in the revelations regarding the selection, a few months ago, of the Seventh National Bank of this city as the depository of the post-office funds, in place of the Chase National Bank, which had long acted in that capacity. Those interested in banking observed that some changes were made in the Seventh National Bank last year, the most significant of which was the accession as a director of Perry S. Heath, First Assistant Postmaster-General, and the selection of his brother, Fletcher S. Heath, as its Vice-President. As these Indianians had never become prominent in the banking business, those who knew Perry S. Heath as a "hustler" at once concluded that he was capitalizing his political influence, rather than his knowledge or experience as a financier. This has now been proved. The statutes enable the Post-office Department, instead of the Treasury, to select the bank in which its funds shall be kept, and the First Assistant Postmaster-General soon took this privilege from the Chase National, and gave it to the bank of which Perry S. Heath was a director and his brother the Vice-President. The President of the Heath bank, William H. Kimball, was perfectly frank in explaining the matter to a *Herald* reporter on Friday. He is quoted as saying:

> "It is a case of business competition, and political influence counts. The man who can pull the most wires successfully often wins."

The bearing of all this upon the question of our expansion policy is plain and important. The spread-eagle orator from Indiana said in the Senate, the other day, that "the men we send to administer civilized government in the Philippines must be themselves the highest examples of our civilization"; that no one need "fear that our party workers will seek to fill these places without regard to fitness"; but that "I know well this most maligned and most valuable class of American citizens, the precinct committeemen and party workers in the country districts of the republic; and if we truthfully, bravely state the situation at the outset, these very politicians will insist most strenuously of all on the highest possible qualifications in the administration of our possessions." Senator Beveridge, of course, speaks of his own State. Perry S. Heath is the most prominent Republican party worker in Indiana. He has already shown that he considers it entirely proper for the First Assistant Postmaster-General to act as chairman of a national partisan committee, to "take a week off" in order to manage the Republican side of the fight for the control of Kentucky, and to get himself and his brother into the directorate of a New York bank, with a view to using his place in the department to secure favors for that bank. Was ever anything more ridiculous than the claim that the Perry S. Heaths, who insist upon having the offices at home and running them on the basis of the political "pull," will insist upon model adminis-

tration in managing the government of the Philippines?

How to get Cuba annexed to the United States with the least amount of trouble from the Cubans, and with the smallest apparent violation of the promises made by our Government, is the evident aim of the committee on colonial relations of the Senate, if we may credit a Washington telegram in the *Sun*. The committee, it says, will visit Cuba to learn from actual observation how much time will be required to bring the island under the influence of American ideas and American methods. The journey will be made in February. The telegram continues:

> "It is evidently the prevailing sentiment among the members of this committee that the annexation of Cuba will ultimately result, and perhaps at no distant day. In the meantime, the Cubans will enjoy that independence promised them in the resolutions of Congress which brought on the war with Spain. According to one member of the committee, annexation will be brought about by a perfectly natural process of transition."

It is to be hoped that the committee will include in their inquiries the question, how much time will be required to bring American institutions under the influence of Cuban ideas and Cuban methods. Under our form of government political action and reaction are equal. The "pull" which Cuba will have on the United States will be, like the pull of the planets on each other, in proportion to her mass. On this subject read the speech delivered by ex-Gov. Boutwell at the anti-imperialist meeting in Washington on Thursday evening.

The report comes from Washington that Quay's case and Clark's case for seats in the Senate are somehow joined together. If they are not joined, they ought to be. Both represent the very worst side of American politics. Quay has been known and read of all men for twenty years. His character has been established "from way back." Clark is a new comer, and it appears from the testimony taken in his case that a seat in the Senate from Montana goes to the highest bidder for cash, and is obtainable in no other way. The revelations made in this case are positively sickening. They are as bad as the stories we read of Roman elections in the last days of the republic. It is related, as the acme of corruption at that time, that a deposit was once made of 800 talents to secure the consulship. We should judge that this had been done in Montana to seat Clark, and that 800 more had been deposited to unseat him.

Mr. Kasson encounters difficulties in explaining the advantages of the reciprocity treaty with France to the Senate committee on foreign relations. He seems to have made a very painful impression by remarking that in the tariff act of 1897 many of the rates were intentionally made higher than necessary, in order to render it easier to negotiate reciprocity treaties. A number of prominent Congressmen are reported to have declared such a statement wholly unwarranted. They are shocked at the idea that Congress should have been actuated by such mercenary considerations. Mr. Kasson may have been rather blunt in his language, but really the tariff act speaks for itself. It provides that, "with a view to secure reciprocal trade," treaties may be made with foreign countries, which, in consideration of the advantages to the United States of tariff concessions by those countries, shall reduce the duties that we impose on the importation of some of their products. These treaties are to be made "with a view to the arrangement of commercial agreements in which reciprocal and equivalent concession may be secured in favor of the products and manufactures of the United States." It is preposterous to contend that the rates in our tariff were not determined with reference to this contingency. The people who settle our tariff duties are not so guileless as to have adopted rates without thinking of the possibility of reciprocity treaties. Of course they will oppose any reductions by treaty or legislation, but they need not pretend that the tariff was not framed with the prospect of "reciprocal and equivalent concessions" distinctly in view. The only tenable ground is to assert that the concessions to be obtained from France are not "equivalent" to those to be made by the United States.

The mind of the ordinary protectionist must be painfully confused by the exigencies of imperialism. The President's message bore a startling resemblance to a Cobden Club essay, and the Republican papers are filled with insidious representations of the benefits of free trade, Beyond question the mainstay of protection in this country has been the belief that the high standard of living attained by American labor was due to the tariff. Protective duties excluded the products of cheap labor and gave the American market to American labor. But here is the New York *Tribune* publishing views completely subversive of the protectionist faith. It prints an interview with a Gen. Stone, who goes so far as to ridicule the cheap-labor argument, to sneer at the tariff, and to insinuate that free trade with our new conquests is something required by philanthropy and the Christian religion. This renegade protectionist, who professes to have "stood by protection to American labor through thick and thin," says that the argument that "one-half the people in Puerto Rico live on 5 cents a day or less" is convincing only to stupid people. However correct this statement may appear from our point of view, it is evident that a sincere protectionist ought to regard it as highly esoteric doctrine. It is profaning the mysteries to give it publicity. Gen. Stone says that the American workman might like to have an orange, or a banana, or a pineapple, or a good cigar to smoke without paying the price of a Havana. "He might even like to have fresh winter vegetables without paying the hothouse price, but he finds that tobacco and vegetables are not worth raising in Puerto Rico, and delicious fruits not even worth picking because of the high tariff here, while American flour, meat, and manufactures are shut out from the island by the tariff which we impose there." It is certainly doubtful if a paper which prints such underhand attacks on the tariff as this ought to be allowed in a protectionist household.

In order to avert a suspension of building operations in Chicago, the labor unions have abandoned many of their extravagant demands. Affairs had come to such a pass that builders no longer dared to take contracts, not knowing in what losses future orders of the walking-delegates might involve them. Not only were they required to employ union labor and to use union material, but that material had to be of home production, regardless of the fact that better goods could be purchased from outside the city at less cost. On top of that, the unions claimed the right to determine the maximum amount of labor which their members should do in a day, at a price fixed by themselves. It was an attempt to arbitrarily provide work for everybody at good wages, and it nearly resulted in throwing all the building trades workers out of employment. By the agreement now made between the unions and the contractors, the latter are free to get their material anywhere, always provided that it is of union production, while the matter of unreasonable restrictions upon the amount of work done, and questions of apprentices, of sympathetic strikes, and of the usurpation of walking-delegates, are to be referred to arbitration. The unions retain, among other things, the "right" to fix the wage scale, but they have surrendered much. Even a Labor Trust has limitations, albeit it does not fear the Attorney-General.

Louisiana Republicans think that they see in Democratic disaffection over the nomination of Heard for Governor, at the dictation of Gov. Foster, an opportunity for something more than a forlorn-hope campaign. The situation is much the same as in 1896, when a coalition of the Republican factions with the Populists nearly overthrew the Democrats, and an attempt is making to renew that coalition. An agreement for united primaries and conventions has

been entered into between the Regulars and the Sugar Republicans, the line of division between which factions appears to have been nearly wiped out by the Democratic disfranchisement of the illiterate negroes. With no longer any fear of negro domination in the State, the Sugar Republicans, many of whose leaders are seceders from the Democratic party on protection grounds, and who have shown hitherto all the Southern Democrat's antipathy to the negro in politics, now argue in favor of welcoming to the party fold the intelligent negroes left on the registry lists. They have surrendered their title to the appellation of "Lily-White Republicans," the primary call just issued by their committee inviting all Republicans, "without distinction as to race or color." There are many men of character and standing in this organization, and out of it may perhaps come what some intelligent Democrats foresaw in negro disfranchisement—the creation of a strong opposition party which disaffected Democrats may join without losing caste.

The reports of the Mazet committee have been so thoroughly discounted in advance that only a languid interest is felt in the full text. The majority, of course, try to unload the full responsibility for the present misgovernment of New York city upon Tammany. The character of the administration is fairly summarized when it is styled "the most perfect instance of centralized party government yet known; government no longer responsible to the people, but to a Dictator; the central power, not the man who sits in the Mayor's chair, but the man who stands behind it; the powers of government prostituted to protect criminals, to demoralize the police, to debauch the public conscience, and to turn governmental functions into channels for private gain." But it is hardly a fair implication to give the impression that "a majority of the voters of Greater New York are satisfied with the present system, theory, and practice of government." The present administration represents a minority of the voters. More than 300,000 ballots were cast for Mayor in 1897, of which Van Wyck received only 143,666, or more than 6,000 short of half. The followers of Seth Low, Benjamin F. Tracy, and Henry George cast a total of 155,916 votes, and everybody familiar with the facts knows that the hearty support of Low by the Republican machine would have elected him.

The investigation into the affairs of the State Trust Company has revealed the interesting fact that "Lou" Payn, not a great while ago, borrowed from that institution $435,000. This loan was made to a man against whom judgments had been filed, over and over again, from his early manhood in 1859 down to within less than three years of his appointment as Superintendent of Insurance in this State in 1897. Some of these judgments had not been satisfied when he assumed office. Payn, of course, insists that the securities which he furnished as a basis for this loan were good, but the better they were, the greater the surprise that a man with such a financial record before becoming head of the Insurance Department early in 1897 should enjoy this high rank among capitalists before the end of 1899. Quite aside from any question of Payn's character and standing before his appointment by Gov. Black, what impression must be made upon the public mind by the discovery that an official occupying such a fiduciary position as that of Insurance Superintendent is engaged in great speculative schemes?

Mr. Dorman B. Eaton could hardly have made a better disposition of the sums left by him to Harvard and Columbia Universities, than by his requirement that they be used in founding professorships in the science of government and municipal administration. In this department at Harvard there has for years been a particular weakness, which has not failed to attract attention, and has led students of civics to seek other colleges for what they could not find in the Cambridge curriculum. There could be no more fitting time than the present to endow a professorship to "vindicate and strengthen" the "great principles upon which our national Constitution is based," and to point out "the obligations of the moral law and of patriotic endeavor in party politics and all official life." Nor could any better place be found than a college in the city of New York in which to found a chair to "gather municipal wisdom from the most enlightened cities," and to make good city government "the ambition and endeavor of the worthiest citizens." It is truly gratifying that the influence of a man who, from the purest of motives, devoted his life to the betterment of the governments under which he lived, should continue to be felt in institutions to which the country must look for some of its most ardent reformers and patriotic citizens.

A very desirable reform has at last been adopted by the Government in the matter of the charges of the Assay Office for gold bars. Hereafter these bars will be furnished by the Assay Office at a charge of four cents per $100, instead of ten cents. The charge was raised to ten cents some years ago on the theory that gold might thus be kept in the country. The reasoning of the Treasury officers was that, by making it expensive to obtain gold bars, the sordid bankers who wanted to export gold when it was needed here would be balked. They would find their miserable profit cut off by the charge for gold bars, while they would be kept from exporting coin by the loss from abrasion which would appear when the coin was melted in foreign mints. This petty expedient for maintaining the solvency of the United States Treasury was on a par with the device anciently resorted to in times of panic in England, of paying depositors in sixpences. There is nothing better in Adam Smith's writings than the chapter in which he examines the effect of the export duties on specie formerly imposed in Spain, and demonstrates the futility and the positive mischief of all such measures. The charge of ten cents per $100 for gold bars no doubt discouraged their export; but coin was exported instead, and the Government was, therefore, put to the expense and waste of coinage, to say nothing of the charges for transporting bullion and coin between New York and Philadelphia. It raised its charge for a service which cost it very little, and was compelled by its own act to render services which cost it a good deal. No one pretends that the movement of gold was checked by this paltry measure, and it is hardly necessary to say that it did not increase confidence in the solvency of the Treasury. When a man is found to be taking steps to stave off his obligations, his credit is not improved. We may reasonably expect that the beginning of the next century will find the Government permanently relieved from the temptation to resort to such contemptible means for maintaining its solvency.

The English Government appears to have receded from its first contention that food is contraband of war. That we take to be the meaning of its release of the cargoes of American flour, and its announcement that it will not regard provisions as contraband "unless intended for the enemy." By the enemy is meant armed opponents in the field. Food for the enemy's country is another thing. It is legitimate to try to reduce men in arms by cutting off their supplies, but not to starve non-combatants. If such is the scope of the decision arrived at, we regard it as a great gain for international law, and a wise thing for England. The status of food in time of war has been unsettled, and the present deliberate action of Great Britain in taking it definitively off the contraband list will go far toward settling universal practice. England's own interest is transparently against treating provisions as contraband. Lord Rosebery wrote to the London *Times* on December 28, referring to the "disquieting intimations" that the Government was treating food-stuffs as contraband, and calling for "an authoritative statement" on the matter of such "supreme importance." He has now got it, and it is to the effect that England does not propose to take a position which might result in her being starved in case of war with a country owning a first-class navy.

EX ORIENTE LUX.

A flood of light on the Philippine intrigue is thrown by Admiral Dewey's report to the Navy Department, dated Hong Kong, March 31, 1898. It was published for the first time on Thursday, having been sent to the Senate by special request. Dewey, like the careful officer he was, had thoroughly investigated the state of the Spanish defences at Manila, and expressed his confidence that he could reduce them and put the city at his mercy in a single day. He did exactly that one month later. It was, of course, strictly in the line of his duty to inform his Government respecting the military situation, and the Navy Department would have been inexcusable if it had not, at the time it telegraphed Dewey, been making up its mind what to do if war broke out. But the significant, the critical part of Dewey's report is this: "There is every reason to believe that, with Manila taken or even blockaded, the *rest of the islands would fall* either to the insurgents or ourselves."

Now it is not too much to say that this sweeps completely away the defence of our Philippine adventure which has been made by the President and his most ardent supporters. What is that defence? Why, that when the war began, this Government never dreamed of annexing the Philippines. Dewey was sent only to destroy the Spanish fleet. That was a perfectly legitimate operation, as both a blow to the military power of our enemy and a means of protecting our Pacific Coast. But, to the surprise and almost to the consternation of the President, he found that it would not do to recall Dewey's squadron; that he must send troops; that he must take Manila and occupy Luzon, and that then, led on strangely by Destiny and Providence, he must, with many misgivings, much against his will, and in obedience only to a lofty sense of national duty, instruct our Paris Commissioners to demand cession of the whole archipelago. This is no caricature of Mr. McKinley's account of his Philippine stewardship. Read what he said in Boston on February 16, 1899: "The Philippines were intrusted to our hands by the providence of God. It is a trust we have not sought."

In the light of Dewey's report this now sounds uncommonly like a devout explanation by Ah Sin that the twenty-four packs in his sleeves found their way there providentially. Here was the Commodore of the squadron writing three weeks before war was declared. In answer to inquiries from his Government, he distinctly foreshadowed the seizure of the whole group. "The rest of the islands would fall either to the insurgents or ourselves." This was in the hands of the Administration at the very time when it was asserting that the occupation of the islands was a pure afterthought, a dire military necessity unforeseen, an unexpected command of God. What can we say now of such talk except that it was sheer hypocrisy? There have been many hints and indications before that the annexation of the Philippines was a part of the Administration programme from the very first. People in the confidence of Admiral Dewey and Assistant Secretary Roosevelt, as he then was, have smiled knowingly over the theory that nobody ever dreamed of our taking the Philippines. But now we have the first official document proving that the thing was contemplated from the beginning. Is it any wonder that when Senator Sewell went to the President and begged him to order Dewey to sail away after the battle of Manila Bay, lest complications arise and we be compelled to take over the islands, Mr. McKinley refused to comply? Dewey was there precisely in order to make the islands "fall to ourselves," and the President knew it. He had a sure inkling of the vast designs of Providence in that matter, because he had been acting in the spirit of the old Puritan who said, when some one piously sighed, "Well, God mend all!" "Nay, we must help him to mend it!"

Only less important than Dewey's report is the official "Report of Tour through Island of Luzon" made in November, 1898, by two naval officers of Dewey's squadron, and only now given to the public. Senator Hoar succeeded in extracting this valuable document from the Navy Department, and getting it printed in the *Congressional Record*. It is endorsed by Admiral Dewey as "the most complete and reliable information obtainable," and it is no exaggeration to say that it completely snuffs out the speech of Senator Beveridge. These naval officers, Messrs. Wilcox and Sargent, travelled for six weeks in the interior of Luzon, and discovered such evidences of general intelligence and education, and good order and respect for the law, and patriotic aspiration, that the record is one, we should think, to bring a blush even to the cheek of the superior Lodge, who was again arguing last week that the Filipinos are but a set of savages, who ought to be only too happy to have us come and kill them in a civilized way.

What is most encouraging about the whole situation is that light is beginning to dawn. Whenever the cover is taken off the Philippine iniquity, a fresh set of its defenders are struck dumb. Every new document which the Administration can be forced to publish is practically a new exposure of blundering or worse. More official reports are to come. Gen. Otis's report, which so clearly convicts the President of being the one man responsible for the war with the Filipinos, speaks of naval reports or representations made from Manila in December, 1898. What were they? Was one of them a report from Dewey which, it has been alleged, the President quite disregarded and so floundered into his war? We shall soon know, for the Senate has asked for all the documents in the case, and if the Government does not give them up, its silence will be, like suicide, a confession. In any case, the policy of secrecy and suppression is evidently drawing to its end. It is a most righteous "itch to know things" which the country at present has regarding these Philippine mysteries; and the sooner we get to the bottom of the affair, the sooner we shall know whether it was Destiny, alias Providence, or an ambitious coterie of plotters at Washington, that got this white elephant of the Orient on our hands.

THE BANKERS AND THE TREASURY.

The letters from two prominent bankers to the Secretary of the Treasury, which were made public by him last week, are not pleasant reading. Probably no one who knows the authors of these letters would attribute to them any corrupt purpose. In one case the letter amounted merely to a suggestion that a delay in paying over to the Government a fund arising from the Central Pacific Railroad settlement would help the financial situation. It was accompanied with a statement that the call loans of the City Bank were at the time $56,000,000, and that the rates on the more speculative collaterals in Wall Street were high enough to force liquidation. The inference is unavoidable that if the City Bank could retain the deposits of the Government for a week, it would make a large profit from their use. It could lend larger amounts, at very exceptional rates. Moreover, if the President of the bank were assured of this money for a week, while the public knew nothing of it, very profitable operations in stocks were possible. Very likely a public service would be rendered by such action as was suggested. Panic might be checked, failures prevented, the normal and legitimate demands of borrowers be met. Nevertheless, these good results were to be produced by means that are scarcely defensible on any sound theory of government. The notion that the Secretary of the Treasury is a *deus ex machina*, whose duty it is to relieve hard-pressed debtors and to maintain prices for those who have to unload, ought to be repudiated. Many people remember the unpleasant events under Gen. Grant's Administration, and we might fairly say that scandals have attended the relations of the Treasury with the banks during a large part of the existence of our government.

The other letter is simply an illustration of the demoralization resulting from the doctrine of political spoils. It was written in behalf of a bank which was already a Government depository, and which desired to remain such. There was no impropriety in making such a statement, nor in calling attention to the financial strength of the bank. But the

letter closed with the intimation that the directors of the bank had rendered great services to the Republican party, and that on that account the bank had claims on the United States Treasury. The natural meaning of these words is that the directors had contributed a great deal of money to the Republican campaign fund, and that they expected to be repaid in some fashion and in some degree by favors of the Treasury. Very likely the author of the letter was unconscious of any impropriety in making such a suggestion. It was not intended as a request for any illegal favors. It was meant to remind the Secretary of the Treasury that in such matters of discretion as the choice of depositories of public funds, some regard should be had to the party services of bank directors.

There is nothing more in this than is involved in the claim which all our politicians believe in, and which most of them openly maintain, that the general Government is to be carried on for the immediate advantage of the managers of the dominant political party. The post-offices are to be filled with Republicans when they come into power. So are the custom-houses, the internal-revenue offices, the consulships, the departments in general. Some one must have the office, it is argued, and it is absurd to give it to a man who has done nothing for the success of the party, when those who have borne the burden and the heat of the day really need to be supported. In precisely the same way it can be argued that, as the Secretary of the Treasury is obliged to designate certain banks as depositories, it is reasonable that he should choose banks with good Republican directors. If there is any profit in these deposits, it ought to go to Republican bankers under a Republican Administration; and it ought especially to go to such bankers as paid the most money to put the Republican Administration in power. There is no question of loss to the Government; its deposits are well secured. It is simply a question of favoring Republican bankers who contribute to the party revenues, rather than Democratic bankers, or those who make no contributions. Let no one cast a stone against the bankers who wrote these letters unless he is ready to condemn the spoils system, root and branch.

We may profitably recall an episode in the political campaign of 1888. A letter from a Republican Senator was brought to light then, with very important political results. "If I had my way about it," said the author of this letter, "I would put the manufacturers of Pennsylvania under the fire, and fry all the fat out of them." He also said: "I was solicited to contribute to a protective-tariff league, and I replied that . . . I did not propose myself to contribute money to advance the interests of men who were getting practically the sole benefit, or at least the most directly important benefits, of the tariff laws." This letter opened the eyes of many people to the true nature of protective legislation. Those who are engaged in lines of business the profits of which are affected by foreign competition, pay liberally to elect Congressmen who will pass laws to protect them against competitors. When they have elected their Congressmen, they think that they own the Government. They have paid to constitute it in a particular way, for their particular pecuniary benefit. All our prominent manufacturers understand this very well, and never think of disputing it in private conversation. Bring the subject up, and they are very apt to mention some aggravated case of tariff favoritism. Bankers have until recently been more exempt from this political demoralization, but the exigencies of 1896, when their business became a political issue, were too much for many of them. Yet, in spite of the callousness of so many of our business men, there is a great volume of popular wrath at, and loathing for, the whole system of plutocracy, and had the Democrats a leader of real honesty and ability, he would be a formidable candidate for the Presidency.

REFORM BY SOCIAL STIGMA.

President Hadley's address at Denver has been variously reported, and it would be obviously unfair to pin him down to any form of words put into his mouth by a newspaper. There appears to be no doubt, however, that he did in a general way advocate social ostracism as a weapon of moral and political reform. In particular he urged social punishments for men whose wealth has been acquired by dishonorable, or at least anti-social, means. "When," said President Hadley, "it is understood that a man who does certain things cannot associate with his fellow-men, it will penetrate deeply into the social organism." Social disqualification, he added, and condemnation by public opinion, together make up the strongest force in the business and political world.

To this we heartily agree. Granted that there were in any given community an austere and high-minded and well-organized and stable social opinion, which could be depended upon to put a stigma upon the man who had heaped up riches by illicit means—especially upon a man who makes politics a matter of buying and selling—no more powerful instrument for righteousness could well be imagined. Wealth is sought for social ends. No man would live laborious days to acquire money, did he not look upon it as the thing which would throw open to him, or at least to his children, the doors of social enjoyment. To sit down as a social pariah, though cushioned by millions of bank-notes, is a wretched existence. Many an adventurer in times past has mournfully asked himself, when lying outside the social breastworks, "Was it for this that I turned such sharp corners, wrecked banks, and burst bubbles of speculation—only to find myself flung out here?" A man who has reached wealth by "rubs and doublings and wrenches" finds himself more miserable than Midas if he cannot make it minister to his social cravings. He can travel, he can buy pictures as he would cotton, books as he would cord-wood, but what can he get out of all this but vanity and vexation of spirit? What he wants is the regard and recognition of the best people; and we thoroughly endorse President Hadley's contention that, if these could be withheld from the shady capitalist, or the man who has fought his way to the top over the ruin of his own character and the wreck of other men's fortunes, it would be an unequalled power making for righteousness.

But, alas, where does this social Rhadamanthus exist? Where can we find this severe, this compact, this sensitive and scrupulous "society," ready to ostracise money that smells of blood or is tarnished by social crimes? We wish we could think that there is such a thing any more in this country—in any appreciable force, we mean. Of course, there is a remnant of it in our large cities—a few families in Philadelphia whose glances still freeze the upstart speculator; an inner circle in New York to secure entrance into which a man has to send in some other visiting-card than a certificate of deposit for $10,000,000; an intellectual élite in Boston that pours scorn upon the manipulators of gas stocks and the deities of the caucus. But is it not the truth that our society as a whole has lost the power of scourging wealth unscrupulously gained, because it has capitulated to wealth as such? As luxury has swept in upon our social life, we have ceased to discriminate too sharply. If lavish living is the sign of social standing, then the man able to squander his thousands on social joys provides his own satisfactory *cachet*. President Hadley would find it very difficult to get "society" to ostracise the successful gamblers in finance and politics when, in too many cases, its recognized "leaders" are the very ones who would first have to go. The most we could get in the way of denunciation would be an application of Clough's "Latest Decalogue":

> "Thou shalt not steal; an empty feat
> When 'tis so lucrative to cheat."

To bring this matter disagreeably home to the bosoms and business of New Yorkers, what social results may we expect to follow from the recent revelations in the financial and political world? Will anybody "ostracise" the bankers who went on their knees to Platt to get a Government deposit? Will the men who let Payn and Sheehan

have enormous loans, with a well-understood political attachment, find their fellows looking askance at them?

Even our political corruptionists we are at last recognizing socially. The moral harm that Gov. Roosevelt and President Low have done by sitting down amicably to breakfast with Platt is incalculable. He was almost as much of a social outcast as Hill, before these social eminences recognized him as an equal. But the power of discrimination in these matters seems almost gone; and our "society" will soon deserve George William Curtis's burlesque account of the rich noodle in Newport, looking about him at the ball and saying complacently and innocently, "Well, I see all the *parvenus* are here!" The churches have a terrible responsibility in this matter. Who does not remember the Presbyterian coquetting with Jay Gould? What Protestant church in this city would refuse a present of $50,000 from Platt to support a vested choir? What Catholic church would turn on Croker, bearing gifts, with an indignant, "Thy money perish with thee"? The pious Quay has founded a church in Pennsylvania, and, we do not doubt, would endow a theological seminary if necessary. At a certain stage of his career every wealthy corruptionist is said to fairly pine for a theological seminary to take his money. And what do the ecclesiastical—yes, and the educational—authorities do in such cases except to imitate the old Scotch minister who told the dying skinflint that he could not guarantee that a gift to the church would save his soul, but that "the experiment was well worth trying"?

But, when all this is said, we repeat that President Hadley is on the right track. He speaks for the ideal of society. What society should be is the great moral and reformatory power he alludes to. It should be separate and touch not the unclean thing. It should smite the evil-doer, though he be rich, with open scorn and pass a decree of perpetual banishment against him. We greatly need a quickening of our social sensitiveness, and the best way to induce it is to show what a power for good it might be made. Matthew Arnold said there could be no human perfection without society; and it is our business to make society the deadly foe of human imperfection, so that illegitimate wealth shall have the brand of social disqualification burned into it, and political tricksters, together with those who strike hands with them and hire them as bravos or panders, shall be made to lie in social outer darkness.

"THE MILLS OF GOD."

About 1880 Mr. Joseph Chamberlain was emerging from Birmingham municipal politics, making his appearance in the larger imperial arena, caucus in hand, and calling on the rich to pay ransom to the poor. I was naturally curious about his personality, and I wrote to a friend in England to ask what kind of man he was. My friend consulted a high authority, who told him, among other things, that "Chamberlain was the first politician of the American type that they had had in England, and would give a great deal of trouble."

I have been deeply impressed ever since with the acuteness of this observation. What this gentleman meant by the "American type" was undoubtedly the kind of man who considers public questions with his ear to the ground, makes up his mind about them with strict reference to the next election, and changes that mind as he would change clothes, according to the season. It was evident almost from the first year of Chamberlain's political career that he was "on the make," as we say in America—not, of course, for money, since he did not need that, but in respect to his personal political fortune. He at once took up the Irish business, which then seemed the most promising one. Home rule had not yet made its appearance, but the Irish under Parnell were threatening trouble. So they, as well as the poor, became in Chamberlain's eyes the most wronged of mankind. It was then that he made that famous "Poland speech," which bothered him so much afterwards, in which he compared the lot of the unhappy Irish to that of the Poles, ground down by Russian tyranny. He cast in his lot thoroughly with the Irish, as well as with the poor. It was current gossip in Liberal circles at that time that he wanted to be Irish Secretary, and that it was the bestowal of the place on Lord Frederick Cavendish which implanted in Mr. Chamberlain that dislike of Mr. Gladstone which burned brightly in him long before Home Rule, and satisfied him that this bad old man was not a man for him to tie to. Mr. Chamberlain, however, soon showed himself to be too adroit a politician and too powerful a debater to be ignored, and Gladstone had to give him "something equally as good." This was the presidency of the Board of Trade. I remember reading a speech of his at that period respecting the failure of a shipping bill introduced by him, which failure he ascribed to the then wicked Lord Salisbury. I read one later, after he had joined the Conservatives, in which he ascribed it to the doubly wicked Mr. Gladstone. I dare say there exists some means of reconciling the two statements, but it is not within my reach.

Every one remembers how Home Rule carried Mr. Chamberlain over to the Conservatives. I was in the House of Commons the night he made his final speech about this atrocious attempt to tear to pieces his beloved empire. His peroration, showing how much it all cost him internally, had a falsetto note, which, I observed, excited the smiles of my neighbors in the Speaker's Gallery. But he was now at the goal of his striving. He was in the best society of England, and had no longer any dealings with the wicked old Gladstone or the low Irish, and when the Conservatives should come in, he was sure of something. He got the Colonial Secretaryship.

I am recalling these events, not so much for the purpose of discrediting Mr. Chamberlain as for that of illustrating the moral government of the world. President Lincoln was not wrong in his second message in pointing out how nations and men are sure to atone some day for great errors or great crimes. Since Peel's day the English Tories have never been content with a statesman of their own order, taken from their own ranks. No one familiar with the character and prejudices and history of English gentlemen would have believed for a moment beforehand that a Jewish literary adventurer, however clever of speech, living by his wits, would have the slightest chance of a political career among them. But Disraeli had a most successful one, and rose so high in English social and political life that he had a narrow escape from being put in "orders" and made Archbishop of Canterbury. His antics amused them, and his cleverness saved them trouble. Nevertheless, it seemed unlikely that he would soon have a successor. But he was hardly dead when his successor turned up. For a literary adventurer was substituted a dealer in screws, a powerful debater, with no convictions to speak of, and a vaulting ambition. Home Rule, which turned so many English heads, and made the most distinguished public man they have had since Pitt a favorite object of the billingsgate of the upper classes, gave them Chamberlain as their man-of-all-work; and Lord Salisbury, able as he is, succumbed to him, just as he succumbed to Disraeli. He does not seem to have checked him once in his crazy colonial policy.

Who will say now that Providence has not in this way, dark and mysterious though it be, avenged the famous "wrongs of Ireland"? Could there be a more grateful topic of conversation, even among the chiefs and ladies bright in "the Halls of Tara," than the manner in which the great anti-Home-Rule Colonial Secretary had been "euchered" by a Dutch farmer into a bloody war for which he was not prepared, and in which the one "neglected estate" that he had undertaken to "cultivate" proved to be a nest of ten-pound hornets? Verily, the mills of God grind slowly, but they grind exceeding small. E. L. G.

THE WINTER EXHIBITIONS.

LONDON, January 1, 1900.

As I sit down to write, I hear drums in the street below—probably the Volunteers on their way to the Guildhall to be sworn in. I can see nothing, for London is wrapped—choked—in a thick, wet, gray fog. There could not be a more melancholy opening to the new year. It scarcely seems a moment when Englishmen are likely to spare much thought for pictures, or time for galleries. But it just so happens that the winter exhibitions at the Academy and the New Gallery have seldom been more interesting; the one supplementing the other, and both together giving as complete and representative a collection of the Flemish masters as could well be got together in one place, unless the national galleries of the world combined to arrange it. And after all, however absorbing other matters may seem at this crisis, Van Eyck and Memling, Rubens and Van Dyck, will live long after Krüger and Chamberlain, Joubert and Buller, are but names!

The idea, of course, originated in the Van Dyck celebrations at Antwerp last summer. The Academy had already been so successful in repeating the Rembrandt show of Amsterdam that the new opportunity for a good winter exhibition was not

to be overlooked; especially as it would be even easier to represent Van Dyck in London than Rembrandt. All the finest pictures at Antwerp, with the exception of the famous "Lord Wharton" that belongs to the Hermitage, came from England, where there were many more, as every one knew, that had not been trusted out of the country. This being decided upon, the directors of the New Gallery were wise enough to make their show an introduction to the Academy, by completing in it the representations of the Flemish school up to the time of Van Dyck, and also a sequel by including a few examples of the English portrait-painters who were Van Dyck's direct descendants.

The work has been done as well as it could be, I fancy, under the conditions. In a loan collection you must take not always what you want, but what you can get. The historical sequence is somewhat interrupted by the great gulf between the Primitives and Rubens, and again between Van Dyck and Reynolds and Gainsborough. But still, it suggests, if it does not follow in every stage, the development of Flemish art that led from the early immature performances of the old Guildsmen to the masterpieces of the greatest of the Flemings, and then, through their influence, to the portraits of the most distinguished group of painters England can boast. If you turn immediately from the austere, firm, uncompromising realism of the Van Eycks to the elegant, delightfully artificial conventions of Reynolds and Gainsborough, it may seem impossible to believe in any relation between them. But the two exhibitions supply many of the connecting links.

At the New Gallery the room devoted to the Primitives is most satisfactory—that is, from the historical standpoint. I do not think any pictures suffer as grievously as theirs from being seen, a great number together, in a gallery. These early painters almost always worked for a definite decorative purpose. Their Virgins and Christs, their saints and angels, were intended to serve as altar-pieces, to adorn reliquaries, to become a part of church or convent walls. They were never meant to be looked at apart from their surroundings. Did we not realize but yesterday the difference between the decorations of Puvis de Chavannes, when they hung in the Champ-de-Mars Salon, and when, afterwards, they were in their place in the building for which they were designed? The early masters lose still more, for in the gallery we are doubly conscious of their imperfections and limitations, it is difficult to judge of the decorative merit of their work, and there is no longer the sentiment of place that can make us forgive and even rejoice in their failures. Take Memling in Bruges, as the most striking example: I, for one, should not like to say how much my pleasure in him there comes from the innumerable associations of the quiet old Hospital, from the impressions of Fromentin passing through the same rooms, from (perhaps) the exaggerated melancholy of Rodenbach in his Bruges-la-Morte. But Memling in London, at the New Gallery, away from Bruges and its charm and glamour, becomes but the painter to be catalogued, classified, but a good subject for the ingenuity of the scientific critic. The pictures attributed to him yesterday are to-day labelled with some one else's name; his name to-morrow may be on a dozen pictures never hitherto claimed for him. He is a specimen to be studied, as the chemist studies his gases or the doctor his microbes.

I do not deny that a certain amount of exact classification is an excellent thing, but when it turns art into archæology, when the art critic adopts the methods of the literary critic whose only interest in Shakspere is to prove that he was Bacon, then I do not see that any good is accomplished. This is particularly true of many of the Primitives, who, to be honest, are not worth all the talk there is about them. Since the pre-Raphaelites, there has been a sort of superstition that the Primitives were, until the middle of this century, the only painters who went to nature for inspiration, when the truth is, never were painters so hampered by formulas imposed upon them. They could, I admit, in matters of detail, work with the realism of the Van Eycks. When, occasionally, they escaped from the religious subjects usually demanded from them, they did go to nature, apparently with relief, and, as far as it was possible within their limitations, with quite amazing results. Who can forget that wonderful portrait of Giovanni Arnolfini and his wife by Van Eyck in the National Gallery? And here, in the New Gallery, continually, through an open window or beyond the Christ Crucified or the Virgin and Child Enthroned, you look to a charming little landscape, or to the towers and battlements of a mediæval town set upon a hill, full of careful observation and distinctly individual in treatment. But in carrying out a religious motive certain things were expected of them by the patrons for whom they worked, and the consequence is a monotony in design and method that really is the second reason why it is a mistake to see so much of their work together. I have always felt this in the rooms full of Primitives in the great national collections—as must everybody else whose emotions have not been duly manufactured beforehand; and I feel it again in the New Gallery. There are some fine examples of the Van Eycks, Memling, Mabuse, Gheereart David, Van Orley, Quentin Matsys that I long to see back again over the altar or in the chapels or shrines where they originally belonged. However, as I have said, they have their historical value and importance in the exhibition, in any review of Flemish art; and archaic though they are, with their rich color, their careful draughtsmanship, their technical accomplishment, they seem worthy to prepare the way for Rubens.

Of all the masters, Rubens is probably the one who has the most serious disappointments in store even for his admirers. His name has become a synonym for splendor, for a flamboyant stateliness, for a voluptuous beauty, for a vigor, a vitality, simply amazing. The stories, the evidence too, of his facility take your breath away. You know the impression he made upon his contemporary, Velasquez, the influence he had upon his pupil, Van Dyck. But then, Rubens ran a shop, a picture manufactory. His assistants and students produced half, probably more than half, the work turned out in his name. The design may have been his, the painting was theirs. Compare one of his beautiful little sketches with the finished canvas, and the animation, the life, the soul has gone; only the empty swagger remains. What could be more wearisome than the acres of Rubens in the Louvre, in Munich, even in Antwerp—I mean in the Museum, not in the Cathedral, where, before the "Descent from the Cross," you can only wonder that you ever dared to criticise the master? It is not strange, therefore, when the most important national galleries do not always show you the real Rubens, that the directors of the New Gallery, borrowing where they could, have succeeded still less well. The big canvases they have collected together are mostly fine theatrical exercises, tremendously skilful *machines*, which the cleverest contributor to the Salons could not hope to rival. Of one, the "Daniel in the Lion's Den," belonging to the late Duke of Hamilton, it seems Rubens himself wrote from Antwerp: "Daniel amidst many lions taken from the life—original, the whole by my hand." But this is hard to believe, powerful as is the drawing of the lions. The Daniel, in his excess of terror, is melodramatic, and there is no splendor of composition, no glory of color, as in the "Paris" and the "Rape of the Sabine Woman" in the National Gallery. Indeed, were it not for a series of sketches, for his pictures, and for tapestry and a number of drawings, the student would have to go promptly from Regent Street to Trafalgar Square to remind himself of what good reason there really is for the fame of Rubens. The New Gallery, with the best will in the world, offers but a reminder, useful at the moment, of this greatest of the Flemings, who was Van Dyck's master.

But, if the National Gallery contains some of Rubens's masterpieces, it is far from doing justice to Van Dyck. The large equestrian Charles is there, and a fine portrait, but little else of note, while the Academy now gives such a chance to study him at his best as cannot soon occur again. It is hardly necessary for me to go very much into detail; it is only a few months since I was writing of Van Dyck in Antwerp, and all the masterpieces that were there reappear on the walls of Burlington House. Here again are the "Carew and Killigrew," the "Royal Children," with other pictures from the Queen's collections; here the Hermitage "Lord Wharton"; here the "Henrietta Presenting the Laurel Wreath to Charles," the "Earl of Arundel," belonging to the Duke of Norfolk, with several versions besides of that most generous of all Van Dyck's patrons; the painter's portrait of himself in his youth, and the other with a sunflower, still more deliciously affected, of a later period. And there are pictures not shown in Antwerp, quite as important. Only the big religious subjects, lent so reluctantly by Belgian convents and churches, are missing, but no work of Van Dyck could be spared so readily. They illustrate a certain stage in his career; they add nothing to his reputation. Altogether, the collection, which includes also a large number of interesting and characteristic drawings, is more fully representative of Van Dyck during his most distinguished periods than was the series at Antwerp.

Nevertheless, I find that the impression it makes is the same. If Van Dyck could sometimes show himself the supreme master, in a painting like the perfect "Carew and Killigrew," for instance, or a dozen others, he was far oftener content—with Rubens—to be the accomplished director of a picture

manufactory. His "Charles" and his "Arundel" and almost all his portraits of the artists and students and writers of his day prove his delight in the rendering of character when he discovered it in his sitters. But probably the expression of strong character was the one thing with which the lords and ladies who crowded to his studio could dispense, and so to him and to his assistants they became charming lay models upon which to drape a gorgeous costume, puppets to pose picturesquely. How lifeless they are, these pretty dukes and earls and marquesses, these great ladies in their silks and laces, with their pet dwarfs or tiger cubs at their sides! Van Dyck—again with Rubens—suffers from his own carelessness of his reputation, from his willingness to lend his name to all the work manufactured in his shop.

After Van Dyck, in his own country, came the decadence. But in England, the country of his adoption, there followed the growth and flowering of the first great school of English painters. The manner of this growth is not very clearly indicated at the New Gallery, excellent as is the intention. More than a century and several artists of great distinction separated Reynolds and Gainsborough from Van Dyck. The presence of Hobson and Walker, then of Lely and Kneller, who, though influenced by Van Dyck, became in their turn an influence, and of Hogarth, would have helped to bridge over the interval. It might have been wiser to limit the English work, since so little of it is exhibited, to portraits. It is always a pleasure to see the landscapes of Wilson and Constable and such a noble example of Turner as the "Walton Bridges." But these we owe to a very different influence, and they interrupt, instead of helping, the historical sequence. However, there are several fine Reynoldses, and Gainsboroughs, and Romneys; Reynolds's "Mrs. Nesbitt as Circe," with its forced, artificial, and very superficial allegory, showing how all that was most affected in the conventions of Van Dyck's latest period survived not only in Lely and Kneller, but in the English portrait-painters of the very end of the eighteenth century. Lawrence and Raeburn, who is but beginning to be appreciated as he should be, carry on the tradition to its decadence and final disappearance. For, surely, the inspiration of the few distinguished English portrait-painters of to-day comes not from Flanders, but from France. One or two men have tried to revive the old conventions, which, however, have proved empty and dead in their hands.

Until three years ago, with the Leighton exhibition, the Academy showed the Old Masters of many groups and schools, while never before this winter has the New Gallery sought to work in harmony with it. But so much has been accomplished by this joining of force, and by this representation of only one school or artist, that it seems to me the Royal Academy and the New Gallery have but to continue the present policy to make their winter exhibitions in the future still more delightful, and profitable too.

N. N.

RÉBELLIAU'S BOSSUET.

PARIS, December 25, 1899.

Bossuet will always remain one of the commanding figures of French literature and a model of style in the French language. There is in language a law of development and a sort of organic growth; Bossuet's style remains the perfection of the language of the seventeenth century. It belongs to the *grand siècle*, and cannot be separated from it; and whatever changes time may bring in the formation and expression of ideas, it will be an object of admiration for future generations. M. Alfred Rébelliau has applied himself to a special study of Bossuet's work, and has just added a valuable volume to the excellent collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" of Hachette. It will be read with pleasure, even after the works of Floquet, 'Études sur la vie de Bossuet,' 'Bossuet Précepteur du Dauphin,' of Gandar, 'Bossuet Orateur' and 'Choix de Sermons de la Jeunesse de Bossuet,' and the 'Œuvres Oratoires de Bossuet' published by the Abbé Lebarq.

Bossuet was born in 1627 at Dijon, at the time when a sort of Catholic revival, under the influence of François de Sales and of Bérulle, had begun. In his native province of Burgundy this revival was very marked. Bossuet's family was of humble origin; his ancestors had been drapers at Seurre, a small town of Burgundy. In 1517, one of them held a municipal office, and abandoned the old sign-board of the Bossuets, a vine with the device, "Bois boussu est bon," for the arms afterwards borne. The Bossuets became members of the parlements. The father of the illustrious Bishop was Councillor at Metz; he was a strong royalist and an ardent Catholic.

Bossuet was educated at the Collège de Navarre in Paris, and left it after the most brilliant examinations. His family had provided him, while still a child, with a canonry at Metz, but in the seventeenth century the obligation of residence admitted of many exceptions. The masters of the Collège de Navarre urged Bossuet to remain with them. He resisted their entreaties, and left for Metz, where he remained seven years, or until he was thirty-two. He arrived in a place which was in a miserable condition. The Spaniards and the Lorrainers were constantly devastating the neighborhood. Bossuet was at once appointed deputy of the chapter in the Municipal Assembly of the three orders, and was chosen to negotiate an armistice with the agents of Condé, who was at the time in the service of Spain. He left Metz in September, 1653, with a drummer to enter the enemy's lines. He thus immediately took his place as a man of action, and such he essentially remained all his life. He was always busy in directing religious communities or establishing seminaries. He was an indefatigable preacher. He was naturally eloquent, and his eloquence had always an end. He was also a great reader, and the germ of all his great works can be found in the studies he pursued at Metz and in his earliest sermons.

As soon as Louis XIV. became the real ruler of France, he aimed at the utter destruction of Protestantism in his kingdom. His predecessor, Louis XIII., had made war on it in the field; under Louis XIV. the war was carried on by the theologians. Bossuet entered the lists with ardor; his book entitled the 'Exposition of the Catholic Doctrine on Matters of Controversy,' composed in 1671 for the instruction of Turenne, of Dangeau, and of the Marquis de Lorges, made an immense sensation. In 1678, he was invited by Mademoiselle de Duras, a niece of Turenne, to confer and discuss with Claude, the most famous Protestant minister of the time. This debate recalled the famous discussion of Duplessis-Mornay and Cardinal Du Perron under Henri IV. In 1669, Bossuet was named Bishop of Condom, and soon afterwards, in 1670, Louis XIV. chose him as preceptor of the Dauphin. Putting aside sermons, controversy, funeral orations, Bossuet gave himself up wholly to his new task; he tried to make a king of France, a Christian king, who should be an honor to France and to Christianity. His pupil, alas, was a most ordinary and mediocre man, but Bossuet's time was not lost to the world, as his lessons took the shape of books which have been read by many generations.

The son of Louis XIV. and Marie Thérèse inherited from his mother a sort of heaviness almost amounting to vulgarity. A virtual king, he feared nothing so much as public life and diplomacy. He was brave and good, kind to those who lived with him, but careful to forget all that was taught him; he read only the births, deaths, and marriages in the *Gazette de France*. He spent whole days lying on his bed at Meudon, where he buried himself, away from Versailles, a cane in his hand, tapping his boots or playing with his snuff-box. What a pupil for a Bossuet! Bossuet, at least, profited by the education which the Dauphin received; he entered upon new studies. He was forty-three years old when he began to give lessons to the Dauphin, but he himself learned a great deal. He read Herodotus, Thucydides, Plato, Polybius, Strabo, Homer, Hesiod, Livy, Cicero; he became more familiar with the classics. His views on philosophy and policy became enlarged; he even opened the door to Descartes, though Descartes was denounced by the Jesuits as an accomplice of Calvin. He studied history in the original documents.

His polemical life began in 1673, when appeared the 'Critical History of the Old Testament,' by a learned Oratorian, Richard Simon. A friend sent it to Bossuet, who saw in this exegetic work "a heap of impieties," and denounced it to Chancellor Le Tellier. After a brief examination of it, orders were given to burn all the copies. Richard Simon treated the text of the Old Testament as an ordinary text, with the curiosity of a critic who means to have everything explained and verified. This scientific exegesis was a great novelty at the time, and seemed sacrilegious to Bossuet. Later, in 1680, he was much grieved at the publication of Malebranche's 'Traité de la Nature et de la Grâce." He wrote on the book "nova, mira, falsa."

In 1682, Louis XIV.'s policy was the cause of great embarrassment to him. The Pope's relations with the King of France had become very strained. In 1681, Innocent XI. excommunicated vicar-generals appointed directly by the King in two bishoprics, and an extraordinary general assembly of the clergy of France met on this occasion. The King charged Bossuet to make the opening speech in this national council. Bossuet was a Gallican, he regarded the King as a holy being, a representative of God on earth, responsible to God alone. He hoped to bring back to Gallicanism the French Protestants, who were always denouncing the Ultramontane pretensions. His position was not easy; he wished the Prince to be independent of the Pope, without being himself a lay Pope. He accepted the task which was offered him. Joseph de Maistre

considered Bossuet's sermon on "The Unity of the Church" which he delivered on opening the assembly a *tour de force*. For ten years Bossuet tried to reconcile the supremacy of the King with the supremacy of the Pope, but the Pope forced the King to capitulate. In 1693, Bossuet had, by order of the King, to compose for another assembly a form of retraction of the first Declaration of 1682—a retraction which the vicar-general had to sign in order to receive the papal bulls.

Bossuet had other battles to fight, against Jurieu, against Fénelon. The battle with Jurieu was occasioned by the publication of the famous 'History of the Variations in the Protestant Churches.' This and the 'Politique Tirée de l'Écriture Sainte' are the most important of Bossuet's works, which are still readable and are found in all libraries. As for his numerous theological pamphlets, written in answer to Fénelon or to the Jansenists, they have lost all their interest for us. In the 'Politique Tirée de l'Écriture Sainte' and in the 'Histoire des Variations' we have, so to speak, the nucleus of all the doctrine of Bossuet—*one* spiritual law, *one* temporal law. These two works are the studied code of absolute authority.

Bossuet found himself at one time in a sort of spiritual negotiation with Leibnitz. He wished to bring about a fusion of the Catholic Church and the Protestant churches, as well Lutheran as Calvinistic. A sort of written dialogue began between the great Bishop and the great philosopher. Bossuet insisted upon the necessity of a permanent doctrine and unity of belief. The Catholic doctor said: "This was believed yesterday, so it must be believed to-day"; to which the Protestant philosopher answered: "What if something else was believed the day before yesterday?" "Can you," asked Bossuet, "find a way to hinder your Protestant churches from being eternally variable?" To which Leibnitz answered in these famous words: "It suits us, Monseigneur, to belong to this moving and eternally variable church."

Bossuet's quarrel with Fénelon reminds one forcibly of Molière's verse:

"Tant de fiel entre-t-il dans l'âme des dévots?"

The very name of "Quietism" is almost forgotten, and we can hardly understand now the violence of the passions excited by the doctrine of Madame Guyon. Fénelon was condemned in Rome, but bore his defeat with admirable dignity; he was perhaps wrong in doctrine, but he struck in the heart of his contemporaries a chord of sentiment and sentimentality which was a sort of revolt against the harshness and severity of Bossuet.

Bossuet struggled to the end against what he considered the errors of the time. He preached also to the end, not only in his cathedral church, but in the smallest churches of his diocese. He began to suffer from the stone in 1700; in 1702, he bade good-by, on Easter Day, to his diocese. He continued to work hard in his episcopal palace, writing, correcting proof-sheets. He finished his 'Meditation on the Gospel,' his 'Explanation of Isaiah,' his 'Politique Tirée de l'Écriture Sainte.' When he died, on the 12th of April, 1704, Saint-Simon could write of him that "he died with his weapons in his hands."

Correspondence.

THE AUDITING OF M'KINLEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: No historian who ever wrote has taken more frequent advantage of his position to make personal hits at the Administration of President McKinley than Tacitus, in delineating the imperialism of Rome. If I remember rightly, some of these thrusts have already been brought to the attention of your readers, but not the one which follows.

On the death of Augustus, his grandson, Postumus Agrippa, was immediately slain by a centurion detailed for that purpose. (It will be remembered that he was at the time on the island of Planasia, under sentence of banishment.) The centurion undertook to report to Tiberius, but was referred to the Senate, Tiberius disclaiming responsibility. Thereupon Sallustius Crispus, fearing the possible results of his own part in the slaughter, went to Livia, still in many respects the head of the house, as she had been during the last years of Augustus, and warned her that Tiberius should not break the force of his imperial authority by bringing everything before the Senate. "For," he added, "it is a fundamental fact of imperialism that its accounts will not balance if submitted to more than one auditor."

That fundamental fact seems to be fully appreciated by our modern imperialists, who seem determined to give the people full information on no fact of real importance until that information is wrested from them by a pressure which can no longer be safely resisted.

W. H. Johnson.

"THROW OVER BRYAN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Believing that the *Nation* likes to know facts, I take the liberty of saying just how a sentence in No. 1801 strikes me. The sentence is this: "Why not throw over Bryan with the free-silver issue?"

I am a teacher, and take no part in politics except to vote. I want Bryan renominated by the Democrats because I believe that he is opposed to the tariff and to monopolies of all kinds; because I believe that he is not dominated by the influences that rule McKinley and Hanna. You must find us another man before you say, "Throw over Bryan."—Very respectfully,

J. H. Dillard.

Tulane University, New Orleans,
January 6, 1900.

[But we are equally ready to say, "Throw over McKinley with the imperial programme."—Ed. Nation.]

OUR NEW DIPLOMACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Educated opinion is, I take it, the same in all parts of our country as to the wretchedness of boss rule and the difficulty of overthrowing it because of our lazy good-nature. It does seem a little too bad, however, that those of us who are working in Europe should be hampered by shoddy politics in America. Advanced study in classics and in certain forms of art does not, at first sight, seem to be related to the question of the Italian immigrants who arrive in New York, but we here are suffering from an unwillingness on the part of the Italian Government to go out of its way to be friendly to representatives of a country by whom Italy has recently been treated with extreme discourtesy.

The story (which I have from the highest Italian authority) begins with the passing of our present immigration law, part of which was framed, as every one knows, with the sensible intention of preventing pauper aliens from entering the United States. When this law was passed, the Italian Government, in order to assist both her own people and the United States, came to an informal agreement with the authorities at Washington, in accordance with which an office in charge of authorized Italian officials was established on Ellis Island. At this office the immigrants were given whatever information was needed by them, and assisted to defend themselves from the padrone. In case question arose as to any immigrant fulfilling the requirements of the law, the officials in charge of the office were in a position to give our Government information that could be acquired in no other way.

This took place before Mr. McKinley was elected President. It was a system that worked excellently, and both parties to the agreement derived considerable benefit from it. The dullest imagination can perceive what a blessing it must have been to the immigrants. When Mr. McKinley became President, Mr. Powderly was put at the head of the Immigration Bureau. Owing to the hostility of the trades-unions to foreign immigration, Mr. Powderly did his best to get the office on Ellis Island abolished, and the Italian Government was informed that the office must be closed. Though the agreement to which the office owed its existence had been informal, yet the work done by it had been so satisfactory that the Italian Foreign Office was surprised, and begged earnestly for an adequate explanation of our action. As there was none to give, and as, being at war with Spain, we did not desire to increase the number of our enemies, the matter was dropped and the office continued its beneficent work.

Lately the affair has been taken up once more, and the Italian Government has been finally told that the office would be abolished, the reason being that other nations were asking to be allowed to establish similar bureaus, and we cannot give this right to everybody! That other European nations should be demanding this permission is an incontrovertible proof of the excellent service of the office, but apparently our Washington sages think that, like Polycrates, we had best throw some precious possession into the sea.

But greater even than the wisdom of our Solons is their courtesy, for this was the manner of their notification to the Italian Government. Early in December the Government here was informed, through the Italian Ambassador in Washington, that the office was to be done away with. The Marquis Visconti-Venosta, Minister of Foreign Affairs, asked (using the telegraph) that no final action be taken until the authorities at Washington had studied the papers he desired to send them. The papers were sent, but the reply received by cable at Rome before their arrival in Washington was that the office would be closed on Janu-

ary 1—papers or no papers. The exact language I am unable to quote, but the abruptness of the decision is evident. The exact feelings of the Italian Foreign Office were left by my Italian informant to my imagination.

Up to the present time the Italian press has scarcely commented on the subject, for the Marquis Visconti-Venosta, knowing its supersensitiveness on certain points, has kept the matter dark. One writer has, however, asked if this case is to be taken as a sample of our "new diplomacy." It is to be hoped that, before the press begins irrational attacks either against us or the Italian Foreign Office—attacks which would render the wise settlement of the affair more difficult—the matter will have been reconsidered at Washington from the point of view of common sense and not that of the next election. RICHARD NORTON.

AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CLASSICAL STUDIES,
ROME, December 27, 1899.

OUR TITLE TO THE PHILIPPINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Imperialists speak of the Filipinos as being in a state of insurrection. An insurgent is one who resists by force constituted authority and attempts by arms to overthrow an established government to which he owes obedience. That the Filipinos, who once were Spanish subjects, became insurgents against Spain by contracting an alliance with the United States, cannot be denied, but resistance to the extension of American sovereignty over the Philippines is not insurrection, as they have never been subject to the dominion of the United States. Aguinaldo's Government was the legitimate successor of the Spanish, and was organized and in control of the islands long before the pretended cession to the United States. As Spain had already lost control of the territory, and the United States had never attempted to exercise even military authority (before the treaty was signed) outside the limits of Manila, clearly the Filipinos could not be in insurrection against a power that did not exist.

By the terms of the protocol, the United States was to hold Manila pending negotiations for the disposition of the Philippines. Of course, any attempt by the United States to extend its authority during the suspension of hostilities might be a breach of the conditions of the protocol and a violation of public faith. The agreement provided that the situation in the Philippines should remain unchanged until a treaty of peace was concluded. The mere signing of the treaty by the Commissioners gave it no operative force before the exchange of ratifications. Yet on December 21, 1898, when the treaty had not been ratified and had no more legal force than a blank sheet of paper, and in defiance of the protocol, the President wrote to the Secretary of War:

"With the signature of the treaty of peace between the United States and Spain by their respective plenipotentiaries at Paris, on the 10th instant, and as the result of the victories of American arms, the future control, disposition, and government of the Philippine Islands are ceded to the United States. In fulfilment of the rights of sovereignty thus acquired, and the responsible obligations of government thus assumed, the actual occupation and administration of the entire group of the Philippine Islands became immediately necessary, and the military government heretofore maintained by the United States in the city, harbor, and bay of Manila is to be extended with all possible dispatch to the whole of the ceded territory."

The same day a cable order was sent to Otis: "The President directs that you send necessary troops to Iloilo to preserve the peace and protect life and property." Life and property were then as safe in Iloilo as in Manila. Peace was preserved and life and property protected by bombarding the town. The proclamation was a declaration of war against a people who had been organized and armed by the United States as allies in the war with Spain. It assumed foreknowledge of the fact that there were Senators who would speak against the treaty, but who would stultify themselves by voting to ratify.

It is a well-settled principle of public law that the national character of territory ceded by treaty continues unaltered until the treaty has been executed. As long as it remains executory, and there is no delivery of possession, the sovereignty is unchanged. Such a thing as sovereignty without possession cannot be conceived. This would have been the legal effect of the treaty even if Spanish power in the Philippines had not been extinguished and there had been no organized opposition to the transfer of sovereignty to the United States. The word *cede* means to yield or surrender title to something. But Spain had been divested of all title and had nothing to yield or surrender. Twenty millions were simply given as a soothing syrup to console her.

There is no analogy between a title acquired by private contract and a cession of territory. A citizen may convey property in the adverse possession of another, because the Government is the guarantor of its enjoyment by the grantee if the title of the grantor is good. In such a case the supreme power of the State provides a tribunal to try the right and execute its decree. But contracts *inter gentes* have no such sanction because there is no common political superior to enforce them. What is called international law is not law in the municipal sense of law. It is a mere ethical code, not a positive institution. Nations in their intercourse respect it, but there is no civil remedy for a violation of it. Redress must be sought by negotiation, or war. Hall, on International Law, says: "As international law is destitute of any judicial or administrative machinery, it leaves states which think themselves aggrieved and which have exhausted all peaceable methods of obtaining satisfaction, to exact redress for themselves by force." Law is defined by Blackstone as the command of a superior to an inferior. But among sovereigns there is no inferior—all are equals. Hence there can be no such thing as sovereign right without sovereign possession.

The cession of Louisiana is a case in point. It was a province of Spain, and by a secret treaty was ceded to France in 1800, but there was no transfer of possession until 1803. In the case of the *Fama*, 5 C. Robinson 107, Sir William Scott held that the national character of the inhabitants of Louisiana was not changed *ipso facto* by the treaty, and that Louisiana continued to be Spanish territory until it was actually delivered to France. There was war between England and France, and a vessel cleared from New Orleans with a cargo belonging to a merchant there resident, and was captured on the voyage. It was contended for the captors that, as domicile in war is a test of national character, it was enemy's property because Louisiana, having been ceded to France, was no longer neutral territory. The case turned upon the nationality of Louisiana. If it was French, the property was liable to condemnation as prize of war. Sir William Scott (Lord Stowell) said:

"The present question is a general one respecting the situation in which the people of a distant settlement are placed by a treaty of the state to which they undoubtedly belong, and by which they are stipulated to be transferred to another Power. The case proceeded for a considerable time without dispute as to principle on a mere inquiry into the fact of possession; under an understanding, as I apprehended, that if possession had not been taken by France, the French character could not be deemed to have attached. The question has, however, now been fully argued as to the principle of law, whether the treaty did not in itself confer full sovereignty and right of dominion, and whether the inhabitants were not so ceded by that treaty as to become immediately French subjects. The other question of law, how far full sovereignty can be held to have passed by the mere words of the treaty without actual delivery, was in the first stages of this cause not mooted. It is to be observed that all corporeal property depends very much upon occupancy. With respect to the origin of property this is the sole foundation. So with regard to transfer, it is universally held in all systems of jurisprudence that to consummate the right of property a person must unite the right of the thing with possession. I am of opinion that, on all the several grounds of reason or practice and judicial recognition, until possession was actually taken the inhabitants of New Orleans continued under the former sovereignty of Spain." Judgment for claimant.

The doctrine of this case was affirmed by the United States Supreme Court in Davis vs. the Police Jury of Concordia, 9 Howard 280. The Court said (p. 292):

"The *Fama* sailed from New Orleans in April, 1803, for Havre de Grâce with Spanish property on board. She was taken on the way by a British cruiser, and her cargo libelled, it being alleged to be enemy's or French property only upon the ground that Louisiana had been ceded by Spain to France before the *Fama* sailed. The points stated in the words of Sir William Scott are, whether the treaty did not in itself confer full sovereignty and right of dominion to France, and whether the inhabitants were not so ceded by that treaty as to become immediately French subjects. The cause was fully argued on both sides by as able counsel as were in that day or since in the admiralty courts of England, The cargo was restored to the Spanish claimant on the ground that the national character of a place agreed to be surrendered by treaty, but not actually delivered, continues as it was under the character of the ceding country."

According to these decisions, even if there had been no contest with the Filipinos until possession had actually been delivered to the United States, their national character would continue to be the same as when the treaty was signed. But the cession was absolutely void because, at the date of the treaty, Spain did not possess the sovereignty of the islands, and hence had no power to cede. She had no right to cede what she could not deliver. Spain's sovereignty in Louisiana was undisputed, but, in the Philippines, it had been wrested from her by the people she undertook to sell. The Filipinos were in actual control everywhere but in Manila. If the United States acquires possession of the Philippines, its title must rest not on cession from Spain, but on the conquest of the Filipinos. We bought nothing from Spain but a hole in the sky.—Respectfully, JNO. S. MOSBY.

SAN FRANCISCO, January 7, 1900.

THINGS ATHENIAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The old Greek adage, that it is not given to every one to visit Corinth, still holds good as regards Athens in modern days. The tide of American travel still flows from Italy past the peninsula of Greece on to Constantinople or to Egypt without touching at Patras or the Peiræus, and the American colony at Athens is not yet so numerous as to be promiscuous. On returning to Athens after an absence of twelve years, one is impressed with the rapid strides the capital of Greece is making towards becoming a handsome city. Private residences as well as public edifices are built of Pentelic marble in part if not throughout, and the neighboring quarries are yielding an ever-increasing profit to the English company that has purchased a large part of the old mountain. The lesser and nearer heights, such as the Hill of the Muses and Lycabettus, are scarified and mutilated by the constant demands upon them for building material, and the day is close at hand when their outlines, if not their very existence, will be wiped out, unless the Government puts a stop to this wholesale destruction. The city is also losing its semi-Oriental character and becoming more commonplace. Fustanellas and fezzes are comparatively rare sights, and one must go down into the older portions of the city, near the Tower of the Winds and the Stoa of Attalos, to see and to hear the characteristic sights and sounds of the Athens of twenty years ago.

One is surprised to notice so few traces of the effects of the late war with Turkey. Some of the Greeks speak of the affair as a mystery, more look upon it as a stupendous political blunder, and all get some comfort from the outcome, which has given to Crete a popular and intelligent Greek prince as Governor. One indirect effect of the late war is especially deplored, and that is public begging, which, before this, was hardly known in Greece. This, doubtless, is a remnant of the public charities that were instituted during the war to care for the refugees who sought shelter in Athens.

The Boulé has just begun its session. There is prospect of lively discussion, though the Government party has a good majority. One of the most important questions to come before the Chamber of Deputies is the increase of the supply of water for Athens, which is a growing necessity. There is a curious lawsuit pending on which the whole matter seems to hinge. The late Mr. Syngros, after providing for his family, left the bulk of his property to charitable objects, making a certain benevolent organization his residuary legatee, but naming the sum which he expected it to inherit from him. But it turns out that his estate is worth upwards of a million of drachmæ more than he had supposed. The widow now sues to have this surplus revert to her, with the understanding that, if the courts decide in her favor, she is to present this amount to the Government for the new water supply. The sum required will be much larger than the amount of this bequest in litigation, but the Government hopes that, with this amount in hand, the needed work can at least be initiated.

Another matter that is likely to agitate the Boulé relates to forming a closer connection with the rest of Europe. The most feasible plan is to extend the railway from Larissa in Thessaly to Salonica, and there form a junction with the line from Constantinople to Vienna. That communication by rail with Western Europe would be of great advantage to Greece cannot be doubted. The difficulty in the way is the needed concessions from Turkey, through whose territory a large part of the proposed road would run. Just now, however, the Sultan is showing a friendly disposition towards Greece, and there is reason to hope that such a concession may be obtained.

Then there are questions of constitutional and financial reform to be discussed. To be sure, such questions are always at the front in Greece, but they seem to be unusually urgent at present, and it is said that the Ministry is determined to accomplish something of note in that direction. One of these reforms is the abolition of the vexatious octroi duty between the Peiræus and Athens.

Most of the temporary residents from Northern Europe and America are drawn here by the opportunities for archæological study and exploration. There are now five schools for classical and archæological study in Athens, the latest born being the Austrian Institute. They maintain most friendly relations with one another, and all enjoy the hospitable favor of the Greek Government and its officials. The Germans, under the auspices of the Berlin Museum, are digging in Miletus, the Austrians in Ephesus, the English in Crete, and the Americans hope to resume work at Corinth. The British School has recently fallen heir to a library "bonanza." The library of the late Dr. Finlay, the historian, containing upwards of 4,000 volumes, has been presented to it. This library is especially rich in books and pamphlets on the history of Greece during the Byzantine and Frankish periods, and contains a number of personal memoirs in manuscript and letters from distinguished men that have never been published.

Our American School has entered upon the nineteenth year of its existence. Its twelve students, representing ten different colleges and universities, are at present enjoying the privilege of hearing Dr. Dörpfeld once a week talk, as only he can talk, on the recent excavations about and on the Acropolis. In addition to the exercise in epigraphy with Prof. Herbert W. Smyth of Bryn Mawr, they enjoy occasional lectures from Dr. Wilhelm of the Austrian Institute. To this is to be added the weekly visit to the rich collections of sculptures in the museums under the skilful guidance of the Director of our School, Prof. Rufus B. Richardson. If the friends and patrons of the School could see for themselves the enthusiastic work that is done here, they would value still more than they do the helpfulness of this School in training the future teachers of classical studies in our country. The desirableness of putting the School on a permanent financial basis is patent to every one who knows its history and the worth of what it is doing. The time is ripe for the completion of its endowment, which has already made so good a beginning.

The excavations at Corinth are at present suspended, partly to await more favorable weather, but also for lack of funds. The last discovery made on that site is the spring of Glaukê, not far from the old temple, which, as we have now learned, was not the temple of Poseidon, but of Apollo. It is to be hoped that the appeal of Mr. Richardson in your columns last August for financial aid to resume these interesting explorations will not go unheeded. The discoveries made by our School during the past decade at Sicyon, the Heræum, Icaria, and Corinth are acknowledged by the leading scholars of Europe to be a great credit to our country, and give American scholarship a position which it has never held before.

The work of the Greek Archæological Society on and about the Acropolis is now finished. This is not the place to recount the many important finds that have been made on this site within the past few years. The old rock and its western declivity are now denuded of all Frankish and Turkish additions. The Acropolis is again a precinct of sanctuaries, though in ruin, and stands out above the modern city more rugged and severely beautiful than when its approaches were disfigured by bastions and bulwarks of modern construction. The Parthenon has still a scaffolding on its western façade to facilitate the work of placing supports and pieces of architrave and columns where time and bombs and earthquakes had wrought most ruin. It is expected, however, that this needed work of restoration will be completed in the course of a few months.

Martin L. D'Ooge.

Athens, December 18, 1899.

SUUM CUIQUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your recent appreciative and discriminating notice of 'The Methods and Materials of Literary Criticism' accidentally misstates the respective shares of the collaborators in that work. If your reviewer's epitome of authorship by chapters be, in general, retained, it should read, "Theory of Criticism, History of Criticism (mainly by Prof. Scott), Theory of Art (partly by Prof. Gayley), Development of Art, Theory of Literature, Comparative Literature (mainly by Prof. Scott), Theory of Poetry, Historical Study of Poetry, Historical Study of Poetics, and Principles of Versification (mainly by Prof. Gayley)."

But it would, in truth, be impossible for the authors themselves to indicate exactly the contribution of each to chapters that have been ten years on the stocks; and, in their inability to make more definite apportionment of their labors, they are of a mind that the best parts of the book were written by both, and the worst by neither. Each is, however, generously disposed to appropriate whatever credit may be got out of it.—Yours sincerely, The Authors.

January, 1900.

BIBLE DICTIONARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What you say about a Bible Dictionary, with special reference to Prof. Davis's new book, suggests that there may be known to you some better work which would be adapted for persons "already wandering in darkness," or at least not "satisfied with the Princeton position." If such a book is on the market, will you not kindly print its title and publisher?—Respectfully,

Seth Greer.

January 6, 1900.

[Our correspondent's question is somewhat vague. If the book wanted is a dic-

tionary of the Bible on about the same scale as that of Prof. Davis (*i. e.*, a single, moderate-sized volume), we must reply that we know of none that can be recommended with any warmth. On the other hand, two *large* Bible dictionaries are being published at present, and each has excellent points. Of one of these, Hastings's 'Bible Dictionary' (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark), two volumes out of the four of which it is to consist have appeared. Of the other, the 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' edited by Drs. Cheyne and Black (The Macmillan Co.), only one volume has appeared, but it also will consist of four. We shall publish shortly an extended review of this last. Both books can be heartily recommended. The first will be the more valuable for non-specialists; the second will appeal most to the specialist, but even he will require both. In questions of Biblical theology Hastings easily leads —from Cheyne such matters are practically excluded; in details of exact scholarship Cheyne is richer. But if what our correspondent wants is not necessarily a dictionary of the Bible, but any book which will enable a layman to find his way in the present labyrinth of criticism, and to keep his head through it all, then we would advise him to try Dr. Washington Gladden's three books, 'Who Wrote the Bible?' 'Seven Puzzling Books,' and 'How Much Is Left?' These are not intended for the student, but for the plain man who cannot be satisfied with the old formulæ, yet who wishes to hold fast to the old truth.—Ed. Nation.]

DECISION WITHOUT REASONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question you put on page 37 of your last issue is answered by the following quotation from Mill's 'Logic' (8th ed., N. Y., 1881, p. 144):

"Almost every one knows Lord Mansfield's advice to a man of practical good sense, who, being appointed governor of a colony, had to preside in its courts of justice, without previous judicial practice or legal education. The advice was to give his decision boldly, for it would probably be right; but never to venture on assigning reasons, for they would almost infallibly be wrong." X.

DID PLATO ERR?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. White's note in your issue of the 11th inst., which seems to indicate that Goethe was a victim of the delusion that mistakes the last year of one century for the first year of the next, brings to my recollection a passage about Henrik Steffens in Hansen's 'Illustreret Dansk Literaturhistorie.' The passage runs as follows:

"New Year's eve, the 31st of December, 1800, found him at a court masquerade in Weimar. After midnight Goethe, Schiller, Schelling, and Steffens withdrew from the ball, and in an adjoining room drank champagne to welcome the new year. Goethe was jovial, Schiller held instructive discourse, Schelling was quiet, and Steffens found joyous entertainment in noting the various effects of the wine upon these great spirits."

This account, if accurate, saves Goethe from the imputation of having thought that there were only ninety-nine years in the eighteenth century.—Yours faithfully,

William Morton Payne.

Chicago, January 13, 1900.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In spite of many provocations, I have so far abstained from writing to any periodical in regard to the beginning of the twentieth or any other century. But Prof. White's little note in this week's number of the *Nation*, which I saw a few hours ago, forces me to say that Schiller as well as Goethe soon gave up the idea of 1800 being the first year of the nineteenth century. The letters exchanged between the two poets during the latter part of that year show that, in the words of Düntzer ('Life of Schiller' [translated], page 403), "The confederates wished to celebrate the opening of a new century [1801] by theatric festivities for which Schiller was particularly active." However, "the Duke had declared against the Centenary" and "Schiller drew back in disgust." "On the last evening of the year and century they met at the masquerade got up by the Court. . . . After midnight the two poets, with Schelling and Steffens, retired into the side rooms, and had a pleasant talk over champagne."*

As to Heine's jest, it is, of course, as well known to Prof. White as to me that the poet did not state, in so many words, that he was born "on the *first of January*," but "in der Neujahrsnacht Achtzehnhundert," that is to say, as it were, between the 31st of December and the 1st of January. I should not speak of this in particular if I did not think that Heine got this century joke from the real date of his birthday, January 13, which, turned about, gives 31, so that originally the December day was uppermost in his mind. Hence, the wrong date of his birth, equally familiar to Prof. White, which was formerly found in so many books.

While I was writing these lines there reached me (irony of fate!) one of the new German century postal cards with a radiant sun and a big 1900 on it, besides the Germania on the embossed stamp, stamped, "1.1.00 2-3V," that is, freely to quote Heine, "in der Neujahrsnacht Neunzehnhundert." I need scarcely mention that the authors inform me of their being gathered "das alte Jahr scheiden zu sehen und das *neue Jahrhundert* zu empfangen." Of course, when we give up the 18.. in our correspondence, we have the *feeling* that a new century begins. But, notwithstanding this, it is acknowledged by the serious writers of Germany (*e. g.*, Brockhaus's 'Konversations-lexicon,' *sub* "Jahrhundert") that the new century begins with 1901. On pages 13 and 14 of Kürschner's well-known 'Jahrbuch' for this year is to be found a reprint from 'Der Bote aus Thüringen' (Schnepfenthal, 1800), entitled, "Wann beginnt das neue Jahrhundert?" This should be sufficient to enlighten the Pope of Rome and the Emperor of Berlin.—Very truly, E. Leser.

Bloomington, Ind., January 13, 1900.

*Compare Düntzer, Goethe's Life II. 181, note on Schiller's New Year letter of 1800; also, Karl Heinemann, Goethe, II. 228, and the Schiller biography by Wychgram.

Notes.

The Macmillan Company's spring announcements embrace 'Democracy and Empire,' by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings; 'Politics and Administration,' by Prof. Frank J. Goodnow; a 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology,' edited by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; a 'Cyclopædia of American Horticulture,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell; a second series of 'Studies in Literature,' by Prof. Lewis E. Gates; 'Makers of Literature,' biographical essays by Prof. George E. Woodberry; 'The Evolution of the English Novel,' by Prof. Francis H. Stoddard of New York University; 'The Men Who Made the Nation,' by Prof. Edwin E. Sparks; 'The Golden Horseshoe,' the story of American expansion, by Stephen Bonsal; "Source Readers of American History," volume i., 'Colonial Children,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart; 'Extracts from the Sources of English History,' by Elizabeth K. Kendall of Wellesley; 'European Travel for Women,' by Mary Cadwalader Jones; 'Highways and Byways in Normandy,' by Percy Dearmer, illustrated by Hugh Thomson and Joseph Pennell; 'A History of Gothic Art in England,' by E. S. Prior; the first volume of a 'Dictionary of Architecture,' edited by Russell Sturgis; 'Dante Gabriel Rossetti,' an illustrated memorial of his art and life, by H. C. Marillier; 'The Life of Edward White Benson, Sometime Archbishop of Canterbury,' by his son Arthur Christopher Benson; 'More Letters of Edward FitzGerald,' edited by W. Aldis Wright; a 'Concordance to FitzGerald's Omar Khayyám,' by J. R. Tutin; and 'The Welsh People: Their Origin, Language, and History,' by Prof. John Rhys.

D. Appleton & Co.'s January announcements include Maspero's 'The Passing of Empires,' translated by M. L. McClure and edited by Prof. Sayce; the late David A. Wells's 'Principles of Taxation'; the fifth volume of Prof. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States'; and 'The Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals,' by Prof. Joseph Le Conte.

Harper & Brothers will speedily publish 'Thackeray's Hitherto Unidentified Contributions to *Punch*,' by M. H. Spielmann, in a volume uniform with the recent "Biographical Edition" of the novelist.

'Three Men on a Bicycle,' by Jerome K. Jerome, will be published early in the spring by Dodd, Mead & Co., and Tolstoy's 'Resurrection' probably before next autumn.

The Abbey Press, No. 114 Fifth Avenue, announce 'Danger Signals for New Century Manhood,' by Edward A. Tabor.

A book will be made, by the Century Company, of Ernest Seton Thompson's 'Biography of a Grizzly,' already published in their magazine.

Henry Frowde will soon issue four volumes of classical texts in the projected series "Scriptorum Classicorum Bibliotheca Oxoniensis," viz., Thucydides, edited by H. S. Jones; Plato, by J. Burnet; Lucretius, by C. Bailey; and Tacitus, by H. Furneaux.

'Hazell's Annual for 1900' (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney) will be prized for reference on no account more than for its succinct chronicle of the Transvaal imbroglio, in its several stages, often with textual quotations from the dispatches. A small map accompanies the article. Useful sum-

maries, too, are those of the Commissioners' report on the Newfoundland French treaty shore question, and the report of the Royal Commissions on the licensing laws and local taxation. Other momentous subjects similarly illustrated are the Conference at The Hague, the Venezuelan arbitration, the Dreyfus affair, etc. The Annual is kept remarkably up to date. It notes the "all-well" condition at Ladysmith on December 1, and, under United States, tells of the Samoan agreement, the "open-door" negotiations with other Powers for China, and the death of Vice-President Hobart. The editor, in his preface, lays stress on the extension of the biographies which are one of the features of this publication; but we fail to discover in the American portion any of the new war lights of the past two years. All are eclipsed by Bryan—his wind power proving a better title to fame even than Capt. Mahan's sea power.

A portrait of President Eliot, etched by a foreign hand not unfaithfully, is the frontispiece to the ninth issue of the "almanac of the learned world," *Minerva* (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). A very handsome tribute is paid him by the editors, in an apology for deviating from their custom as to the choice of subjects for portraiture (among professors). They speak of the power, authority, and responsibility of American college presidents, among whom Harvard's head is "der hervorragendste und der Führer." The other new feature of this ever growing annual is a list of significant scientific congresses scheduled for the current year. These are arranged alphabetically according to the place of meeting, Paris being preëminently the common ground, with forty-three congresses (out of some hundred, we believe, appointed there during the Exposition), while only six are held elsewhere. Sometimes the programme and usually the chief officers are given.

It is a pity when a master makes sport for the Philistines. Dr. Green of Princeton is a Hebraist such as there are few in this country. He has upheld a lost cause with loyalty and ability; but he would have been well advised either not to publish his 'Introduction to the Text of the Old Testament' (Charles Scribner's Sons), or to subject it before publication to an exhaustive revision. As it is, it evidently consists of lectures compiled some considerable time ago and very inadequately brought up to date. It is, presumably, accidental that there is no reference to Driver's 'Introduction,' though his earlier views on some points which were afterwards modified in the 'Introduction' are given at length. Yet why the great plan of the Cambridge Septuagint should be ignored; why Tattam should be the latest Coptic scholar mentioned; why the elder Hoffmann (who wrote in 1828!) should be the authority quoted for the history of the Hebrew script; why Gesenius (*clarum et venerabile nomen*, but undoubtedly antiquated) should often be the leading and only authority—these all be hard questions. The book as it stands is a most grievous mistake.

The prospectus of a magazine to be "conducted on Twentieth Century ideas" by the Press Biographical Company, New York, is before us.

Mr. Charles F. Lummis may take a solid satisfaction in putting on his shelf the eleventh volume of his pictorial monthly *Land of Sunshine* (Los Angeles), both as one more triumph over the difficulties of establishing such a magazine on the Pacific Coast, and for its intrinsic return to his subscribers and readers. Besides the unfailing exhibition of the attractions of the Coast, and the literary articles in prose and verse, and the editor's own frank utterances on politics and books, we find in the half-year embraced in this volume a translation (never before made) of the whole of the Viceroy Revilla-Gigedo's Report on California, 1768-1793, and the beginning of a translation of Fray Zarate-Salmeron's Relacion concerning the "New Mexico" of his time, 1538-1626. This is the third in the important series of historical sources with which Mr. Lummis has freighted his pleasure-craft. Nor should we omit to mention his trenchant discussion of our treatment of the Indians, under the caption, "My Brother's Keeper." The note of industry implied in all this personal editorial contribution is striking indeed.

The movement of population in France continues to arouse discussion, and at the annual meeting of the Society of Social Economy, in December, M. Fournier de Flaix presented an elaborate essay on the subject. He attempted to show that the situation was not so grave as was commonly believed, but he was obliged to resort to arguments of the most recondite and even absurd character. He made the paradoxical statement that, during the nineteenth century, the population of France had increased more rapidly than at any other period; but this increase occurred almost wholly during the period of repose which followed the cessation of the wars of Napoleon, and since 1871 population has been either stationary or declining. M. Bertillon criticised the essay severely, but had nothing positive to suggest except the fantastic measures advocated by the National Alliance for the Increase of the French Population. This Alliance maintains that it is the patriotic duty of every Frenchman to marry and beget at least three children, and relies, in effect, on a system of bounties for large families. But it must be admitted that in so far as its measures contemplate a reduction of taxes, they are well conceived. There is some evidence that not only the population but also the wealth of France is declining, and unless the burdens of industry are lessened the decadence may become serious.

The introduction of the study of the Russian language in the continuation schools and in one of the gymnasia in Berlin has, of course, a more than purely educational significance, especially as this new departure coincides very closely with a movement among German manufacturers of machinery towards the establishment of permanent exhibitions of their products in Russian trade-centres. The young men availing themselves of this new opportunity are sons of high military and civil officers, and technical students, discerning in the land beyond the Vistula and the distant regions beyond the Obi a promising field of activity. The instruction is given by the official Russian interpreter at the Prussian courts and offices of state. The linguistic training of young Germans has long been recognized (by English chambers of commerce and other interested parties) as one of the principal causes of their successful careers in foreign parts, and, in consequence, of the rise of German trade and industry. Our own young men may as well take the hint.

The fourth annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science will be held in Philadelphia on April 19 and 20, with Corporations and Public Welfare for the general topic—*e. g.*, governmental control over public-service corporations (gas, street railways, water); the influence of corporations on political life; combination of capital as a factor in industrial progress; the future of protection.

The Secretary of the League of Social Service, No. 297 Fourth Avenue, New York, will, on application, furnish particulars regarding the proposed "Paris International Assembly" to be established in connection with the great Exposition. Its main feature, we are told, will be "the largest application yet conceived of the summer-school idea," and it will "help bring the right people to the various departments of the Exposition and to the Congresses," and provide the more serious-minded visitors with "expert guidance, rendezvous and information bureaus," lecture courses, excursions, and even private hospitality.

—In vols. lv.-lviii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.) we receive a premonition of the fact that this great series is drawing to its close. The formal Relations, which began in 1632 with LeJeune's vivid description of his first efforts among the Montagnais, end, in vol. lvi., with the second instalment of Dablon's Relation for 1671-72. Henceforth, we shall see no more of the carefully prepared reports which were either written or edited by the local superior at Quebec, and sent home to the French provincial to be printed at the press of Cramoisy. With the extension of the sphere of Jesuit influence, it has evidently become impossible for any one so to coördinate the dispatches from widely severed fields as to give the effect of unity. Accordingly, a new practice establishes itself, and the compact Relation of the year gives way to a collection of letters, which, however, as a rule, reaches the printer by the same stages which have been already noted in the case of the Relation itself. This change in the form of the reports is coincident with and represents the final broadening out of Jesuit missions. The characteristic feature of vols. lv.-lviii. (which cover the four years, 1671-1674) is transition from the dominating interest of Iroquois topics to matters connected with the Far West and the Far North. The names of Albanel, Allouez, Joliet, and Marquette all suggest new regions which the French were developing at the moment when Dablon sent in the last of the Cramoisy Relations. Of these four explorers, Albanel is probably the least known, and we shall accordingly refer to his journey in the Hudson's Bay country. Dablon says, in editing Albanel's journal, that "the famous bay to which Hutson gave his name," had long stirred the curiosity of the French and made them wish to know the land route thither. In 1671 purely geographical motives received an impetus from the report that foreign ships had arrived in the bay, and had opened up the peltry trade in regions where all fur-bearing animals abounded. Talon, the Intendant, accordingly thought it his duty to act promptly on behalf of the national interests, and the expedition which started from Tadoussac in August had more than his sanction; it owed its origin to his suggestion. A missionary, Albanel, was put at its head because, from

his intercourse with the Montagnais and Attikamagues, he could best converse with the northern tribes and explain to them the virtues of Onontio, besides the advantages which would result from trading with the French rather than with any other European race. Albanel, after a hard journey, reached Hudson's Bay only to find the English there before him. His narrative effectively disposes of the claim that the French were the first to establish posts on this northern sea.

—'How England Saved Europe' (Scribners) is the picturesque title of a work in which Dr. W. H. Fitchett rehearses the events of the Great War, 1795-1815. "England has saved herself by her exertions, and will, as I trust, save Europe by her example"; these last public words of Pitt are here forced to furnish both a title and a motto. We have only the first volume before us, but it can easily be seen that the three succeeding parts will also have a military character, and will be written in a spirited way from the British standpoint. " 'I have made war upon you for twenty years.' Napoleon, with somewhat vague arithmetic, condenses into that brief sentence the chief aim of his great career as a soldier, the whole policy of his Empire. And the satire of history is illustrated by the fact that these words were spoken as a prisoner in the cabin of a British man-of-war, and to a couple of British officers by the greatest military genius the world has known since Hannibal, and who had fought against England as Hannibal fought against Rome; 'the man of a thousand thrones,' who had made and unmade kings, and entered well-nigh every capital in Europe in turn as a conqueror. His twenty years of war with England had landed him there!" There is a certain ring about the allusion to Hannibal which reminds one forcibly of the most famous paragraph in Dr. Arnold's 'History of Rome,' but we have quoted this passage to disclose the tone which Dr. Fitchett uses. He views the long duel as an epic struggle with a clearly defined Nemesis. From the moment when, "at half-past six on the morning of February 25, 1793, three battalions of the Guards, equipped for foreign service, were drawn up on the parade-ground in what is now the rear of the Horse Guards," a great catastrophe was preparing. From the very beginning Dr. Fitchett does not once lose sight of the end. He presents us with the spectacle of Napoleon standing on the deck of the *Bellerophon* even before he has described the main conditions of the contest. His first volume extends from the French regicide to the defence of Acre by Sir Sidney Smith. Thus the record is largely one of sea-fights, and the period has already been covered by Capt. Mahan. However, as Dr. Fitchett does not write for specialists, any profit which he may have derived from a study of the "Sea Power" series is in the nature of gain to his audience. Apart from the description of manœuvres at sea, where he can hardly escape following Mahan, he goes at some length into the state of the service, and discloses the spirit of mutiny and disaffection which existed at the very time when the most brilliant victories were being won. 1797, the year of St. Vincent and Camperdown, witnessed an almost incredibly large number of trials for mutiny and sedition. Dr. Fitchett is sympathetic towards ability wherever he finds it, and his entertaining style should give him a wide circle of readers.

—The late Dr. James Martineau, who died on January 12 in the ninety-fifth year of his age, was easily the first of English Unitarians for a period of more than fifty years before his death. Dr. Priestley is the only other of them whose fame is at all likely to rival his in the historical perspective. Martineau was not a good sectarian, and his coreligionists were often grieved because he lent himself so grudgingly to their sectarian organization. He was always glad to call himself a Unitarian, but unwilling to connect himself with organizations carrying a theological distinction in their names. On the eightieth anniversary of his birth, in response to the greetings of the National Conference of English Unitarians, he declared his "conviction that the true religious life supplies grounds of sympathy and association deeper and wiser than can be expressed by any doctrinal names or formulas; and that free play can never be given to these spiritual affinities till all stipulation, direct or implied, for specified agreement in theological opinion is discarded from the bases of church union." He did not hope for the disestablishment of the National Church, but for such reformation of it that it might include all aspects of sincere belief and earnest life. His influence was not confined to the Unitarian body. He had many readers and disciples in the National and dissenting churches, and the religious literature of England has had many clear reflections of his thought. A prominent writer in the Reviews for sixty years, contemporary with Carlyle and Newman and Mill and Darwin and Spencer, he had a leading part in all the greater controversies of the time, and the sweep of his learning and the keenness of his dialectic made him an antagonist whose youth nor manhood no man could despise. The most painful episode of his career was his misunderstanding with his sister Harriet, who enthusiastically adopted the philosophical and ethical opinions from which he had turned away. He maintained a rigid silence when assailed by Harriet's friends until the appearance of Mrs. F. Fenwick Miller's life of his sister in the "Famous Women Series." Then the superfluous assault upon his mother's memory elicited from him a sharp rejoinder. Harvard College gave him the degree of LL.D. in 1872, the University of Leyden the degree of Doctor of Theology in 1875, and Edinburgh University the degree of D.D. in 1884.

—Mr. Oliveira Lima, Secretary of the Brazilian Legation at Washington, has published a volume ('Nos Estados Unidos') of political and social impressions derived from a three years' sojourn in this country (Leipzig: Brockhaus.) His eleven chapters must not be judged as a symmetrical essay, for they are composed of articles contributed to the *Revista Brazileira* and of letters to the *Jornal do Commercio*. Mr. Lima gives us, therefore, first and current impressions, and is not concerned with proportion or closeness of texture. His review of American writers, for instance, filling some forty pages, devotes seven pages to Mark Twain and sixteen to John Fiske, who has seldom been praised by a more hearty admirer. Illustrative of his discursiveness is the occurrence, in the chapter entitled "Effects of Immigration," of a summary account of the contents of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in this city. Boston's Public Library, park system, and historical associations are also here touched off, in paragraphs which end with a parable of G. W. Steevens's about a Bostonian's likening Irish rule in his city to negro electoral supremacy at the South. A really pertinent fact, had it been known to Mr. Lima, would have been that the Irish citizens of Boston had far more to do with saving the old State-House from demolition than the blue blood of Beacon Hill. "Woman's Influence" is discussed with but incidental mention of woman's suffrage, and with no apparent knowledge of the origin of the agitation in favor of it. Similarly, lynching is little dwelt upon in the opening chapter on "The Negro Problem," nor is any notice taken of the tendency towards caste separation of the races in the new Southern industrial development. In that constant comparison of the two republics which is one of the writer's motives for publication, he remarks, on page 52, that such a law as that which prevails at the South, prohibiting intermarriage of white and black, could never be enacted or executed in Brazil. The peculiar form of crime which incites our Southern lynching, he adds, is not on the increase in Brazil since emancipation; but he stops short of suggesting that the abrogation of our Southern statutes against intermarriage would perhaps tend to reduce the frequency of the offence so much feared and so savagely avenged.

—The latest issue of the Berlin Royal Ethnological Museum's publications is again brimful of the best scientific matter. The first half of the sixth volume, just out, is taken up entirely with contributions to Mexican archæology made by Dr. Edward Seler. Of his "eighteen annual festive periods" of ancient Mexico the first section is presented in the last number, his principal authority being Bernardino Sahagun, a Franciscan clergyman who arrived in Mexico from León, his natal province, in 1529, and died in 1590. The circumstance that this author wrote but shortly after the conquest renders his descriptions especially valuable. Sahagun composed the twelve books of his 'Historia General de las Cosas de Nueva España' in the Nahuatl language. The two parts of it are now kept in two different libraries at Madrid, but the whole also exists in an ancient copy with fine illustrations, in part translated into Spanish. This manuscript was recently discovered in the Biblioteca Laurenziana in Florence, Italy, by Zelia Nuttall. What has been hitherto published of Sahagun's archæological work gives only a faint idea of the contents and the high value of the whole. The eighteen annual feasts discussed by Dr. Seler are based on the calendar which was common to the Mexican and Maya nations, and counted, to make up the year, eighteen sections of twenty days each. In Mexico a section was called *compoualli*, from the word for *twenty*, and each section had its own name, ceremonies, and sacrifices. In Seler's article the ceremonies attending every section are described by prefixing Sahagun's Nahuatl text, and then adding his own German translation with extensive comments, by which a full understanding is made possible.

—The subjects discussed in the two other papers of vol. vi., part 1, are of equal interest. One of them, "Pictorial Images of the Mex-

ican Annual Celebrations," describes the feasts, ceremonials, pageants, and mummery attending these popular demonstrations, and may be regarded as a sort of abstract or recapitulation of the former article. The accompanying pictures are taken from various Nahuatl codices, but without the gaudy coloring of the originals. "Sorcery and Wizards in Ancient Mexico" is the title of another erudite article in the same fascicle. For ethnologic science the beliefs and symbolism of witchcraft are always instructive, and among primitive nations like those of Mexico the practice of medicine (or say of healing) is intimately connected with sorcery and jugglery. As among our northern Indians, the members of the "faculty" belonged to several classes, and for Mexico Dr. Seler establishes four—the medicine men (*titici*), the soothsayers (*tlahpouqué*), the jugglers (*teixcuepanimē*), and the wizards or sorcerers proper (*nanualtin*), who were also forecasters or prophets, rainmakers, and producers of hallucinations. Many of them were doing their best to benefit the race, but others, probably the majority, were intent upon inflicting injury upon their fellow-men.

SEA-POWER ETHICS.

Lessons of the War with Spain, and Other Articles. By Alfred T. Mahan, D.C.L., LL.D., Captain United States Navy, etc. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. Pp. 320.

We have here a new volume in which are collected the essays that Captain Mahan has published in the past year. Five of them make a series which gives the title to the book. The other four treat of subjects more or less closely allied to the imperialist expansion, of which the author is a leading advocate. The essays upon the war with Spain are a very instructive and interesting analysis of the naval operations in the West Indies, and, considered as a discussion of the war as actually conducted, could not easily be improved. The author's professional knowledge and his study of the broader problems of naval strategy give lucid expositions of the recurring critical situations in the Caribbean Sea, while his position as member of the strategy board at Washington makes his explanation of the reasons which controlled the naval conflict authoritative. The efforts to advocate his imperialist theories are kept subordinate to the historical presentation, and do not challenge much debate. In the essay on Distinguishing Qualities of Ships of War we find also good professional treatment of the subject, skilfully adapted to popular comprehension.

The other papers may properly be treated as a politician's partisan advocacy of the imperialism which builds upon conquest the policy of assuming the rôle of a "great Power," in the European sense, asserting a potent influence in every world-controversy, and taking a hand in every scheme for the spread of empire. The essay on our Relations to our New Dependencies is a statement of principles of government, by a conquering Power, over dependent peoples, for their own good (from the conqueror's point of view). It is a summary of the policy which Great Britain has evolved from much painful experience, and, if rights of weaker communities to self-government are put among the exploded whimsies of our youth and the discarded "swaddling-clothes" of our infancy, the author's exhortations to be guided by "beneficence," as well as self-interest, do credit to his heart. If we must have despotism, by all means let it be the maternal despotism which Captain Mahan describes.

In the essay upon the Peace Conference and the Moral Aspect of War, we reach the discussion of fundamental principles of ethics as the basis of law, whether municipal or international. As to what the Conference of The Hague actually did, the author expresses a mild approval, when it is limited to the affirmation of the decision "that it is to arbitration men must look for relief [from the evils of war] rather than to partial disarmament, or even to an arrest in the progress of preparations for war" (p. 208). He sees, however, "cause for serious reflection when this most humane impulse is seen to favor methods which, by compulsion, shall vitally impair the moral freedom and the consequent moral responsibility which are the distinguishing glory of the rational man and of the sovereign state" (p. 209). He seems to have found in the Conference, and in the friendly discussion of the proposals before it, this tendency to put the duty to arbitrate international disputes among the agreed principles of international law, so that the conferring Powers consenting thereto might apply to future disputes that moral coercion to arbitrate which is now found in the other agreed principles, such as, for instance, the rule that you shall not slaughter your prisoners. This tendency, though it resulted in no action in the Conference, he finds it his duty to combat vigorously, lest the distinguishing glory of the sovereign state should be eclipsed. The philosophy upon which the contention is based is presented with formidable sea-power.

The first postulate laid down is that "one of the most unfortunate characteristics of our present age is the disposition to impose by legislative enactment—by external compulsion, that is—restrictions of a moral character which are either fundamentally unjust, or at least do not carry with them the moral sense of the community as a whole" (p. 209). The argumentative use of this is to create in the reader a readiness to rebel against legislative control. But in truth no period of the world's history has been so free from such an "unfortunate characteristic." Never has the tendency been so strong towards local and individual autonomy; towards freedom of thought and of action; towards liberty of speech and untrammelled locomotion; towards easy bonds of allegiance and liberal practice of expatriation. The postulate is a false assumption in fact.

The next step is to assert the right and the duty to follow one's own conscience, in obedience or disobedience to public law. One need have little quarrel with the proposition if enlightened conscience were properly distinguished from ignorant or ill-educated impulses; if the anarchical tendency of denying authority were fully weighed; if the obligation to preserve and respect human society were measured; if the presumptions in favor of law were not casually named, but soberly analyzed. So far from this being done, the author states, as the thing to be "carefully kept in mind," that it is not the "absolute right or wrong of the particular act, as seen in the clearer light of a later day," that justifies men in disobedience. "The saving salt which has preserved the healthfulness of the body politic has been the fidelity to conscience, to the faithful, if passionate, arbiter of the moment" (p. 212). To call such hasty, passionate action on the impulse of the moment conscientious, is a simple abuse of language. When a man is face to face with the choice between obedience to law or rebellion against it, passion and haste are the opposites of conscience, and most commonly used to silence its judgments. By such inversions of the meaning of terms, the absurd logic is easy by which the author concludes that making war for slavery is as conscientious as making war to resist it, and, after a holocaust of human lives and the desolation of half a continent, not only is nobody morally responsible, but the aggressors "made no small contribution to the record of fidelity to conscience and to duty which is the highest title of a nation to honor" (p. 213). To cap the paradox, he affirms, in the same paragraph, his agreement with Lincoln that "if slavery is not wrong nothing is wrong." His stunning conclusion is that the Slave Power would have been wicked not to make the war, because, "be it by action or be it by submission, by action positive or action negative, whatever is not of faith—of conviction—is sin." He omits to draw the final conclusion which his logic demands, that Nothing *is* wrong.

One would naturally suppose that the conclusion that men and nations may be equally conscientious on either side of the most bloody conflicts, nay, that they would "sin" if they did not fight on the side of the most plain and demonstrable of wrongs, would find its most evident corollary in the doctrine of general arbitration. In such a muddle it would seem wise beyond dispute to submit our differences to disinterested tribunals guided by standards of right which are based upon the assent of the ages, and so escape from the wars that must follow the imaginary dictates of a bogus conscience which may approve either side of a conflict between liberty and slavery, and which decides passionately and on the moment. Far from it. The logical stress only nerves the ethical philosopher to the dialectic feat of asserting that this conscientious judgment that right is wrong makes it wrong, and that "even the material evils of war are less than the moral evil of compliance with wrong" (p. 215). How consoling to the anarchist who threw his bomb into the French Assembly, and what a noble justification to our compatriot in Sulu who runs amuck that he may win the Moslem paradise! The final word of Jingo philosophy is, "It is not the accuracy of the decision, but the faithfulness to conviction, that constitutes the moral worth of an action, national or individual" (p. 216). The Sulu *juramentado* is faithful unto death, and Captain Mahan, if consistent, must echo the voice of Allah, Come thou blessed!

As is usual in self-deluding fallacies, having made an absurd definition of conscience, having divorced it from all criteria of right as recognized by the common judgment of mankind and left it to the impulse of the individual, true or false, strong or weak, wise or foolish, the author now slides back to the common notion of conscience as a God-given judgment in real accord with unselfish ideals and love to our neighbor. The

"passionate arbiter of the moment" again becomes the diligent searcher of his own bosom, its motives and its standards, and the authority of such a deliberate, altruistic judgment is coolly transferred to the counterfeit. "Between God and man," he tells us, "no other arbiter comes; and if this be so, a pledge beforehand [to arbitrate] is impossible" (p. 220). He thus reaches the sad conclusion that a treaty agreeing to arbitrate future disputes is contrary to conscience, and, of course, wicked. He is willing to concede that there may be some mere interests, not involving conscience, which may be submitted to arbitration; but the door is so wide open to making anything a point of conscience that, even as to past differences, the field of arbitration is too narrow to waste time upon. The ancient, authoritative maxim of law, that "no one is a rightful judge in his own cause," is thus deposed in favor of the truly imperialistic one that everybody is his own sole judge, by divine right. If general war shall follow, the universal conflagration will only illumine and bring into stronger relief the moral grandeur of the resistance to coercion even to keep the peace; for compulsory arbitration assumes "a moral obligation to do or to allow a wrong" (p. 224).

From such a point of view it is not strange that peace should seem ignoble, and war rise to the dignity of a world's benefactor. "Step by step, in the past, man has ascended by means of the sword, and his more recent gains as well as present conditions show that the time has not yet come *to kick down the ladder which has so far served him*" (p. 230). We italicize the phrase which so charmingly characterizes the base ingratitude to War which is a crying sin of the present age. If any of us are so belated in progress as still to hold that the *gradus ad Parnassum* is found in peaceful education, developing ideas of the true, the beautiful, and the good, leading on to standards of justice heartily respected, and good will to our neighbor spontaneously exercised, we here find our deserved condemnation and correction. Swords, not ideas, are the rungs of the ladder of human progress. We are now taught that it was the sword, and not the vigorous growth of law, of letters, and of free religion, that made the land of Grotius the enlightened country it is. It was Philip's remorseless war upon its advanced notions in intellect and private conscience that was the praiseworthy cause of great good. If we have foolishly supposed that progressive enlightenment was the precedent condition of the high position the Dutch nation attained, and the sword was Philip's wicked instrument of oppression, let us hasten to correct our ignorance. If we have imagined that Philip and Alva were foiled, and that noble enlightenment survived in spite of (not by reason of) the Spanish bigot's war, though the sword was backed by the gibbet, the rack, and the stake, let us recant our misjudgment of the conscientious king, and glorify not only the sword but his other pious instrumentalities. If we have weakly thought that when the Ruler of the Universe "maketh the wrath of man to praise him," he does not thereby sanctify the wrath and transmute it into holiness, let us confess our error and be humbly thankful that, even at this late day, we have enjoyed the teaching of a professor emeritus of Jingo ethics. In our wicked effort to overturn the ladder of swords, we have only been "kicking against the pricks."

SMITH'S NEW TRADES COMBINATION.

The New Trades Combination Movement; Its Principles, Methods, and Progress. By E. J. Smith. With an Introduction by the Rev. J. Carter, M.A., Bursar of Pusey House, Oxford. London: Rivingtons. 1899.

During the last seven or eight years a most significant movement has been making headway in business circles in England, especially in the Midlands, around Birmingham—a movement which has hitherto hardly attracted in this country all the attention it deserves. A certain Mr. E. J. Smith, evidently a man of original and masterful character, who had made his way up to the position of an employer through all the grades of journeyman, foreman, manager, and traveller, has managed to induce almost all the manufacturers in his own line of business, the metallic bedstead trade, to form a close combination of an altogether novel type. So successful has this "Alliance" proved, and so persuasive has been Mr. Smith's advocacy of his plan as applicable to any industry and a blessing to all concerned, that he has been invited to organize some half-a-dozen others among the smaller trades on the same lines. Now every few months some fresh combination or other is launched under his auspices.

All this has not happened without a great amount of opposition from recalcitrant manufacturers, and also of sweeping and bitter criticism in the public press. The editors of the English *Economic Review* were quick-sighted enough to perceive the possible significance of the movement. Mr. Smith was nothing loath to appeal to economists, and contributed a series of articles in explanation of his plan, the first on its general principles, the others on its relation to the workman, to the foreign competitor, and to the consumer, respectively; and it is these articles which have now been collected in a handy little volume, with an introduction by the Rev. John Carter, the able and energetic secretary of the Christian Social Union.

Mr. Smith is of opinion that the main cause of business distress in all its forms, and of the effort to reduce wages to make up for falling profits, or to ward off bankruptcy, is to be found in the temptation, to which manufacturers are exposed by the pressure of competition, to sell below cost. He asserts that, absurd as it may seem, a large number of manufacturers have in fact no definite and accurate notion of the cost of producing the articles they deal in. The first principle, therefore, on which he insists is the necessity of correctly "taking out costs." This is largely a matter for the accountant, though it involves several interesting questions to be referred to later. The next step is to induce all the manufacturers of a particular trade, after following certain common rules of cost-taking adjusted to the average business, to agree to fix the price of each article by adding a certain definite percentage of profit. So far there is nothing particularly new in the scheme. The difficulty has always been to hold the members of the association to the agreement: it has never seemed possible to get out of them a guarantee payment sufficiently large to make its forfeiture a serious consideration. One of the expedients to which similar combinations have had recourse in this country, namely, a compact with the transportation agencies, is impracticable in England; another, to wit, a system of discounts to buyers, is commonly inadequate. Mr. Smith's invention to overcome the difficulty is nothing more nor less than an open and avowed coalition with the workmen in the trade. He insists that where the men are not already organized they shall be formed into a union, and that the masters shall engage to employ no non-unionists, in return for the agreement of the union to work for no employer not belonging to the Alliance. Accordingly, a manufacturer who breaks away from the Alliance has to reckon, at the very outset, with a strike of his employees.

The assistance of the men is not obtained for nothing. The bargain between the two associations of employers and employed contains elaborate provisions for a bonus on wages in proportion to an increase in prices, and for a Joint Conciliation Board to settle all possible matters of dispute. According to a late Lord Mayor of Birmingham, the increase in remuneration has amounted in the bedstead trade to 25 per cent. The general results have been thus summed up in a characteristic speech by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain:

> "In a trade in which every one, whether workman or employer, was dissatisfied, he has brought contentment. Wages, I believe, have been increased, profits have become larger, and, curious to relate, the demand and the production have increased at the same time. This experiment, I believe, is capable of great development. I understood, when I was last in Bradford, that a great trade in that city has agreed to adopt the principles upon which Mr. Smith has secured success. . . . I am always glad that a new light should proceed from Birmingham."

Even the Bedstead Alliance, however, is not yet out of the woods. It is true that the outcry against it would seem to have proceeded, not from the general public, but from the ironmongers and other middlemen who have hitherto been able to play off one manufacturer against another. For months there has been talk of the establishment of an opposition factory at Antwerp; but it is probably only talk. Yet it would be strange if a neighborhood so characterized by individual initiative as the Midlands submitted without a murmur to so singularly complete a system of regulation. And as it is, two manufacturers, one in Birmingham and the other near Manchester, were holding out at the date of our last advices.

Without speculating as to the distant future, it may be recognized that the new movement has hitherto enjoyed a very considerable measure of prosperity. Moreover, no one can have moved in English business circles of late, especially in Yorkshire and Lancashire, without realizing that combination is in the air. And as there are many masters who really value trades-unionism, and still more who feel they cannot get rid of it, it is very probable indeed that the early decades of the coming century will witness in England a whole series of attempts to create what may be called a vertical organization of the industrial field—to harmonize and formally associate all the interests in particular industries, from top to bottom, in the face of the rest of the world. We see no reason to question Mr. Smith's genuine regard for social welfare, and especially for the workingmen; we are ready to allow that the consumers affected by his alliances have suffered inappreciably; but the

plan is so full of potentialities that he must be patient with us if we insist on its weak point.

That weak point is the interest of the consumer. Mr. Smith is perfectly right in saying that the older school of economists paid too exclusive an attention to the consumer; he is right in urging that the workmen are themselves consumers. What is even more to the point, he is justified in his contention that in unrestricted competition there is no necessary safeguard for the consumer, inasmuch as recent experience goes to show that competition itself tends to the creation of monopoly. But the moral of all this is neither that the consumer can be disregarded, nor that the alliance plan is to be condemned. It is rather that the public should be given a good deal more definite information than they have yet received as to the details of the mechanism. What is the way in which the consumer tends to be protected under competitive conditions? It is that when the profits of a particular business are noticeably higher than in other industries, new men and new capital are attracted to it; and if prices continue too high, overproduction ensues, and then prices fall. This would be cold comfort in the case of many industries where only large capitals find an opening; but with the Birmingham trades, where businesses are still comparatively small, where there is a great deal of enterprise and money always on the watch for fresh opportunities, and where exceptional men can still rise from the ranks, it is a solid satisfaction. Will not Mr. Smith convince us of the persistence of this salutary check on excessive prices, in the bedstead trade for instance, by telling us the exact financial conditions of membership in his Alliance? Is it easy for a new man to enter the association? In order that the equalizing forces of individual enterprise should work at all rapidly, it must be possible to find out what profit is actually being made in the several trades. Will not Mr. Smith tell us what is the "fair interest" which must, in his scheme, be reckoned among costs of production? Will he not tell us how he reckons the "wages of management" which are similarly counted in? Will he not say what is the profit the Alliance adds to the production-cost of each article? As a bedstead-maker, Mr. Smith may hesitate to satisfy our curiosity; as a social reformer, we are convinced it would be his best policy in the long run. Certainly, if combinations continue to flourish, publicity of accounts will be the only alternative to state interference; and if it is not voluntary, it will be compulsory.

Memoirs of a Revolutionist. By P. Kropotkin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

It may be truly said of Prince Kropotkin's Memoirs that they offer a better all-round picture of a certain type of Russians in particular, and of the genuine aristocratic socialist and anarchist in general, than any other record in existence. The first part of the autobiography is not a whit inferior to Count L. N. Tolstoy's famous 'Childhood, Boyhood, Youth,' in its vivid limning of family and social life sixty years ago in Russia; indeed, it far surpasses Tolstoy's work in actual details, though the plucking up his thoughts and feelings by the roots to inspect their state of growth, preparatory to replanting and reinspection, is suggested, not minutely recorded as in Tolstoy's case. Many people, no doubt, will be shocked at the account of the treatment frequently dealt out to serfs, under the old régime, as intelligent Russians might be shocked at many occurrences during the old slave days in our Southern States; but the instances of good temper, fine feeling, and faithful affection narrated by the author offset the horrors, in that they furnish data for judging the general character of the peasants who (when properly educated) are destined to exercise a decisive influence upon the world. What is absolutely new is the description of life in the crack military school and the suggestively thorough training of Russian officers, which is of interest to foreign nations at present, especially to those which have too hastily taken universal ignorance for granted in that greatly misunderstood empire.

The author states, in his prefatory note, that he has added considerably to the original text (as it appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*, September, 1898-1899), in the parts dealing with his youth and his stay in Siberia, and especially in the part where he has told the story of his life in Western Europe. Such is the intense interest of the book that it is to be regretted he did not make two volumes, at least, and deal with the two halves of his life in a wholly satisfactory manner. As it is, we should be very glad to have an unstinted quantity of social pictures from so clever a pen, while more fulness of psychological study and of practical detail are certainly needed in the socialistic-anarchistic division to enable the reader to comprehend and pass just judgment upon Prince Kropotkin's aims and methods. For example, he mentions that, on his father's death and his inheritance of a large landed estate, he meditated putting in practice there the socialistic theories to which he had already dedicated himself; but, on being warned by competent persons that this would be impossible, he refrained. There the incident ends, so far as we are informed. He does not mention whether he left the estate to be administered on the usual plan, condemned by him, shifting the responsibility to a hired steward, or whether he sold it, and thus shifted the responsibility in a still easier manner; or what he did with the proceeds. Later on, when he records the efforts of himself and his fellow-anarchists to found a newspaper—an "organ"—he says that their combined funds amounted to about four dollars; and he constantly refers to some handicraft exercised by himself (nowhere specified), as a means of livelihood. Inevitably, the reader demands: "What had become of your estate? Why did not you remain in Russia and superintend the welfare of the peasants there resident, as many Russian landed proprietors actually do, even if you were unable to raise them to your level or lower yourself to theirs? And if manual labor is the sole means of salvation, why did you waste your time upon scientific work, however important to the world, however profitable to yourself?" There are many other questions that occur to the non-anarchist public, which does not clearly understand what aim the anarchists propose to themselves, unless it be to usurp the authority of the present powers, and dictate terms themselves in a more arbitrary manner.

It is a disappointment that Kropotkin has not seized the opportunity to elucidate this point, for it must be conceded that he possesses one incalculable merit over his late friend and ally, "Stepniak"—he is straightforward and convinced, he carries the tradition of his good birth and breeding into his revolutionary propaganda. Stepniak was plausible and convincing, to the uninitiated in Russian affairs. But his books would not bear careful reading, and too frequently contradicted in one chapter the specious arguments of a preceding chapter, or an ordinary knowledge of chronology sufficed to annihilate his most powerful anecdotes of illustration. In conversation he would state a matter strongly, with entire conviction, to all appearances, and announce plans of future action with the calm confidence of a mathematical professor. But if his interlocutor happened to understand Russia, her people and problems, and objected, "But that is not so, because," or, "You cannot work on that plan, for such and such reasons," Stepniak would yield, frankly and promptly, with a smile that was the apotheosis of the child-like and bland, with the remark: "No, we cannot; I see that you understand." Thereupon he would calmly proceed to repeat the manœuvre, as long as the time and the understanding (or ignorance) of his interlocutor permitted. Under such circumstances, belief in Stepniak's sincerity was difficult, to say the least. There is nothing of that sort with Kropotkin. We may trust his sincerity. He has proved it; he has abandoned his advantageous social position and revenues in Russia, and done actual labor, unlike some members of the British aristocracy who write socialistic articles and books on hearsay knowledge, because the topic is popular, and receive for their amateur efforts—plus their title—excessive payments, which are diverted from the pockets of genuine literary workers toiling for their bread.

As the best example of a non-introspective but intensely interesting life-story of a highly gifted and sincere man, Prince Kropotkin's volume merits a place in every library, even though it be not very convincing in its socialistic doctrines and attempted propaganda.

Elizabeth Pease Nichol. By Anna M. Stoddart. With portraits and other illustrations. London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. xi, 314.

This Life of Mrs. Elizabeth Pease Nicol fitly commences a proposed series, under the editorship of Robert F. Horton, of "Saintly Lives." We read (p. ix):

"It was a saying of Jowett, the late Master of Balliol, that more good would be done in the future by writing the lives of men and women who have deserved well of their kind, than by set treatises in theology and morals. The present series aims at being a contribution to such a service."

We agree with the editor in the suggestion that Protestants have, in the lives of passing and present humanity, more zeal and higher incentives to purity of thought and action than have other religionists in the lives of those whom, it is supposed, the Deity has been moved to set apart above ordinary conditions of life and death.

If to many who knew the late Mrs. Nichol some of Mrs. Stoddart's chapters may appear heavy, and if more personal incidents might have been looked for, it must be allowed that it would be difficult in print to give any real conception of the richness and

loveliness of this Englishwoman's character. The reviewer's endeavor would be even more difficult than the biographer's. Born in 1807 of the best Quaker blood in England, Miss Pease married in 1853 Prof. Nichol, Astronomer Royal of Scotland. She was widowed in 1860, and survived until 1897. We are given three portraits of her. That which pleases us most is at the age of seventy, showing her still in the plenitude of her powers. Her features, seventeen years later, in their almost leonine nobility, might well be taken for those of Mr. Gladstone. From Quakerism—at its best, as we have said—her mind expanded, mainly under the influence of the anti-slavery movement, to the broadest Christianity. She was actively engaged in all the liberal philanthropic movements of her time. Either as guests at her father's house in Darlington, at her married home in Glasgow, or her final retreat at Huntly Lodge, Edinburgh, or in correspondence, there stud the pages before us the names of such men and women as Wilberforce and Clarkson, George Stephenson, O'Connell, Garrison, Phillips, Thompson, Harriet Martineau, and all the anti-slavery set; Cobden and Bright, W. E. Foster, Gladstone, John Dillon; Mazzini, Kossuth, and Garibaldi.

For American readers, the chief interest in Miss Pease lies in her intimate relations to the American abolitionists, and especially to their leader; and these have been set forth on an ample scale in the Life of Garrison, to whom she was in England what Mrs. Chapman was in America. Before his first visit abroad, however, she was already schooled in the cause by assisting her father and his associates in abolishing slavery in the British West Indies, as later in terminating the apprenticeship system imposed by the half-hearted emancipation act of 1833. The methods of agitation and information of the public mind then employed were most sagaciously and industriously used for the overthrow of slavery in the United States by casting the moral weight of Great Britain into the scale against the power which was on the side of the oppressor. They were equally available on behalf of the natives of India as against the East India Company; or against the corn laws and in support of the Chartists; against male monopoly of the higher education; against the Contagious Diseases Acts; against cruelty to animals. No humane interest was foreign to her as Miss Pease or Mrs. Nichol, and she brought to each a rare degree of business and executive ability. Her old age was beautiful in the extreme, and, even when sightless, she was all alive to the politics and the philanthropy of the hour, as well as to her numerous friendships on both sides of the Atlantic.

A perusal of this biography suggests a consideration of how much the world has lost in the practical abandonment by Quakerism—by British Quakerism, at least—of its most moving peculiarities (which, however, Mrs. Nichol never lost). Apart from church government and forms of worship, and as yet a lingering greater simplicity of social life, there is little now to distinguish Friends from members of other religious bodies. The scruples have mostly vanished. We have seen the list of a Friend stock-broking firm, one of whose members preaches in meeting, in which shares in taverns, breweries, and theatres are advertised. We are not aware of any collective protest having been made by the Society against the Transvaal war even as war. On the contrary, more strenuous individual testimony against it has been borne by individual members of other bodies than by individual Friends. Friends now without objection don the military garb of Deputy-Lieutenants of counties. Entering the civil service and professions, they have lost their old independence of thought and action, and compound for (in the main) abandoning their old humanitarian rôle at home and abroad by principally devoting themselves to foreign missions, in which sphere they run no chance of endangering personal interests. It was not so when Quakerism gave birth to spirits like Elizabeth Pease Nichol.

The Family of William Penn. By Howard M. Jenkins. Philadelphia: The Author. 1899.

In this considerable work Mr. Jenkins has collected all that he could gather on the genealogy of the Penn family. He has not undertaken to make it a history of the Penns, for that would have led him far into the rise and position of the Quakers in England and the founding and early records of Pennsylvania. Confining himself as he does to the immediate family, he has been obliged to omit much of a more general interest bearing upon the intentions of the colonizers and their relations to state policy. As it is, the record was not a simple one to compile, for authorities have been contradictory, and the loss or absence of important links in the chain of evidence has given occasion to conjecture. The name and tradition point to a Welsh origin for the family, but the first authentic records begin with the fourth generation from William Penn, and locate his ancestor in the County of Gloucester. It was Admiral Penn who gave the family prominence, and he would not be so well known but for the many references, complimentary and otherwise, given to him and his doings by Pepys. The son of the Admiral was William Penn, whose religious experiences and the hardships and reputation gained through them, are too familiar to need summarizing. Mr. Jenkins refutes the story that Penn died insane, but shows him embarrassed in means, in spite of his American principality. His widow was at times hard pushed to obtain so small a sum as ten pounds.

Among the original documents printed by Mr. Jenkins are some interesting letters of Hannah, the wife of William Penn. They throw light upon the household of the founder, and incidentally point to her struggle to obtain the means to meet the current expenses of her family. Some slaves were included in the estate, and she wrote: "The young Blacks must be dispos'd of to prevent their increasing Charge. I have offer'd my Daughter Aubrey one, but she does not care for any. I would, however, have ye likelyest Boy reserv'd, and bred to reading & sobriety as intending him for my self, or one of my children." The worthless son, William, sought to overthrow his father's will, and laid claim to the proprietorship of Pennsylvania, but was defeated in the attempt, and died soon after. His half-brother, Thomas, became principal proprietor, and held the trust for nearly thirty years, although residing in America only nine years. It was his nephew John who was Governor of Pennsylvania when the Revolution caused the collapse of all the Penn interests in the colony, with a loss amounting to nearly $7,500,000, the larger part of which was represented by unsold lands. Pennsylvania voted him a large sum after the peace, and a royal pension was given to him for his loyalty. The early marriage of John is lightly touched upon, but not explained, and the family history of the brothers is given.

Mr. Jenkins has drawn largely from the manuscripts of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, and has made an interesting compilation, of which the general accuracy is very high. The book has many portraits.

A Political History of Europe since 1814. By Charles Seignobos. Translation edited by S. M. Macvane. Henry Holt & Co. 1899.

Whenever translation renders an important work accessible to a large audience which would otherwise be deprived of its use, the translator's services should be swiftly recognized and defined. Prof. Macvane says, with studied moderation: "'The Histoire Politique de l'Europe Contemporaine,' by Prof. Seignobos, seems to me to merit larger use among people of English speech than it is likely to receive in the original French"; and, in fact, the book in question is one of very high importance to all who read history, and especially to such as are not engaged in its professional study. If a reader is prevented by circumstances from making his own investigations, he is a good deal at the mercy of his author, and, accordingly, the latter's fairness or unfairness becomes of the first consequence. Most of all is this true where recent history is concerned.

Now Prof. Seignobos, apart from his splendid store of knowledge, both mediæval and modern, his skill in putting a statement clearly, and his general cleverness, yields to no one in sincerity of tone. Prof. Macvane counts among his author's various good qualities a "thorough freedom from national or other prejudice." The praise is just, and carries a special meaning when elicited by a work upon the present subject. For instance, if one were comparing Seignobos with Fyffe in the matter of impartiality, the Frenchman would be called quite the more impersonal of the two. Prof. Macvane found the English chapters of the book less satisfactory than the others, but none of their shortcomings can be ascribed to a polemical spirit. Seignobos is learned, accomplished, clear, and the appearance in our language of his 'Histoire Contemporaine' must be a source of satisfaction to others besides college teachers and their classes.

The translation, with its index, contains more than 880 pages (or about four-fifths of the number in Fyffe), and is accordingly so long that we are unable to analyze the body of contents; but, with the aid of the author's preface, we shall try to explain the purpose which the work contemplates. Seignobos begins with a query. Having admitted his rashness in publishing a one-volume history of contemporary Europe, he proceeds: "The question is, not whether this history be worth reading, but whether it can be written." An overwhelming sup-

ply of material blocks the way, for since vigorous historical method demands the direct study of the sources, the conscientious inquirer is brought to a halt. "The life of one man would not be long enough, I do not say to study or to criticise, but to read the official documents of even a single country of Europe." A modern author must yield to practical necessities, and make his attempt under limitations which are none the less strict because inevitable and clearly defined.

Thus beset, Seignobos falls back on "monographs, special histories, and annual publications, all made at first hand." These furnish a solid framework of fact, and, where doubt arises over their accuracy, they can be easily controlled by comparison and other simple tests. A second difficulty, that arising from the citation of authorities, is partially met by frequent reference to selected bibliographies. The chapters are short, and at the end of each a list of sources and works is given. By avoiding the establishment of disputed facts and the discovery of new ones, the text is still further compressed. Lastly, the author has renounced "all attempts at full narrative, all descriptions, character-sketches, and anecdotes; such things being nearly always matters of dispute."

We dwell at length upon the method which Seignobos employs because his book is extraordinarily useful and its scope should be fully outlined. Erudition, controversy, and picturesqueness he eschews in order to accomplish one end. "My aim has been to enable my readers to comprehend the essential phenomena of the political life of Europe in the nineteenth century, by explaining the organization of the nations, governments, and parties, the political questions which have arisen in the course of the century, and the solutions they have received. I have tried to write an *explanatory* history." Social, intellectual, and artistic phenomena are strictly excluded, and if any non-political facts are used, it is simply in a context which connects them with politics.

Seignobos's 'Contemporary Europe' is, then, a masterly explanation of political movements. It begins at the Congress of Vienna, and reaches a very recent date in the case of each country or of each episode considered. The author does not commit himself, hands bound, to any special form of treatment, whether comparative, chronological, or geographical. Throughout the greater part of the work he follows a geographical line of division, beginning with England, "which furnished the model of political organization for all Europe," and ending with "the group of eastern states, Ottoman and Russian, which have longest retained the political forms of the eighteenth century." When he wishes to consider the material conditions of political life, the state of the Roman Church, and the international parties of revolution, he uses a comparative method. And when he passes the external relations of states under review (*e. g.*, the System of Metternich, Rivalry between Russia and England, the Nationalist Wars, and the Armed Peace) he observes the order of time. Each passage is carefully wrought, and the combination of passages forms a luminous whole.

Prof. Macvane is responsible for the quality of the translation, but it will be noticed that on the title-page he speaks of himself as an editor. "Most of the actual labor of translation has been done by another." The English version is correct and smooth, and a good index has been added. Prof. Macvane, however, has not limited himself to contributing the preface. He has "freely revised and partly rewritten the chapters on England" because they seemed not quite to equal the remainder of the volume in excellence. We need only say of the changes that they have not reached the point of structural alteration, and are an improvement upon the original.

We have described the character of this treatise so far as possible in its own words and from its own standpoint. Its value is so great because it represents admirable knowledge and discernment, together with skill in the rapid explanation of large questions. For the early stages of university work it is too advanced, but for maturer undergraduates as well as for adults it must prove an invaluable guide.

Under Three Flags in Cuba. By George Clarke Musgrave. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1899.

This narrative purports to be "a personal account of the Cuban Insurrection and Spanish-American War." According to his story, the author joined Ruis Rivera's western army, as a newspaper correspondent, just after Maceo's death; made his way into the Spanish lines; went familiarly about Havana, attended executions at Cabañas, chatted with Weyler and had some thought of kidnapping him; worked eastward again among the insurgents, meeting Gomez, Garcia, and the insurgent Government in Camaguëy; saw a number of fights; returned to Havana, was imprisoned as a spy, transported to Spain, and released as a British subject in time to witness the Santiago campaign.

An author with such opportunities should have written a memorable book. Perhaps the seizure of his original manuscript, "together with three hundred photographs of Weyler's régime in Cuba and some historical letters that had passed between the Captain-General and Premier Cánovas," accounts for his failure to do so. Barring his picture of the horrors of a Spanish transport and the common ill-treatment of Spanish conscripts, there is nothing new in the whole volume. Moreover, the writer's chronology is so incoherent that one follows his wanderings with difficulty; and his personal story is lost in a jungle of hearsay and extraneous matter. Even in what he describes as an eye-witness, the "journalistic" habit distorts his vision. The "swells of the organ" and "the voices of the choir" "wafted across the bay" from the Cathedral, steal upon the ears of the dying patriots at Cabañas. From Marianao (which he calls "Mariano") just beyond the River Almendares (which he calls "Almanares"), he notes the moon's "pure radiance lighting up the distant spires and domes of Havana," resting on "massive guns" where "the great Santa Clara and Vedado batteries loomed grimly in the distance," "making them gleam like polished silver," etc., etc. This is a sublimation of hearing and eye-sight—like listening to the choir of Trinity from Columbia Heights, and watching the ferry-slips at Cortlandt Street from Spuyten Duyvil! The book is characterized throughout by such loose and bombastic writing, by misstated facts of common knowledge, and misspelled names in common use. The author claims a part in the rescue of Evangelina Cisneros, and betrays in an unconscious note (p. 104) how far the irresponsible vagaries of "yellow journalism" may go for mischief: "Mr. Decker, during the winter, formulated a plan to rescue Capt. Dreyfus, which Mr. Hearst wished to effect without causing international complications, . . . but the *Maine* disaster and the war diverted this unprecedented journalistic enterprise."

Sextus Empiricus and Greek Scepticism. By Mary Mills Patrick. Cambridge, Eng.: Deighton, Bell & Co. 1899.

The movement called Scepticism—for it cannot be called a philosophy—has never laid strong hold of the imaginations of men. There is in the human being an ingrained love of dogmatizing; and a method which is entirely negative and offers nothing in place of the belief that it destroys, has little chance of taking root. The very name of the founder of the sceptic school, Pyrrho, is a secret of scholarship; for the agnostics of Greece, like their modern imitators, were not represented by any figure so commanding as to compel the attention of the ignorant. Pyrrhonism and Pyrrho are mere shadows. What layman off-hand could come within a century of the date of Sextus Empiricus, perhaps the greatest of them all? Yet, with these two men, Scepticism was much more than the mental laziness that is often the only basis of agnosticism.

When we call a man a sceptic, we imply merely that he does not hold certain conventional beliefs. The followers of Pyrrho so directed their reasoning powers to suspend their judgment that they saw both sides of every question with perfect impartiality. Absence of dogmatism was their aim; but what actually resulted was a state of mental equilibrium that cannot be distinguished from the *æquus animus* of the Stoic dogmatist. Apathy follows this sort of agnosticism as if by chance, as a shadow follows the body; and this is the most positive side of a philosophy that was unique in that it drew no moral conclusions, had no criterion, and could never state the grounds of its negations. To do so would be to dogmatize.

We fear that Mrs. Patrick's volume will never reach those whose ignorance of Sextus Empiricus it is intended to dispel. Her thesis is admirable for its purpose as a doctor's dissertation (accepted at Berne in 1897), and, as a supplement to Zeller, will be read with interest by students. Sextus Empiricus was a sceptical doctor who lived (probably) at the close of the second century A. D. He spent his life in attacking Stoic dogmatism and, in general, all the sciences that men have labored to construct. We have the "Hypotyposes," the public lectures in which he tried to demolish dogmatism, and not the least valuable part of the present work is the translation of these by the authoress. There is an interesting chapter on the relation of Pyrrhonism and the Scepticism of the Academy.

If we had thought that the English of the President of a college must be above suspicion, the writer's style would be a disillusion. On p. 29 we encounter this curiously compounded sentence: "He threw the sponge at the picture that he had used to wipe the colors from the painting with." The fol-

lowing positively defy analysis: "He states that a philosopher himself is a part of the discord, and to be judged, rather than being capable of judging" (p. 45); "Saisset is correct in saying . . . but it is not correct when we consider" (p. 57). A thesis which is published in book form invites criticism and should at least be free from bad grammar. On p. 82 the phrase Antigonus of Carystius is presumably a slip.

A World in a Garden. By R. Neish. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

It is the hard-won Scotch garden which, in its owner's esteem, surpasses all others, and the enthusiasm with which this author writes of his brief northern blooms would seem exaggerated to the South, where flowers are matter of course the whole year through, and no long winter sleep adds intensity to the common joy in spring's awakening. But the "world" held by this garden is more than a collection of vegetable life. Poetry, religion, and philosophy are discussed with the plants, which our author finds appreciative, perhaps instructive, interlocutors; even doting upon the absence of more disputatious human neighbors. Why, then, should he seek the audience he professes to scorn, or at least disregard? The assumption that his personality is of general interest is, of course, necessary to the man who sits down to write a personal book; but when we are led into a garden only to talk about its owner, we feel a little tricked, and inclined to doubt the genuineness of his enthusiasm as a gardener, and to wonder if in other circumstances he might not have unfolded himself just the same on the text of carpets and furniture. "I have always loved Chippendale chairs," tells as much of a man's character as, "I have always loved lilies"; and equally invites the reply, "Lucky dog, to have some to love."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, R. MacD. The Rise of Formal Satire in England. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Alexander, P. Y. Darwin and Darwinism Pure and Mixed. London: John Bale, Sons & Danielsson. 7s. 6d.
Arey, A. L. Elementary Chemistry. Macmillan. 90c.
Atkinson, P. Power Transmitted by Electricity. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Austen, Jane. Pride and Prejudice, Persuasion, Emma, Mansfield Park, Sense and Sensibility, Northanger Abbey. [Temple ed.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 8 vols. $8.
Baird, Prof. H. M. Theo. Beza, the Counsellor of the French Reformation. Putnams. $1.50.
Balfour, Lady Betty. The History of Lord Lytton's Indian Administration. Longmans, Green & Co.
Barnes, Rev. W. E. The Books of Chronicles. Macmillan. $1.
Bascom, J. Growth of Nationality in the United States: A Social Study. Putnams. $1.25.
Benson, A. C. The Life of Edward White, Sometime Archbishop of Canterbury. Macmillan. 2 vols. $8.
Bernard, Rev. J. H. The Pastoral Epistles. Macmillan. 90c.
Bishop, Isabella B. The Yangtze Valley and Beyond. Putnams. 2 vols. $6.
Black, N. F. First Reader. Macmillan.
Bourinot, Sir J. G. Builders of Novia Scotia. A Historical Review. Toronto: The Copp-Clark Co.
Bowman, Isa. The Story of Lewis Carroll. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Brown, Prof. W. J. The New Democracy. A Political Study. Macmillan. $2.
Bury, Bishop R. de. Philobiblon. New York: Meyer Bros. & Co. $2.50.
Charles, Rev. R. H. A Critical History of the Doctrine of a Future Life in Israel, in Judaism, and in Christianity. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Chiniquy, Rev. C. Forty Years in the Church of Christ. Fleming H. Revell Co. $2.50.
Cowell, B. The Hungarian Exiles. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. $1.
Crookes, Sir W. The Wheat Problem. London: John Murray; New York: Putnams. $1.25.
Cruttwell, Maud. Luca Signorelli. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Dearmer, Mabel. The Book of Penny Toys. Macmillan. $2.
Densmore, Dr. E. Consumption and Chronic Diseases. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: The Stillman Pub. Co.
Dresser, H. W. Voices of Freedom and Studies in the Philosophy of Individuality. Putnams. $1.25.
Earle, J. Microcosmographie. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Emerson, E., jr. Pepys's Ghost. Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co. $1.25.
Fernald, J. C. True Motherhood. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60c.
Fortescue, J. W. A History of the British Army. Macmillan. 2 vols. $4.
Headlam, J. W. Bismarck and the New German Empire. Putnams. $1.50.
Hewlett, M. Earthwork out of Tuscany. New ed. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Putnams. $2.50.
Hiatt, C. Henry Irving. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Hunt, Violet B. Prisoners of the Tower of London. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Hutton, C. A. Greek Terracotta Statuettes. Macmillan. $2.50.
Janes, Emily. The English Woman's Year-Book and Directory. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Jephson, H. The Real French Revolution. Macmillan. $1.75.
King, Prof. F. H. Irrigation and Drainage. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lanciani, Prof. R. The Destruction of Ancient Rome. Macmillan. $2.
Letchworth, W. P. Care and Treatment of Epileptics. Putnams. $4.
Letters of Benjamin Jowett, Master of Balliol College. Arranged and Edited by Evelyn Abbott and Lewis Campbell. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
Lilly, W. S. First Principles in Politics. London: John Murray; New York: Putnams. $2.50.
Macmillan, H. Gleanings in Holy Fields. Macmillan. $1.50.
Main, E. Cities and Sights of Spain. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Mason, Rev. A. J. The Five Theological Orations of Gregory of Nazianzus. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Mather, F. J. Chaucer's Prologue, The Knight's Tale and the Nun's Priest's Tale from the Canterbury Tales. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
Metcalfe, J. S. Mythology for Moderns. Life Pub. Co. $1.
Meyer, R. M. Die Deutsche Litteratur des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts. Berlin: Georg Bondi; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Montefiore, C. G. The Bible for Home Reading. Macmillan. Parts 1 and 2. $2.50.
Murray, D. A. Plane Trigonometry for Colleges and Secondary Schools. Longmans, Green & Co.
Nitobé, Inazo. Bushido the Soul of Japan. Philadelphia: The Leeds & Biddle Co. $1.
Norway, A. H. Highways and Byways in Yorkshire. Macmillan. $2.
Palmer, Florence U. One Year of Sunday-School Lessons for Young Children. Macmillan. $1.
Pattee, Prof. F. L. The Foundations of English Literature. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Peard, Frances M. Donna Teresa. Macmillan. $1.50.
Royce, Prof. J. The World and the Individual. Macmillan. $3.
Shakespeare, W. Tempest. Cassells. 10c.
Shorey, Prof. P. Pope's The Iliad of Homer. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Shuckburgh, E. S. The Letters of Cicero. London; George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 2 vols. $3.
Sienkiewicz, H. The Knights of the Cross, or Krzyzacy. R. F. Fenno & Co. 2 vols. $2.
Silberrad, U. L. The Enchanter. Macmillan. $1.50.
Some Things That Trouble Young Manhood. New York: Styles & Cash.
The Living Age. Vol. 5. Boston: The Living Age Co.
The Works of Shakespeare. [Eversley ed.] Vol. X. Macmillan. $1.50.
Welton, Prof. J. The Logical Bases of Education. Macmillan. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 25, 1900.

The Week.

The agreement reached in the Senate fixing the 15th of February as the day to vote on the currency bill is the most encouraging event that has taken place in Congress since the bill was first reported to the House. This agreement is an assurance that the bill will pass; but that assurance has been given in other ways, and more especially in the manifest indifference of the Democrats to the whole subject. Their opposition has been growing fainter and fainter all the time. The Democratic newspapers throughout the country treat the bill for the most part with silence. Even the speech made by Senator Teller on Wednesday week was much less forceful and energetic than his former efforts. It betokens clearly that he, for one, has thrown up the sponge. If we contrast this vapid and spiritless behavior of the silver men with their fight against the repeal of the Sherman law in 1893, when it seemed as though we were on the eve of a revolution because the Democrats would not allow a vote to be taken, it needs no oracle to tell us that the end has come, that the question of the monetary standard is at last definitively settled, and will vex the hearts of the business men no more. The Democrats are trying to retire under cover of the national-bank question, and it is well enough to let them do so. The maxim which says, "Build a bridge of gold for your retreating enemy," here has a double meaning.

The fate of the Samoan Islands is too small a matter to interest a public having to consider the Philippine situation, and the treaty disposing of them was ratified by the Senate without consideration. But a report that the President regarded the treaty as giving him sovereign powers over the island of Tutuila aroused Senator Jones of Arkansas to somewhat belated opposition, and the treaty has been recalled from the President. The statement is made that the President contemplates no such action. Possibly we may be assured that he would regard it as criminal aggression. But, in view of the events of the last few years, Senator Jones's suspicions are not unjustifiable. Very little attempt has been made to rebut the evidence that the President did plan to establish his sovereignty over the Philippines while he was denying such an intention. The proposed treaty has the very great merit of extricating our Government from an entangling alliance with Great Britain and Germany; but if it is to have the effect of annexing more territory to the United States, and possibly of admitting a number of Samoans to citizenship, it should be carefully scrutinized. We all know that the principle is vital to the imperialist theory, that when the Flag has been raised on any part of a Pacific island, the sovereignty of our government at once extends over the whole of it. The inhabitants of Tutuila may be very insignificant human beings; but the disposition of their future may involve principles of transcendent importance.

According to Senator Morgan, it is extremely important that immediate action should be taken to construct the Nicaraguan Canal. Like some of the newspapers that insisted on hurrying the country into war with Spain, he thinks it will be time to deliberate after we act. It is true that our Government has a commission of eminent men engaged in selecting the best route for the canal. It might seem the proper course to await the report of this commission before committing ourselves to any particular scheme. By no means, says Senator Morgan. Should the Commission pronounce in favor of the Nicaraguan Canal, we shall have gained time by anticipating its action. Should it declare against the Nicaraguan route, it will demonstrate the insufficiency or error of the proposed immediate action "in time to prevent any possible harm to the country." If the strength of Senator Morgan's case is to be measured by the strength of his argument for it, Congress may well hesitate to yield to his demands. His reasoning would dispense altogether with the service of trained engineers in laying out the canal; if we found we were going wrong at any time, we could reflect that the country would survive it, and that it might be all the same a hundred years hence. Of course, Senator Morgan knows, as well as every one else, that if he can succeed in embarking our Government in the Nicaraguan enterprise, any report against its feasibility would be entirely disregarded. In fact, Senator Morgan himself would talk loudest and longest against paying any attention whatever to such a report.

Congressman McCall of Massachusetts has introduced a bill to put the personal baggage of travellers arriving in the United States under the same regulations that existed in the McKinley tariff of 1890. The present law restricts the total amount of such articles purchased abroad and brought in by residents of the United States to the value of one hundred dollars. This restriction does not apply to foreign tourists or to immigrants. It will be remembered that, when the new law went into effect, an attempt was made to execute it by private enterprise—that is, by placing unofficial persons on the steamer docks to inspect the baggage of arriving passengers—and that passengers were subjected to such insult and outrage that the Treasury Department issued an order forbidding anybody to take part in the inspection except the regularly appointed customs officers. Since that time there has been no complaint of the ill-treatment of the public on the docks. The business of baggage inspection goes on as before. It is more rigid than in any European country, but it causes no unnecessary delay or friction. The danger of political consequences disastrous to the Republican party, at one time imminent in consequence of the indignities put upon passengers, was averted. A movement to restore the law which was in force before the passage of the Dingley bill was started in New York, Boston, and Chicago simultaneously, and Mr. McCall's bill is the outcome of it. It ought to be passed without opposition. The amount of goods which one person can bring in being restricted to articles necessary to his journeying and his present comfort and convenience, it is not likely that any more would be brought in than comes in now. As regards the revenue, it has been shown that the baggage tax yields only $140,000 per year, although the wise Dingley estimated it at $10,000,000. The objection may be raised to the McCall bill that it reopens the whole tariff controversy, but, in fact, that controversy has already been reopened by the Administration's policy of free trade with Porto Rico.

The damage heretofore done by Appraiser Wakeman to the commerce of New York cannot be repaired, but his powers in this department of human activity are somewhat curtailed by the decision of the Board of General Appraisers adverse to his ruling on paragraph 313 of the present tariff. This paragraph is too technical to be explained to the general reader. It relates to the method of introducing figures into certain cotton goods in the process of weaving. Wakeman, in his search for ways and means to harass importers, ordered his subordinates to change the classification of the goods in question, so as to make them subject to an increased duty of two cents per square yard. This order inflicted a heavy pecuniary loss upon the houses which were importing such goods, since it increased their expenses by the amount of the new duty; and in cases where they had made contracts or booked orders ahead of arrival, they

could not charge the additional cost to the buyers. They might possibly, after some years and at the end of a lawsuit, get their money back from the Government, but they would lose the interest on their capital meanwhile, and would have heavy bills to pay for legal services. If Wakeman had any sense of shame, he would now resign, and if the Government had a proper sense of its duty to citizens engaged in an honorable and lawful vocation, it would eject him from office at once.

The true animus of the attacks on Commissioner Evans was revealed the other day in the debate on the passage of the pension bill. In 1898, the first year of Mr. Evans's administration, he paid out to pension attorneys, more than half of them in Washington, the sum of $730,000. Last year he paid them but $477,000. These attorneys, as was observed by Mr. Mahon of Pennsylvania, created the agitation among the old soldiers in order to make business for themselves, and a reduction of their fees by one-third is sufficient to produce a tremendous crop of complaints against any Commissioner. Fortunately Congress has not yielded, on this occasion, and Mr. Evans's hands have been strengthened, rather than weakened, by the debate. As might have been expected, the decrease in the pension rolls, which had been hopefully reckoned upon by some statesmen, is to be postponed on account of the claims of the veterans of the Spanish war. As the war with the Filipinos is a much more serious matter than that with Spain, an increase in the pension payments may reasonably be anticipated.

The strongest point made in the majority report of the committee of the House of Representatives on the Roberts case is that the State of Utah, in his election, violated an "understanding" by which it secured admission to the Union. The legal and constitutional effect of such an understanding, however, is somewhat obscure. It may have been violated "explicitly and offensively," but was there any penalty for such violation provided in the understanding? If not, it does not appear where the power to inflict the penalty resides. During the reconstruction period, Congress made repeated attempts to regulate the behavior of the Southern States by "conditions subsequent." These States were admitted with certain constitutions, not merely on the "understanding" that these constitutions were not to be altered, but, in the case of Mississippi at least, with that express provision. But it was found impracticable to maintain this position, and the fifteenth amendment was finally resorted to in order to accomplish the purpose of Congress. It would no doubt be correct to say that, when the reconstructed States were admitted, it was in pursuance of an "understanding" that they should not deprive the negroes of political rights. If the violation of such understandings is a ground for excluding Representatives from the House, the numbers of that body might be greatly depleted, and some States would not be represented there at all.

Statisticians will read with sinking hearts the debate in the House of Representatives on the passage of the supplementary census bill last week. The returns of the census of 1890 were deprived of much of what value they ever would have had by being delayed for years in publication. The complaints on this account were so loud and so well founded as to lead to an attempt to save time in completing the next census by business-like arrangements for printing. Nothing more revolutionary was proposed than an amendment to the bill authorizing the Director, if the reports could probably not be published by the Government Printing-Office within the period prescribed by law, to contract for their printing and binding by private parties. In support of this amendment, it was stated that the Public Printer would require 300 full working days, with the present force, under the most favorable conditions, to do the work projected by the Director of the Census. To propitiate the politicians, the chairman of the census committee offered to accept an amendment that the printing should be done by union labor. Nevertheless the whole scheme was rejected by an overwhelming majority. This is attributed to the influence of the typographical unions, which are opposed to having any Government printing done outside of the Government Office, administered as it is according to their exactions. Congress has passed a bill requiring the publication of the census returns to be completed by June 30, 1902. It is a safe prediction that an extension of time will hereafter be granted, for it is hardly possible that the Government Office can discharge the duty now laid upon it.

Coming immediately after the imprisonment for life of two Texas lynchers, the denunciation of mob violence by Gov. Longino, the new executive of Mississippi, gives added reason for believing in a change in Southern feeling upon this vitally important matter. He not only called attention in his inaugural last week to the economic dangers of mob law in driving capital and investors out of the State, but laid stress upon the lynching of suspects for many other crimes than rape, to punish which it was first employed. But the Governor had a remedy to propose, as well as scathing words for the increase of lawlessness in the State. He called upon the Legislature for a law giving a large sum of damages to the family of any one lynched hereafter, to be paid by the county in which the lynching occurs. Another law recommended provides that the office of a sheriff or constable who allows a prisoner to be taken from him shall become vacant. These are all admirable suggestions. Should they become law, Governor Longino will be entitled to the thanks of the whole country.

The battle of the breakfast-table in this city on Saturday ended most ingloriously for both combatants. Neither Roosevelt nor Platt showed a scratch when he emerged from the room in which the well-advertised contest was to take place. More remarkable still, the historian of war, the man who celebrates the martial achievements of the English Cromwell in a past century, and of an American Cromwell in Cuba during this century, had "nothing whatever to say." Most remarkable of all, the exponent of "a strenuous life," though apparently unscathed, admitted that he had consented to an armistice, and allowed his antagonist time to strengthen his lines of battle. Was it only for this lame and impotent conclusion that a Governor came to the metropolis from Albany and a United States Senator from Washington? Wherein does either party cut a better figure than a member of the Peace Society? Everybody else sees, even if the Governor does not, that the cause for which he stands is weakened by such dilly-dallying. The principles which Platt and Roosevelt represent in this matter are irreconcilable. Platt wants to avoid the contest over Payn's successor altogether, if possible. If Payn must go, the boss desires that his successor shall come as near as decency will permit to the Payn level. "The organization" showed its hand clearly on Saturday when it brought forward as its first choice the deputy superintendent. Of course Roosevelt saw in a moment that he might almost as well let Payn stay. What he does not seem to see is, that the machine will not name anybody as a compromise candidate of whose loyalty to itself, rather than to the interests of the State, it does not feel thoroughly assured. The organization regards the Insurance Superintendency as a place to be "worked" for the Republican politicians. The Governor is bound to treat it as a trust, to be administered in behalf of the people.

Payn's begging letter to Mr. Whitney would constitute an absolute disqualification for the office of Superintendent of Insurance, if he were not already disqualified for it by a thousand other considerations. For a man in his position to be exposed as a Wall Street speculator, on "margin," would be simply fatal in any system of government

where ordinary morality and business principles held sway. Furthermore, Payn is caught in this letter using the servants of the State to run his private errands. "The bearer, Mr. Henry D. Appleton, is my chief deputy." Just the man to be rushing around to save his superior from personal bankruptcy. And if any little arrangement about "inspecting" at times convenient to the inspected were to be made, who so fit and handy as the chief deputy? Payn's letter, says the President of the State Trust Company, who gave it out for publication, "tells its own story." It does, and the story is one of reprehensible conduct in office and of unfitness to hold it one hour after a successor can be confirmed. Gov. Roosevelt is under renewed obligation to nominate an honest man for the Superintendency, and to keep on sending in names, if the first is rejected, until the Senate is shown to be as worthy of suspicion and contempt as Payn himself.

Mr. Whitney's display of the finest qualities of our poor human nature is the one redeeming feature of a sad affair. Payn had no claim upon him. There it stands in the letter: "I have no right to ask so great a favor of you." So there could be no possible question of duress or blackmail. Many men in Mr. Whitney's position would have turned away the suppliant. But that pathetic story of a sick wife and impending ruin was too much for his tender heart, and he instantly put his hand in his pocket—that is to say, the Metropolitan Company puts its hand in *its* pocket—and drew a check to Payn's order for $100,000, marked "Construction account." Was this with an eye to the construction that might be placed upon the transaction? We cannot say, but we are sure the community has been deeply touched by this revelation of Mr. Whitney's melting charity. We only hope that his impulsive philanthropy will not be taken advantage of by other designing men.

The death of Theodore Bacon of Rochester will sadden the hearts, not only of his personal friends, but also of many who knew him only by reputation. Nothing was so characteristic of him as his unswerving devotion to principle. No considerations of personal advancement, none even of political expediency, could make him deviate from the path prescribed by conscience. And his was an enlightened conscience. He was of the generation which felt the stimulating influences of the anti-slavery struggle and of the civil war; but he was no mere enthusiast. To the education received in college he added the culture of foreign travel, acquaintance with statesmen of other countries as well as his own, and a profound appreciation of those fundamental principles which have made the common law so great a bulwark of the liberties of the people. With these qualifications, with brilliant gifts, both as a speaker and a writer, and with an unsullied character, no position might have seemed too high for him. Yet he received no office from the people; not because it was not tendered, but because he was by nature and principle utterly incapable of practising, or even tolerating, the arts of the demagogue. When he became, as he sometimes did, a candidate for elective office, he defined his attitude so clearly and stated his principles so sharply as to make success—in the ordinary sense—hopeless. It might have been said of his public declarations on these occasions, as of John Stuart Mill's when he stood for Westminster, "The Almighty could not be elected on such a platform." So it will perhaps be said that his life was a failure; that he threw away his opportunities for doing good, and that those who voted for him threw away their votes. In that sense the life of every one who fights a losing battle, who struggles for an unsuccessful cause, is a failure. But to those who draw inspiration from such defeats and firmer courage from such struggles, such lives are not failures. They form the very substance of the faith and hope that stay us up, and without the help of such examples no reform could command true devotion.

The incorporation of Barnard College into the educational system of Columbia University, with the consequent alteration in the relations of its officers and students to the larger institution, is an event of marked importance in the educational world. By this change the President of Columbia becomes, ex-officio, the President of Barnard, his duties being the same in both instances, while the dean of Barnard is given a seat and a vote in the University Council. Hereafter the Barnard instructors will be on exactly the same footing as those teaching in Columbia, though selected by their own institution. Most interesting of all is the announcement that, in the future, the women graduate students of Columbia University will be subject to the same terms as the men candidates for the higher degrees. Not even Radcliffe has progressed as far as this in its relation to Harvard University, for it still has its separate President, and is without representation on any governing board of the University except the committee which deals with graduate students. It is true that President Eliot's signature is to be found on Radcliffe degrees, but only as an assurance that the documents which bear it represent fully as much as those issued to men in the other institution, a few yards away. It is to be hoped that Columbia's step forward will not be without its effect in Cambridge. Meanwhile, it is gratifying to note that the throwing open of Columbia to women graduate students is taken almost as a matter of course, and that it will be the cause of very much less unfavorable comment than the original proposition ten years ago to add an annex to the University.

The feeling of sympathy with the Boers is reaching considerable dimensions in this country, and we are glad to see that in some quarters it is accompanied with a corresponding sense of shame for our own slaughter of a people struggling for liberty on the other side of the globe. In the pro-Boer meeting at Washington City on Sunday evening, two of the speakers made pointed reference to our Government's course in the Philippines. Senator Allen of Nebraska said: "A man cannot believe in the cause of the Boers, and at the same time uphold our Government's course in the Philippines." Congressman Clark of Missouri said: "Wherever people are struggling for liberty, they should have the friendship of all Americans." Senator Allen and Champ Clark may be a pair of demagogues—we have had occasion to take note of them as such aforetime, and may have to do so hereafter; yet they shine by comparison with other speakers at this meeting, who could only pour out vials of wrath on Great Britain.

Count von Bülow's statement in the Reichstag on Friday puts an end to the talk of strained relations between Germany and Great Britain. The German Government, he showed, had very properly stood up for the rights of neutral trade, and the English Government now admits that its naval officers were, in certain cases, guilty of excess of zeal in detaining German steamers. These have been released with apologies and offers of full indemnity. Nothing could be more satisfactory, or speak better for the firmness of the Berlin Foreign Office and the tact and good sense of Lord Salisbury in adjusting the controversy. But there is in the incident promise of still more important results than the mere removal of one cause of international friction. Count von Bülow said, with perfect justice, that the happy settlement would go far toward introducing order into what is now a somewhat chaotic department of international law. The whole matter of the rights of neutral trade, the definition of contraband of war, and the exercise of the right of search will be greatly cleared up by this amicable agreement of these two powerful nations on certain principles and rules. As the German Foreign Minister remarked, an international Congress might well be called to pass upon the entire subject; but, even as it is, a great step in advance has been taken. It is, in fact, by the accumulation of such peaceful agreements between great Powers that international law is made.

SHIPPING SUBSIDIES.

The magnitude of the fraud sought to be perpetrated on the taxpayers of the United States by the shipping-subsidy bill can be best understood by making a comparison of the sums actually appropriated by Great Britain, for example, and those proposed by the Hanna-Payne bill. By reference to recent reports of the British Postmaster-General and the admiralty records, it will be found that the ships to which subvention was paid by the British admiralty as reserve merchant cruisers during the past year were as follows:

Himalaya, P. & O. Co.	£3,375
Australia, P. & O. Co.	3,375
Victoria, P. & O. Co.	2,438
Arcandia, P. & O. Co.	2,438
Campania, Cunard Co.	7,500
Lucania, Cunard Co.	7,500
Teutonic, White Star Co.	7,265
Majestic, White Star Co.	7,396

To these may be added the three steamers of the Canadian Pacific Railroad Company:

Empress of India, Empress of China, Empress of Japan — for the three	£7,313
Aggregate for the eleven steamers	£48,600

For these payments the admiralty have the first call on the ships, at much lower rates than they would have to pay if the boats were chartered in times of emergency, and they have also the first call on other ships belonging to these companies for which no subvention is paid. In consideration of this payment, the ships were constructed under admiralty survey, and fitted with gun-decks and the necessary adjuncts to enable them to be readily utilized as armed cruisers in case of need; the subvention being paid, not only for the privilege of a call upon the lines for the boats so subsidized, but as compensation for the additional expense in construction, and for the additional weight and bulk which they are obliged to carry in the shape of gun-decks and other fittings. In addition to the subvention, according to the forty-fourth report of the Postmaster-General of Great Britain, the total amount paid for the carriage of mails from the United Kingdom to New York during the year ending March 31, 1898, was £107,694, or say about $500,000, which, added to the amount paid for subvention, would aggregate a sum total of about $750,000.

In the Hanna-Payne bill, provision is made for the payment of subsidy to American-owned steamers under the British and Belgian flags, which is estimated to amount in the aggregate to more than $658,000 annually. It is also an open secret that various foreign residents doing business in New York within the prescribed time have filed notices which will enable them to comply with the stipulations of the bill and secure subsidy payments on a still greater amount of tonnage now in course of construction to be put into the American trade later. Thus the estimated $9,000,000 for subsidy appropriation is likely to be fully used, the lion's share going to the International Navigation Company and other owners of vessels which are foreign built, though possibly under the American flag, while the Pacific Mail, Ward Line, and other coastwise lines, strictly American, will divide among them what is left by the more greedy claimants for the public money. If this Hanna-Payne bill, as has been so frequently announced, is for the purpose of reviving shipbuilding interests in this country and the building up of an American merchant marine, why not confine the payment of the subsidy to strictly American-built ships?

Now let us inquire what would have been the subsidy payments under the Hanna-Payne bill for the fiscal year 1897, if it had been in force at that time. Following the actual course of every ship during that year, the amount paid from the Treasury would have been the following:

International Navigation Co. (under American flag)	$1,303,331 57
International Navigation Co. (under British and Belgian flags)	658,701 44
Ocean Steamship Co.	117,390 37
Pacific Coast Steamship Co. and Oregon Improvement Co.	61,209 12
Atlantic and Caribbean Steamship Co.	113,132 28
Pacific Mail Steamship Co.	213,387 80
United States and Cuba Mail Co.	300,601 97
C. H. Mallory & Co.	7,256 87
H. B. Plant Steamship Co.	12,665 32
W. P. Clyde & Co.	25,069 83
Southern Pacific Co.	21,898 57
Charles W. Hogan	8,438 10
T. Hogan & Son	11,225 74
Alfred C. Bedford	31,300 13
L. and N. Railroad Co.	381 09
Saginaw Steamship Co.	1,497 96
Pacific Steel Barge Co.	9,592 85
Progreso Steamship Co.	480 13
International Steamboat Co.	409 53
Boston Towboat Co.	1,254 43
Total	$2,899,225 10

In addition to this the following extra subsidies would have been earned by reason of ships of greater speed and larger tonnage:

International Navigation Co. under American flag	$1,220,512 20	
Under British and Belgian flags	486,768 64	$1,707,280 84
Oceanic Steamship Co.		117,390 37
Pacific Coast Steamship Co. and Oregon Improvement Co.		20,066 76
Atlantic and Caribbean Steamship Co.		94,643 06
Pacific Mail Steamship Co.		95,281 38
C. H. Mallory & Co.		2,262 33
Total		$2,036,924 74

This makes a total of nearly $5,000,000, against about $750,000 paid by Great Britain for like purposes. An interview appeared in the morning papers, a few days ago, in which the President of the International Navigation Company was made to say that the mail contracts which now give the International Navigation Company some $1,000,000 per annum do not compensate for the extra expense involved in sailing under the American flag. Such statements may deceive the average member of Congress, but cannot deceive merchants who are familiar with the subject. We are informed that the subsidy which would be earned by the International Navigation Company under the proposed bill would in itself amount yearly to more than the gross earnings that can be made by either of the largest steamship companies now employed in the trade between England and America from the income of their regular business.

It is an open secret at Washington that a combination has been formed between the Hanna-Payne subsidy and the Nicaragua Canal. Senator Hanna had agreed to await the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, and the President had accordingly recommended delay on the canal bill for that purpose, but there has been a sudden change in both quarters. Mr. Hanna has put his name to the report for immediate action on the canal bill, and he thinks that he has secured a sufficient number of votes for the shipping-subsidy bill. It may be so, but it is not yet certain. The debate in the Senate is yet to take place, and it is scarcely credible that the bill should fail to be exposed in its true character as a brazen scheme for filling private pockets at the expense of the people.

FREE TRADE WITH THE COLONIES.

The imagination of man could not have conceived a more bizarre termination of the late war, and the acquisition of territory which followed it, than the present controversy in the Republican party over the question of free trade with Porto Rico. It should be remarked in the first place that there never was any need of our taking Porto Rico. Its inhabitants were not complaining of oppression. They had never asked our assistance. It is true that they welcomed us when we came. There is hardly an island in the West Indian group, British, Danish, or other, that would not welcome a change. They are all so desperately poor that they want to try something new, and they all feel instinctively that free trade with the United States would be good for them. This was the feeling of the Porto Ricans when President McKinley decided to carry the war to that island. They manifested their joy in such an exuberant way that the only glory gained by Gen. Miles came from his excellent choice of a landing-place. When once on terra firma, he found his pathway was strewn with flowers. We had never been asked to go there, but, when we had once come, the inhabitants threw their arms around us because they believed that free trade with the United States would be one of the results of the embrace.

The time has come for sitting down to this marriage feast, and now a skeleton appears and takes the leading place at the banquet. Its name is Protection to Home Industry. It comes to forbid the banns. It says that the tobacco and sugar and tropical fruits of this new possession and of the other islands that we have grabbed shall not come into the United States duty free. Coffee may come in, because

coffee is already on the free list and is not grown by us. So the Porto Ricans are advised to grow coffee. But coffee, like confidence, is a plant of slow growth. It takes years to bring a plantation to a productive state, and, after this is accomplished, Porto Rico will have no advantage in our market over Brazil, or Venezuela, or Mexico. The advice given to the inhabitants of our new insular possession, even if followed, would not help them for a long time to come. They might starve to death first. What they want and must have is either free trade with the United States, or donations from our Treasury or from private subscriptions until they can adapt themselves to their new conditions.

When the plan of free trade was proposed last month by the President and the Secretary of War, it was so warmly espoused by leading Republican newspapers that it seemed likely to go through Congress with a rush. But there has been a change of atmosphere, and this has been manifested nowhere more strikingly than in the columns of the New York *Tribune*, which has made a complete *volte-face* on this question inside of one week, and which now tells the Porto Ricans that they have not been annexed to this country and will not be, and that "Porto Rico has no concern with the laws of the United States." The fight has now been transferred to the committee on ways and means, with the hope of finding some middle ground between free trade and protection as regards the new possessions. We do not see any possible chance of compromise. It is evident also that the new reciprocity treaties have been put in jeopardy by the Porto Rican question.

Another complication is looming up in the distance, which must have been foreseen by the Administration long ago. It is found in our demand for the "open door" in China. The Philippine Islands are in the same situation, legal and constitutional, as Porto Rico. Whatever principle applies to one applies to the other. If any rule of law requires that the tariff system of the United States shall be extended over Porto Rico, it applies with equal force to the Philippines. But our tariff system is in absolute conflict with the "open door" policy. It forbids the admission of German, British, and French cotton goods, for example, except at the Dingley rates, which cannot be considered an open-door policy. It was reported from Washington the other day that one of the foreign Powers, with which Secretary Hay has been negotiating, while giving its assent to the "open door," has replied that it would expect the same principle to be applied by the United States to the Philippines.

This report was almost immediately contradicted, but, whether it be true or not, we may be quite sure that it will come true very soon. The foreign Powers that have made lodgment on Chinese territory will not keep the door open to our trade if we close the Philippines to their trade. Moreover, we have made a treaty with Spain by which we agree to keep the door open to her trade with the Philippines for ten years. How this treaty can be reconciled with the clause of the Constitution which says that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be *uniform* throughout the United States, is a nut for the Attorney-General to crack. How this treaty can be reconciled on principles of equity and fairness with differential duties in favor of Spain and against England, Germany, Russia, etc., is a nut for the Secretary of State to crack. The conclusion cannot be avoided that the Administration has involved itself in a tremendous tangle, legal, commercial, and political. Its policy of Imperialism, or Expansion, has brought it at loggerheads with the protectionists and in conflict with the Constitution of the United States. It contains also the germs of a quarrel with European Powers over trade regulations in Eastern Asia.

DOMESTIC FREE TRADE.

The alarm of some of the Connecticut farmers who grow tobacco over the possibility that free trade may be established between this country and Porto Rico, illustrates once more a perennial characteristic of protected industries—their timidity. The acuteness of the alarm in the case referred to may be gauged by the fact that the value of the tobacco crop of the United States, according to the returns for 1896, was $24,258,070, taking as approximately correct the returns of the Agricultural Department; while the average export of tobacco from Porto Rico for the years 1893-97, inclusive, was only $450,485. To put it differently, after free trade with Porto Rico, the $1,325,668 worth of tobacco produced in Connecticut would find $450,485 worth added to the $22,932,402 of domestic tobacco with which the Connecticut product comes into competition.

One of the most destructive arguments against the theory that an industry must suffer "ruin" from increased competition is furnished by the figures of our own country's increasing industrial growth. At any period of its existence a protected industry is ready to cry out that a change in the tariff which will let in a few pounds more of raw material, or a few thousand dollars' worth more of manufactured products from any foreign port, will "ruin" it. All the time, however, in a large country like the United States, a growth of internal competition is taking place which exceeds in many instances any possible rivalry that could spring up from abroad.

An article printed very recently in the *Evening Post* called attention to the increasing competition which the East meets from our Western States. The Eastern farmer met this same competition as soon as the transcontinental railroads were opened, and succumbed to it. He no longer expects to raise wheat to sell; but he produces more milk, raises more potatoes and more fruit, and, although, like his Western farm brother, he has gone through some trying years since the war, he is not "ruined." The Eastern iron-miner next felt the competition, and the opening up of the rich product of Lake Superior for a time closed nearly every iron mine in New Jersey. That State, however, continued to increase in wealth, and the turn in trade during the last year has seen a reopening of Eastern mines and a rekindling of Eastern furnaces, without any falling off in Western production. Now it is noted as nothing uncommon to see a New Hampshire farmer using a cart stamped with the name of an Illinois or a Michigan maker, or a stove cast in Iowa, or a washing-machine made in Indiana. Michigan furniture makers have opened salesrooms in the fashionable district of this city, and Indiana-made carriages challenge comparison with the daintiest output of popular New York makers.

The recent domestic competition of our Southern States has been still more noticeable. The coal product of these States went from 1,963,574 tons in 1880 to 14,672,520 tons in 1896. The pig-iron produced there increased from 559,400 tons in 1885 to 1,646,410 tons in 1896. Pennsylvania felt the effects of some of this competition, but, instead of being "ruined," it nearly doubled its tonnage of coal and pig-iron produced in the same period. In very recent years an industry entirely new to the South has been established there, cotton-manufacturing. This has made wonderful progress, and in doing so has caused a good deal of nervousness among New England millowners. But the situation seems to be adjusting itself quietly, and a not improbable result of the competition will be a better acquaintance and a better feeling between the business men of the two sections.

If secession had carried the South out of the Union, and an independent republic had also been established in the West, it is easy to define the tariff laws that Eastern protected industries would have been demanding in establishing our relations with these neighbors. Pennsylvania iron would have had to be protected against that of the Mesaba Range, and against the coal and iron of Alabama and Tennessee; New Jersey and New York would have asked a duty on Western wheat and corn, while New England would have rushed to Washington with a pallid face to beg that the cotton products of the worse than pauper labor of the Carolinas be stopped at Mason and Dixon's line. These demands would doubtless have been listened to.

We may smile now at the industrial chaos which such a tariff system would have produced; but the history of attempts to regulate production and prices by Government does not lack chapters devoted to that exploiting of protection wherein the state attempts to control its internal trade. In the days of Colbert it was an accepted principle in France, not only that her farmers should not be permitted to export grain at their pleasure to foreign countries, but that there should be restrictions on its movement from one province of France to another. The question whether grain could be exported formed every year one of the gravest subjects of cabinet discussions. The result of this attempt to prevent famines was that in those days a famine might be counted on to occur on an average once in nine years, and that the internally protected home market, which now grows almost enough wheat to supply 40,000,000 people, could not in the eighteenth century keep half that population from starvation. Along with this attempt to control the food supply were other trade regulations, such as the one which made it a galleys offence to manufacture a piece of linen except in a certain way, to give it more than a certain length, or to dye it except as the law required. "They do for us," said one complainant, "what the Chinese do for the feet of their women: we are bound so tightly in rules that we cannot grow." But we are told that the least relaxation of these restrictions for many years called out a complaint from some monopoly, which restored the abuse, while their final abolition gave real life to French trade.

Tariff reform is subject to many discouragements. The simple fact that tariff laws are only one of the elements which enter into business prosperity or stagnation, renders it easy to blind the eyes of the people to the real bearing of our tariff laws on trade. If, however, we are to add outside territory like that of Porto Rico to our national domain, it will eventually have to share in the trade of the country as the States do now, and if the competition does not "ruin" anything, one more protective argument will be overthrown.

THE JUSTIFICATION OF WEALTH.

The persistent way in which the rich insist upon bestowing their wealth on educational and philanthropic enterprises, is a social phenomenon of great significance. One can hardly take up a newspaper nowadays without reading about the gift of a hospital, a library, a workingmen's institute, a scholarship, or a substantial addition to some existing endowment. Most striking of all, perhaps, is the fact that the donors are, in many instances, men and women hitherto unknown—persons with hardly more than a local reputation for wealth, and whose names come to public notice only when their gifts are announced.

The administration and direction of this volume of benevolence call, as a rule, only for admiration. Time was when a man of large means, especially if his philanthropic bent came late in life, might almost be expected to do some questionable thing—to found a charity of doubtful serviceableness, or establish a superfluous college hedged round with vexatious restrictions, or put his money where he or his heirs could get some personal advertisement out of it, while at the same time keeping the virtual control of it in their own hands. There is little of that sort of thing now. The day of indiscriminate and unintelligent giving in any form is rapidly passing. So far as the poor are concerned, the larger proportion of gifts now flow through organized associations, where the relief of want and distress is a matter of scientific study and business management. Men have rather got out of the way, too, of starting new universities on slender endowments, and are much more disposed to strengthen institutions long established, and whose skilful financial administration and high reputation for scholarship give promise of permanence. Our rapidly enlarging equipment of industrial schools, again, is a fine example of well-directed giving; while every one knows that colleges, hospitals, libraries, and missions live, move, and have their being in the bounty of the well-to-do.

One cannot avoid the conclusion that this spread of unsolicited philanthropy testifies to a broadening and deepening sense of responsibility for the common welfare on the part of those who command large resources. The day has gone by when a rich man may keep his money to himself, or leave the whole of it to his relatives at his death, and escape severe censure. Public opinion has come to expect, if not to demand, something different. The well-known saying that no citizen of Boston would dare to die without leaving something to Harvard College, is only a localized expression of what has come to be, for numberless communities, a recognized social obligation. The first thing we ask, when the death of some wealthy citizen is announced, is, What are his public bequests? and if, perchance, there be none, the knowledge that the public interest has been ignored never fails to come as a distinct disappointment. The Rev. Dr. Richard S. Storrs of Brooklyn remarked humorously in a public address, two or three years ago, that he had resolved not to preach the funeral sermon of another rich man until he knew what his will was. Certainly, in this feeling of obligation for the well-being of the community, and of individual accountability to public opinion, we may find one of the best assurances of the health and soundness of our American society. We may be very material in our aims, and very matter-of-fact in our ordinary views of things; but so long as those who reap the largest rewards of ability and industry share their earnings generously with their neighbors, the oft-heralded dangers of accumulated wealth can hardly fail to seem still remote.

It is curious to see, too, how the increasing flow of benevolence has helped to dull the edge of some of the difficulties which much social speculation has, in our day, raised up. It goes far, for example, towards reconciling us to the presence of the rich among us. There is an obvious incongruity in denouncing great fortunes when the possessors of them support our hospitals and asylums, maintain our free public libraries, endow our manual-training schools, feed the hungry, clothe the naked, and bring sunshine and pleasure to the children of the slums. The wild tirade of anarchism and the dreams of a socialist state in which all shall share alike, lose appreciably in both effectiveness and charm in the presence of men and women who seem to gather only that they may later scatter abroad. It is not even easy to be very vindictive towards the Trusts, so long as the few who profit by them do not hoard their gains.

That the rich in this country are still, to some degree, on the defensive, and bound to demonstrate their right to keep permanently what they have honestly earned, is, of course, clear enough to any one who follows current social discussion; but it is even more clear that they are justifying themselves in our day as never before, and that, too, before the very ones who have been their most bitter, because their most ignorant, critics. It is significant that in the United States, where individual accumulation of wealth has gone on most rapidly, and where the "money power" has been most in evidence, this sense of personal responsibility, of which we have spoken, has most developed. No European country can begin to compare with our own in the private benefactions of its citizens.

JOHN RUSKIN.

The success of 'Modern Painters,' the work in which the late Mr. Ruskin made his début in 1843, was most remarkable—both in the rapidity with which it followed publication, and in the extent of it, among English and American readers. The audacity, the novelty, and the supreme self-confidence of its opinions disconcerted the more deliberate and hum-drum or conservative art critics of the old school; while the enthusiasm and pyrotechnic style with which the Oxford graduate attacked all the traditions of art criticism, involving in one wide sweep of rhetorical iconoclasm all the ideals of landscape art—Claude, Poussin, all the Dutchmen except Ruysdael, who was allowed the limbo of the innocents—were so attractive, so convincing to the unreason of the mass of readers that all opposition was for the moment overcome. The author of 'Modern Painters,' having demolished all the sovereigns of landscape art hitherto recognized, put Turner on the vacant throne and installed himself as his chief minister and

interpreter. In this office, speaking as one having authority, and believing absolutely in his vocation, he silenced for years all public dissent, established Turner in the English mind not only as the greatest of all landscape painters of all time, but as the true, sincere, and consistent limner of Nature, and her most faithful adorer. The public, possessed of no definite knowledge of the true principles of art or art criticism, not only accepted the new doctrine, but really believed that they saw in Turner's pictures a faithful, naturalistic interpretation of nature; and as the number of those whose artistic education qualified them to compare the new standards with the old, and strip the rhetorical wrappings from the new ideas, was, as it always is, very small, and mainly not given to words, Ruskin long held the field. His influence over art cultivation and art encouragement in England was most extraordinary, and to this day has not lost all of its force. The artists in general, and the few men who by special education were qualified to weigh his dogmas, were almost without exception against him, and, in the way they could, denounced his system of advocacy as false in premise and conclusion. Nevertheless, with the unsound teaching as to art there was mingled so much and so splendid preaching of the beauty of nature, such new and startling advocacy of our allegiance to the universal mother, that it seemed cynical and ungrateful to enter into conflict with a man who was opening the eyes of multitudes to things they had never before seen, and urging the power of nature over human happiness as no one had ever urged it. It was this feeling that Ruskin's moral aim was more correct than his artistic, which won the sympathy of true students of art proper, while the power of his rhetoric made it hopeless to controvert him with the general public.

No mistake, however, could be graver than that with which the young critic set out (he was twenty-four when the 'Modern Painters' was written). He was a lover of nature, with the nearest approach to passion of which he was capable, and his religious bent was so strong that he was long in suspense whether he should go into the Church or devote himself to art. Unfortunately for both, he chose the latter, for, with his intense moral earnestness and his rhetorical power, he certainly would, as his father said, have become a bishop; but, more than that, he would probably, under the influence of the strong humanitarianism which became the dominant influence of his later life, have quickened the religious sentiment as it has not been quickened in educated people in our day. On the other hand, the cardinal doctrine with which he started, erred in setting up the closest possible representation of nature as the truest (not necessarily, however, the highest) art; and the education of the artist which he prescribed was the most rigorous and literal study of nature in detail and in general. He taught people to look at nature, and many to think they saw in it what he described; and as his teaching came at the moment of the great naturalistic movement which led men to science with unusual interest, and coincided with the development of photography, which taught people how the facts of nature could really be shown, the public caught gladly at the new doctrine of æsthetics, that all that was needed to become a connoisseur was to know what was like nature. Another equally earnest and equally mistaken movement—so far, at least, as art education is concerned—which helped to foster this naturalistic movement, was that known as the pre-Raphaelite school. It is still to a certain extent supposed that this was a result of Ruskin's teaching, but this is entirely erroneous. Not one of the founders of the school had ever read ten pages of Ruskin's writing when they formed the association known as the P. R. B. It was a coincidence which met photography by the way.

The 'Modern Painters' will always be the book which will mark Ruskin's place in reference to art literature, and it shows all his strength and all his fallacy. In the reprint of the entire work, dated in 1873, he says: "Of the art teaching and landscape description it contains, I have little to retouch and nothing to detract." And, in fact, throughout the entire series of his works we find no essential departure from this doctrine, formed more from poetic fervor than from artistic acumen. His art teaching was always based on the purely objective methods—literal, and as far as possible photographic, rendering of nature, with the distinct recognition of the devotional element as an imperious necessity in the purpose of art. "I assert, with sorrow," he says, in the preface to the second edition, "that all hitherto done in landscape by those commonly conceived its masters has never prompted one holy thought in the minds of nations. It has begun and ended in exhibiting the dexterities of individuals and conventionalities of systems. Filling the world with the honor of Claude and Salvator, it has never once tended to the honor of God." And the dishonor of God was the "painter's taking it upon him to modify God's works at his pleasure, casting the shadow of himself on all that he sees. . . . Every alteration of the features of nature has its origin either in powerless indolence or blind audacity; in the folly which forgets or the insolence which desecrates works which it is the pride of angels to know and their privilege to love." This view of art has always, then as now, been repudiated by all thoughtful artists and mature critics; but Ruskin was then in the flush of a wordy and self-satisfied youth, mistaking sensations for conviction, and what he conceived for absolute truth. He was too young to have given due comparison, too ardent to respect any opinion differing from his own, and too rhetorical to sacrifice his style to the truth he preached, or a telling alliteration or glowing image to scientific accuracy in his statements.

Ruskin's definition of art always lacked precision because he never went to the root of the matter. When he says, "The art is greatest which conveys to the mind of the spectator by any means whatsoever the greatest number of the greatest ideas," he only shows that he confounds the intellectual quality of the artist with the artistic, while they are really utterly distinct; the former consisting entirely in the subject-matter of the conceptions which he begins with, the latter in the manner of embodying them.

In the chapter on the "Truth of Color," in connection with the commentary on Poussin's "Aricia," there occurs a famous passage which must be quoted here:

"The noon-day sun came slanting down the rocky slopes of La Riccia, and their masses of entangled and tall foliage, whose autumnal tints were mixed with the wet verdure of a thousand evergreens, were penetrated with it as with rain. I cannot call it color—it was conflagration. *Purple and crimson and scarlet, like the curtains of God's tabernacle, the rejoicing trees sank into the valley in showers of light, every separate leaf quivering with buoyant and burning life; each, as it turned to reflect or to transmit the sunbeam, first a torch and then an emerald.* Far up into the recesses of the valley, the green vistas arched like the hollows of mighty waves of some crystalline sea, with the arbutus flowers dashed along their flanks for foam, and silver flakes of orange spray tossed into the air around them, breaking over the gray walls of rock into a thousand separate stars, fading and kindling alternately as the weak wind lifted and let them fall. *Every glade of grass burned like the golden floor of heaven*, opening in sudden gleams as the foliage broke and closed above it as sheet lightning opens in a cloud at sunset; the motionless masses of dark rock—dark, though flushed with scarlet lichen—*casting their quiet shadows across its restless radiance*, the fountain underneath them *filling its marble hollow with blue mist and fitful sound;* and over all the multitudinous bars of amber and rose, the sacred clouds that have no darkness and only exist to illumine, were seen in fathomless intervals between the solemn and orbed repose of the stone pines, passing to lose themselves in the last, white blinding lustre of the measureless line where the Campagna melted into the blaze of the sea. Tell me who is likest this, Poussin or Turner?"

We believe that in this passage, one of the most brilliant ever written by Ruskin, will be found the epitome of his entire system of thought and criticism, the secret of his popularity and of his failure—for so far as permanent influence on the tendencies of art is concerned, or the establishment of a true system of art-culture, Ruskin has utterly failed. Space forbids our following through all its fallacies his system of teaching or exhortation, and an analysis of the foregoing passage must suffice. The reply to the question, "Poussin or Turner?" should be simply, Turner rather than Poussin. but not in the least nature. No one but a madman could conceive that the description of La Riccia resembled the actual scene either as a whole or in many of its details. As language it is magnificent, but it is not criticism or description. We have passed more months in Aricia than Ruskin hours; and never, in rain or sunshine, was there to be seen what 'Modern Painters' contains. There is not a single detail true to the scene. The arbutus does not grow at Aricia, and its flowers have no such value in a landscape, while of all landscape in the world that of Italy is the least disposed to the extravagances of color—"scarlet lichen," "purple, crimson, and scarlet"; and every landscape painter in Rome knows that Poussin's picture is more like nature in its general impression than Turner, and beyond any comparison more than Ruskin, whose poetic magniloquence is rather apocalyptic than scientific.

Ruskin's judgments in art were as partial and inaccurate as his descriptions of nature. His criticisms were in general, if not always, prompted by matters of detail. His sense of color, as may be inferred from the abuse of color epithet in the above description, was deficient, although his susceptibility to color impression was great—as we sometimes see a man morbidly subject to the power of music, but incapable of sounding a note correctly himself. He persuaded himself that Turner's color was right because he liked it, and he could account for its power over him in no other way than as due to its naturalism. In his own painting, he could never hit the color of any natural object, except as simple local color removed from all complications of effect. In landscape study he seemed always to be seeking for the color which Turner gave, and he seriously argued that it was relatively true to the actual tints of nature. In all the strictly artistic faculties he was as singularly deficient as he was gifted in language. What most excited his admiration in the work of an artist at first acquaintance was, that he should find in it something which he himself had attempted to do and failed in; and many were the young artists whom he possessed himself of in the attempt to lead them to do for him what his own hand was incapable of, failing which they lost all interest for him. He was always wanting, to use the expression of an artist who knew him well, to find somebody who would hold the brush while he himself painted.

The five volumes of the 'Modern Painters' are the embodiment of an art system which is his own, and which is not art but a kind of refined and poetic naturalism. The 'Seven Lamps of Architecture' is a fascinating apology for mysticism in art, and the 'Stones of Venice' a contribution of high and permanent value to the history of architecture and of Venice—yes, more than this, a splendid defence of the distinctive character of Venetian architecture as against the classical. The latter, however, in its pure form, the true Greek Temple, Ruskin never appreciated or understood. He never could draw the figure, and had no sympathy with it in art. Watts relates his wondering what he found to interest him in the Oxford Venus, of which a cast was in the artist's studio, and which Ruskin regarded as simply an ugly thing. He could never see any beauty in the horse, and naturally never comprehended the Greek ideal.

We are inclined to think that of the minor and later works the 'Fors Clavigera' will remain that which possesses most interest for the public, embodying as it does for the longest period the personal character and peculiarities of

thought and style of the author, although in this, as in the 'Præterita,' an exaggerated estimate of the value of his opinion and his position in the great world of thought is strongly developed throughout. His opinions, he held, were not opinions but positive knowledge—a claim to infallibility which the absurd adulation he received all his life from a part of the world around him easily explains. His intellectual character always inclined rather to the devotional than the rational. With all the weaknesses of the evangelical temperament, he had all its exaltation, and, grounded in the most orthodox Calvinism, he never faltered in it until he was nearly forty, when, being shaken in his faith in the doctrines in which he had grown up, he went rapidly over to conscientious scepticism, remaining in that condition for some years, and finally swinging back, as most men will as they grow old, towards the faith of childhood.

Ruskin's genius was of that order which is closely allied to madness; and overwork, undertaken with the noblest intentions, the perplexities and disappointments of an apostolate voluntarily and self-sacrificingly engaged in, but unproductive of any visible results, and the natural drift of such an eccentric and contradictory intellect, contemptuous of all criticism or comparison, led, perhaps, to the attacks of cerebral disorder and partial insanity which darkened his later life. His practical experiments at beneficence failed, owing to his total incapacity to read human nature and his ignorance of or contempt for the actual conditions of life in his own day. His benevolence towards the working classes was unbounded, but he never knew in what they differed from himself except opportunity. He desired the influences of nature for the poor as for the rich, and yet bitterly assailed railroads, which alone could enable the workingmen to see the remote and new; was the implacable enemy of labor-saving machinery, and could not comprehend that it frees the toiler from the most servile of his labors, or see that in the country where it is most used the position of the workingman is the highest.

The circumstances of Ruskin's married life are too well known to need mention, but the secret of its failure was possibly in the unmasculine character of his mind. He was a succession of impulses, incapable of purely personal attachment, and cherishing individuals either as embodying his ideas, supplying his craving for admiration or reverence, or as grateful recipients of his protection. When these failed even in tried friends, he dropped them as completely as if they had never existed for him. He cannot be compared to a meteor in our intellectual firmament, but rather to one of those blazing stars which burst out in startling brilliancy, and then subside to permanent but unobtrusive light. He will never be forgotten, but his effect on the development of human thought is not likely to outlive him by much, and his influence on art is practically at an end.

IMPRESSIONS IN THE MEXICAN HIGHLANDS.—IV.

CHIHUAHUA, September, 1899.

Virtue is always so modest and vice so obtrusive that a foreigner is almost certain, in taking account of his impressions of a new people, to find that his acquaintance with their weaknesses is more noteworthy than his knowledge of their better traits. To pass judgment, and estimate the character of a people, on such a basis of partial information would inevitably lead to injustice. It is far safer, and apt to approach more closely to the truth, to assume that the best one sees is typical, for the aims and aspirations of a nation that is not decadent and moribund are ever towards the nobler qualities which their social system has been capable of calling into being. The wholesale condemnation of the Mexicans, and contempt for their ways of doing and thinking, which one finds among the English-speaking communities in their country, are unworthy of a race which by nature is generous and just.

To be sure, there are customs among the Mexicans which are abhorrent to our sense of propriety and morality. Any one who has travelled extensively in Spanish America knows that these are not peculiar to Mexico. Our contact with Cuba and Porto Rico has brought us into closer touch with these practices, and has taught some of our people to look upon them with a larger modicum of charity than has been our wont in the past. The taking of a wife without regard to the sanctions of law and religion is not commendable, but the desertions which are rendered easy by this loose bond are so much more common on the part of members of the foreign colony, who have taken advantage of the system, than among the natives, that the evil of it has been worked out more especially by the Gringo. Why and how it happened that these unsacramental unions came to be accepted in Spanish America as practically blameless, so that no great loss of respect follows upon those who contract them, is not easy of explanation. There were difficulties in impressing upon the minds of the native races the importance of marriage according to the usage of the Church; and the itinerancy of the missionaries, who early submitted to the establishment of the precedent of confirming wedlock which had been entered into during their periods of prolonged absence from a community, may have had much to do with it. The practice, however, is slowly dying out, and is not countenanced at all by the better classes in Mexico, while the fierce jealousy which one sees and hears of among those who live in this condition is a sufficient argument against that licentious disregard of the proprieties which is so commonly imputed to them.

That bull-fighting is a favorite amusement of the people is well known, and the passion for it is by no means exaggerated. It is the complement of northern pugilism, and doubtless less degrading to both spectators and participants. It certainly requires equal skill and more courage. But even this sport is declining, and becoming relegated to the coarser portions of society. It is averred, by those who ought to know, that Chihuahua is cruder than many other States in Mexico, but to-day one will see very few of the higher classes at the bull-fights, and the absence of ladies is conspicuous.

The Spaniard has ever been devoted to gaming, and when one considers that it is the curse of all the Indian races of America, there is little cause for wonder that among their mixed descendants it has become the supreme vice, the all-absorbing passion of the masses. The roulette table is conducted in the open; gambling games at cards are universal; and the cock-pit flourishes on every hand. Wherever one goes, he meets these pampered fighting-cocks, tied by one leg to a stake with a yard of string; carried tenderly in the arms of young sports who will expatiate endlessly on the prowess and physical perfection of the wretched fowls; or bundled up in big straw hats, fastened in with the baggage on the stage-coaches, and cackling with astonishment at every lurch of the vehicle. The itinerant cock-fighter is invariably the most popular traveller on the road, meeting with distinguished consideration at every post station, in spite of the fact that he usually sweeps into his own wallet most of the pocket money from the communities he honors with a visit.

The drinking habit, mankind's universal vice, is here rampant, producing its inevitable harvest of crime and poverty. That it is worse in Mexico than in the United States would be unfair to say, but it certainly seems to be more constantly in evidence. The destructive effects upon the constitution of the use of mezcal, that fiery distillate from the pulque, are very terrible. Its devotees fall into something worse than mere alcoholism. Like a narcotic, it appears to shatter the nervous system, destroying the capacity and the will for continuous labor. In view of the ravages it has wrought, the introduction of beer by foreign companies which have established extensive breweries in Chihuahua, Monterey, and other places, may be regarded as a blessing. The popularity of the domestic beers has become so great that they are carried in large quantities throughout the country, and even far into the mountains, hundreds of miles from the railroad. The use of the original corn-beer, or *deshuino*, has largely been superseded by other beverages, to the detriment of the lower classes. It is exceedingly mild, and has important food qualities, and is the least harmful form in which the natives could indulge their craving for intoxicants. For the making of *deshuino*, the common white corn of the country is soaked, and then packed in baskets with a covering of pine sprays weighted with stones, until it has begun to sprout. It is then dried in the sun, after which it is ground to a pulp on one of those hollowed stone *metates* which still form one of the essential culinary utensils in nearly every Mexican household. The pulp is now boiled for twenty-four hours, and fermented for three days. It thus contains the nutritive qualities of the corn but very slightly impaired. If prepared in a more scientific manner, its pungent taste and rather disagreeable odor could doubtless be reduced, and its reintroduction as a native beverage would be a distinct advantage to the common people as a substitute for the harmful potions which they now imbibe so freely. Although the lower classes are ever too ready with their daggers and pistols, the most of the sanguinary affrays which are perpetually occurring are the direct results of strong drink, and the evil is a menace to the growth of the country. Whatever will tend to the amelioration of this condition will be a gain for the entire commonwealth.

One characteristic of the Mexicans, which is very striking to a person familiar with the other Spanish-American republics, is their brusqueness of manner. Good-hearted and obliging though they are, one misses regretfully that suavity of manner, that overflowing courtesy and politeness, which are instinctively looked for in those of Spanish blood. In South America even your servant is apt to display the finished breeding of a diplomat. Here, however, he brushes rudely against you, holds his position stolidly in a doorway, letting you crowd past him as best you can, and evinces an indifference toward you on all occasions that is often irritating. The same spirit is man-

ifest, also, among those of high degree. They are cold, not from haughtiness, but from lack of spontaneous gallantry of nature. This affects a newcomer unfavorably at first, until he learns that beneath it all there is a warmth of feeling, a generosity and kindliness, which can be counted on when needed. On direct appeal it comes forth promptly, though it might never have been volunteered. They will render you every possible assistance if you only ask it, will discommode themselves, will share the best they have with you, and will accept remuneration only under pressure, if at all. The traveller need never fare worse than the natives themselves if he will make his wants known. But it counts for much if he can address them in the vernacular. The boast of the English-speaking public that the Spanish language is not necessary, and that the English tongue is triumphing even in Mexico, is vain and foolish. The cultured Mexicans are, indeed, quite generally able to speak English, but they regard it as a compliment to be spoken to in their own beloved *Castellano*, and it wins astonishing favor with the masses. More than this, it brings contempt upon one not to be able to use it. The sufferings of a foreigner in this country, particularly in the remoter districts, are in inverse proportion to his linguistic attainments.

The comforts obtainable are few at best, but the difference between getting these, and putting up with what falls in the way of the helpless tourist, is enormous. The wayside inns are simple and crude. A single small, square room, with earthen floor, a fireplace, whose chimney quite as often draws downward as upward, a home-made bedstead innocent of springs—this is all one finds. You are expected to carry your own blankets and mattress, but a word to the keeper of the hostelry will provide you with sheets and pillows, a wash basin, and a pitcher of water. A little fanning of the fires of human sympathy by an exchange of compliments with your host will open up the way for increasing your supper with fried chicken, milk, and eggs. Except for this you would fare on brown beans, tortillas, and tough meat volcanic with *picante*. These are tortures which it is worth while to acquire the Spanish language to escape. The indigestible, leathery character of the tortilla is beyond anything one would imagine could be produced by simply baking a cake of cornmeal dough on a hot stone, while the scorching fury of *picante* sauce is an agonizing torment. It is fiery even to the sight with its flaming red color, and the wonder is that the hands of the women, plunged up to the wrists in this terrible condiment while making it, are not withered to the bone. The Mexican housewife, however, makes amends for these offences against a delicate taste by manufacturing a mild and savory cheese, and by preparing cocoa in her little earthen pot with a wooden *molinillo* as no other cook in the world has learned to make it. The only fault with this delicious beverage is the cinnamon, which, in obedience to universal demand, is incorporated in all the cocoa and chocolate made for the Mexican trade. But if you carry your own supply of the raw material, your hostess will produce a cup which no New York restaurant can equal.

If you are courteous and affable, and show that you know a good steed and are competent to ride him, your host will even loan you his saddle-horse, a proof of respect remarkable in any country. The fine gentleman is still the horseman, the *caballero*, the gracious and accomplished knight, in Mexico. It is a joy to sally forth for a canter on the mesa with such splendid animals as are found here, with companions who are never so much at ease as when in the saddle. There is no ostentation, no conspicuous habit nor showy manner in these Mexican cavaliers. They may wear *chaparreras*, leather trousers, but these are for a purpose. Without them one would suffer hardships in pushing through the scrubby growth of chaparral. But the gaudy costumes we have been accustomed to associate with the Mexican horsemen exist more in travellers' tales than in real life.

After a ride with one of these rural Dons, if you have acquitted yourself creditably, and proved your title to *caballero* in all its breadth of meaning, the door to familiar friendship stands open wide. Then you begin to see something of the home life, the tender affection which binds the family together, and the imperial status of woman in this select circle. Though she will not assume responsibility without consulting her husband, he defers to her in everything. Her wish becomes his will. She is cognizant of all that occurs, guides and directs it all, is familiar with all the business affairs of the hacienda. She invariably looks after the store, she and her daughters. Perhaps she might do more to make the home attractive to the eye, but she is the true helpmeet and often the mainstay of her lord. For this we can forgive large lack of taste. Æsthetics have so far taken no important place in the culture of these people. There is almost no effort at decoration, beyond a few flowers in the patio, and the cultivation of musical attainments is in its infancy. The Mexicans are songless as compared with other Latin races; the twang of the guitar and the plaintive melodies of the *canciones* are almost never heard. One would suppose them insensible to the charms of music, but it seems to be only a dormant faculty. In the plaza and on the alameda at Chihuahua, as well as in many of the smaller towns, the population turns out in force to hear the bands, whose performances are often of a high order. Moreover, it is when the classic compositions of the great masters are played that the enthusiasm and applause of the crowds are greatest.

Still, it is plain that their advance in art is slow. They are a practical people. They do not imagine that they are all born poets, and musicians, and painters. No restrictions would have to be imposed by the press here upon aspiring poetasters, as editors so often find necessary for self-protection in South America. Their schools display the same practical turn of thought. They afford a simple but solid groundwork for future growth. In a feeble manner, but not without value for the oncoming generations, they give manual training to both boys and girls. They are laying foundation stones for political strength by including, even in the common schools, instruction in the Constitution and system of government of their country. Rather curiously, the Church is not ever-prominent with its functions and demands upon the people, as it is in the countries farther south. The hold of the Church is powerful, no doubt, but the people are not bond-slaves to a grasping priesthood. The fanaticism one reads of is seen most commonly in the distant interior, where it is wholly spontaneous, and, far from being incited by the clergy, breaks through the restrictions which they impose, inducing conflicts with both ecclesiastical and civil authority; in some instances having led to serious disturbances of the peace.

I speak of the State of Chihuahua only. Conditions here are different from those obtaining in many other parts of Mexico. It is a border State, a frontier State, but recently rescued from the savage, accustomed to outlawry and that exaggerated independence of the individual pertaining to pioneer life throughout the world. There is in consequence a mingling of the extremes of good and bad. But everywhere is found a veneration of that one superb type of manly strength and excellence, President Porfirio Diaz. The impress of his splendid personality is stamped upon the people, and from him they draw an inspiration which has done more, perhaps, than all else combined to stimulate civic virtues and a spirit of progress among the inhabitants of this highland region.

THE EDUCATIONAL CRISIS IN FRANCE.

NEW YORK, January, 1900.

France is at this moment, among other crises, passing through one of education. At least it is under the title of "une crise de l'enseignement" that publicists and teachers are ventilating their consultations and plans for reforming the lycées and the colleges. Virtually, secondary instruction alone is in question—the system, namely, intermediate between the public school and the university, which prepares the young French bourgeoisie for the "liberal careers" of physician, magistrate, advocate, military officer, or professor. The primary education regulated by the Jules Ferry laws of 1881-82 that founded obligatory, gratuitous, and lay instruction for the people, is solidly established, and is the pride of the republican party, which has swelled its budget from three millions under the July monarchy to a hundred millions. The higher education, on the other hand, likewise more and more enriched by state endowments and strengthened by the recent law concerning the universities, grows steadily in numbers and in influence. The secondary education alone is still in process of transformation, and, owing to its vicious methods or its insufficient adaptation to modern needs, has for twenty years provoked innumerable criticisms. A committee formed with reference to an international congress to be held during the Exposition, explained in its circular the importance of this question, which is, it says, "closely allied to the transformations of society at the present time." "Formerly reserved for a very select few, secondary instruction is constantly being opened to more numerous majorities, who seek in it the advantages of a higher intellectual culture." Accordingly, for some years, countless attempts at reform have been essayed, abandoned, and renewed. The baccalaureate has been so diversified as to assume six or eight different forms. But the problem still awaits solution.

Everybody knows the place which the lycée or college holds in French life. It is a sort of boarding-school established by the State in all towns of 10,000 inhabitants or thereabouts, and which children enter

at ten or even eight years of age, remaining till they are eighteen, and learning Latin, Greek, German, English, mathematics, and philosophy, in order to obtain the bachelor's degree. Without this, a Frenchman can be neither lawyer, doctor, nor officer, nor fill any of the thousand positions which the State bestows on the citizens of a country in which the love of functionarism is a national and hereditary evil, going back, as M. Lavisse has proved, to the seventeenth century, when the King created places to sell to the bourgeoisie as a mode of raising the wind. As for the colleges themselves, to know one is to know all. The uniformity fixed by the Napoleonic system which bounds centralized France on every side, is such that a Minister of Public Instruction once boasted that he could tell what lesson all the pupils in the country were engaged upon at a given hour. French colleges all rest on the system founded by the Jesuits, and the greater number are still installed in old ecclesiastical edifices of the last century. What this system is, with its monotonous regimen, from the morning drum-beat that rouses the pupils in the great dormitories where they sleep all together, and summons them hour by hour to the class-room, to recess, to commons, until the evening call which brings them back two by two, under surveillance, to their beds, to begin over again the next morning—all this has been described and cursed a thousand times, and there is not a Frenchman in whom it does not evoke melancholy recollections. I remember, for my part, the time, not very remote, when pupils were obliged to eat in silence, and when the least infraction of this rule was punished with forfeiture of walks and recreation. In many aspects this life suggests that of a prison, and more than one writer has compared it to the hulks. Alphonse Daudet, who in his youth held the unpleasant post of usher (*pion*) in one of these barracks, has left a graphic and pathetic picture of it in 'Le Petit Chose.'

As for the inconveniences of all kinds, intellectual and moral, resulting from these agglomerations of youths of different conditions, brought up by ushers, far from their parents, they can easily be guessed. But, side by side with these barrack dangers, which have been largely remedied, there continues in force the pedagogical system which imposes on every boy whose parents wish to give him a liberal education the uniform instruction in Greek and Latin, crowned by the uniform examination for the baccalaureate. In this formidable test good students often fail, while mediocre ones succeed, and its exaction of a superficial and encyclopædic knowledge distorts studies, fetters all progressive tuition, and paralyzes all original initiative.

For ten years some of the most eminent French professors have raised the war-cry, "Death to the baccalaureate." In 1885 a brilliant writer, Raoul Frary, who had had the strictest classical training, published, under the title "The Question of Latin," a violent and plausible arraignment of the teaching of dead languages. M. Lavisse, unquestionably one of the boldest spirits and most intelligent innovators in the French universities, has for a decade past incessantly denounced the mischiefs of the baccalaureate. M. Gebhart, a witty professor at the Sorbonne, who avows having made more than 1,600 bachelors in his lifetime, has written in these terms: "The baccalaureate has killed good study." M. Boutmy, the liberal Director of the School of Political Sciences, has firmly called for the abolition of instruction in Greek, and has joined the resolute adversaries of the baccalaureate. Two years ago, Jules Lemaître, before he became a demagogical "nationalist," delivered at the Sorbonne one of his cleverest discourses against the superstition of classical study, and pitilessly made game of the bourgeois respect for the young bachelor, whom he called a "monster of nothingness."

All this agitation of opinion ended by coming up before the Parliament. A grand committee was formed, presided over by the former Prime Minister, M. Ribot. The inquiry it entered upon lasted from the 17th of January to the 27th of March, 1899. It received 196 depositions from all the professors, writers, pedagogues (professional or amateur) who had anything to say on the subject. Even ecclesiastics, like Père Didon, a director of large schools, were asked to give their advice. M. Fouillée, who so actively combated M. Lemaître's theories and defended classical instruction, was listened to as well as M. Lavisse. All these conferences have been gathered into two great volumes of 600 pages, which constitute the fullest and most profitable inquiry ever made concerning education in France.

But along with the question of reforming the baccalaureate, of suppressing the barrack, of the place to be assigned to classical studies, of the necessity of opening certain careers (like medicine, or even the law) to young men ignorant of the dead languages—along with these purely pedagogic questions, which have a wide social bearing, another has just been raised much more burning and wholly political. It is whether the State should continue to let the instruction it gives be undermined by the confessional instruction of the Roman Catholic congregations. Now the congregations—Jesuit, Marist, Eudist, and others—compete powerfully with the State. In every city, opposite the lay college is set up an ecclesiastical house which also fits for the baccalaureate. For various reasons, partly from religious conviction, but especially out of social snobbery, the rich bourgeoisie prefers to send its children to the religious. Their instruction, however it may have improved, cannot be compared with that afforded by the admirable corps of professors which the École Normale Supérieure and the French universities send to the State colleges. But the *education* is supposed to be better. Hence all the *Monsieur Jourdains* and the *Monsieur Poiriers* of the bourgeoisie are proud to see their sons in the same school with the sons of the reactionary aristocracy, just as Mme. Worms Clavelin, Anatole France's wife of the Jewish prefect, was delighted to visit her daughter in the convent of the Dames du Précieux Sang where she was having her brought up.

The first material result of this competition is, that the number of lycée pupils has diminished while that of the religious schools has gone on increasing. The statistics of the past year show 86,321 pupils for the lay colleges, as against 91,140 for the Catholic. Another consequence is, that a large number of the functionaries of the Republican state—magistrates, officers, etc.—are recruited from schools of which the spirit is implicitly if not violently hostile to every idea on which the Republic rests. French Radicals, in their morbid distrust of the Church, have always regretted the law of 1850, known as the Falloux law, that authorized the congregations to compete with State instruction. When it was under discussion, Victor Hugo attacked it with his customary emphasis, saying to the clerical party: "This is your law, and, to be frank, I do not trust you. To instruct is to construct, and I distrust what you construct."

This anti-clerical distrust ended in the bill introduced by the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry, and which, without suppressing liberty of instruction, takes certain precautions, not to be called liberal, against the competing schools. It is styled an "Act respecting the Recruitment of Functionaries," or "the Scholastic Probation," and decides that no one can become a functionary if his three last years of study were not pursued in a State lycée. It has already encountered lively opposition among many republicans, by no means clerical. Those who uphold it and inspired it, like M. Aulard, the well-known historian of the Revolution and professor in the University of Paris, assert its necessity for combating Catholic instruction, which deforms the mind, warps the character, and renders youth incapable of reasoning justly, pliant to external authority, unfitted to furnish good citizens of a free country. M. Aulard recently affirmed that, at the examinations for the baccalaureate, he always detected the Jesuit pupils by their parrot-like recitation of lessons learned by rote, and by their inability to display either personal judgment or intellectual independence.

Whatever opinion be held on this point, and granting that these criticisms are well founded, it does not seem as if the State had a right to attack individual liberty even in the slight degree in which this bill attacks it. For my part I regret that a mind so judicious and liberal as M. Waldeck-Rousseau's has made such a concession to the Radical party. Besides, the theory on which the bill is based is singularly risky and liable to many exceptions. The instruction received at school does not always constitute the principal element in the formation of character. Not every pupil graduated from the French State schools has become a Liberal. M. Drumont, for example, who has the soul of a monk of the League, was a pupil of the Lycée Charlemagne at Paris. On the other hand, not only have the ecclesiastical schools produced many republicans, but the most fanatical anti-clerics are pupils of the Jesuit and other congregations. Voltaire was educated by the Jesuits at the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, and, in spite of all his subsequent digressions, they cherished a certain pride in having had such a pupil. Gambetta, who invented the cry, "The enemy is clericalism," was a brilliant pupil of the little seminary at Cahors where he composed pious verse in Latin. A recent Radical Minister of Public Instruction, M. Combes, was formerly not only a seminary pupil but professor. M. Loubet himself was pupil in a small Catholic establishment in La Drôme. Twenty less-known personages might be cited who had derived from their clerical education only a savage anti-religious fanaticism. M. Urbain Gohier, the violent publicist, who wrote the other day for the *National Review* an exaggerated and unjust article against French Catholicism, was a pupil of the con-

gregation of the Marists, who direct the Collège Stanislas at Paris.

Undeniably the two-fold education received by French youth creates two hostile currents, and excites between two halves of one people a sorry antagonism. But that is a natural result of French historical evolution, and no law can at one stroke extinguish it. For the rest, even if we could purchase the moral unity of the country in this manner, the cost would be too dear at the expense of freedom, which is a republic's excuse for being and its most precious possession. OTHON GUERLAC.

Correspondence.

A PERPLEXED REPUBLICAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The perplexities which I have at this time as to my political duty are doubtless the same that occur to many who wish to support that party which will do the least wrong when in power. I am a native of Kentucky, and was in the Union Army during the civil war. I was a Republican until Mr. Cleveland declared for a "tariff for revenue only"; then I voted with the Democrats. I was strongly repelled by Mr. Bryan's doctrines, and believed him a dangerous man, and his platform wrong from any point of view and revolutionary in its principles and tendencies. Hence, I voted for Mr. McKinley for President, and have since voted with the Republicans, although opposed to their tariff doctrines.

However, if they persist, as I believe they certainly will, in the policy of expansion and the disregard of what so many revere as the fundamental principles of freedom, what can we do? Mr. Bryan and his party are guilty of dangerous financial principles, yet they may possibly not be absolutely destructive of our government; but their doctrines as to law, courts, and constitutions are so fearful that we should not risk them under any conditions heretofore experienced. On the other side, Mr. McKinley and party have forgotten our country's most sacred traditions and history, and are seeking to establish precedents and adopt a foreign policy that will identify our Government's future action with that of Germany, Russia, and other monarchies, substituting as guiding principles pride as a world power, and faith in strong navies and large armies, in place of faith in natural justice and right, and so destroying all present hope of free institutions.

If there were a Democratic party such as was known prior to 1896, with a nominee on a platform in accordance with its principles, we could vote for him. But there is now no such party, and no proper place for many good and true men—as heretofore defined—to go. Must they, then, be forced to choose between McKinley partisans and Bryan partisans as we now know them? In such case, as for me, I cannot yet say with certainty what would be my decision, but I fear it is a much more portentous question to Mr. McKinley than his friends yet believe or realize. It will probably be decided by many in a way very dangerous to his hopes of success. Many who voted for him at the last election, and expected to do so again, now think Mr. Bryan the less of the two evils, and will support him. The problem is, How many are there of that mind? Are there enough to change the result? Judging from the condition of my mind, as an independent with Republican antecedents, I think there is a very grave danger here to Mr. McKinley's success, from which I can see no prospect that he will try to escape, and which may turn the scale against him at the election next year. JNO. H. WARD.

MICCOSUKIE, FLA., January 11, 1900.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on the Vice-Presidency, in your issue of November 9, is interesting. Likewise John Adams's sarcasm describing his office as the most insignificant "that ever the mind of man contrived or his imagination conceived," is amusing. There is, however, another view of the question, whether the Vice-Presidency is a superfluous office, which I do not remember having seen in print.

All thoughtful observers of our political history are one in thinking it of great importance to maintain the prestige of the United States Senate—in fact, to keep it at the highest attainable standard. The dignity of its presiding officer, and thereby of the Senate itself, is greatly enhanced by his being elected by the whole people, at the same time and in the same manner and for the same period as the President, and through his being his heir apparent. No one as yet has suggested so good a way of choosing this dignitary as that provided by the Constitution. Meanwhile, the danger in diminishing the halo which now undoubtedly does surround the head of the permanent President of the Senate, is perhaps as great as the danger of having an occasional mediocre President arising from the existing method of selecting him. This, of course, only makes it, if possible, the more important that the Vice-Presidency should be filled, as you very properly say, with a strict view to the possible succession.—Yours truly,

E. C. DU BOIS.

CHORRILLOS, PERU, December 29, 1899.

THE CENTURY ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While examining newspaper files in the Wisconsin State Historical Library yesterday, I found, in the *Connecticut Courant* for January 5, 1801, two and a half columns of verse entitled, "The Triumph of Democracy; A Poem. Addressed to the readers of the *Connecticut Courant*." At the end of it are a number of explanatory notes and the date, "Hartford, Jan. 1, 1801"; but nothing more to indicate the author. I find it again in the *New England Palladium*, duly accredited by the full title, but only one day later. Hence it must have been sent to Boston also before its publication by the *Courant*.

The vote for the President, just in from the critical State of South Carolina, has assured the election of Jefferson (or Burr). The poem fiercely derides the victors, and is an interesting Federalist lampoon. The introductory stanza, however, treats of a troublesome question of these days in so appropriate and satisfactory a way that it should be republished. It is as follows:

"PRECISELY twelve o'clock, last night,
The Eighteenth Century took its flight.
Full many a calculating head
Has rack'd its brains, its ink has shed,
To prove by metaphysics fine
A *Hundred* means but *Ninety-nine;*
While at their wisdom others wonder'd,
But took *one more* to make a hundred.
Thus, by an unexampled riddle,
The world's divided in the middle.
The Century, waking from its bed,
Finds half mankind a year a-head;
While t'other half, with lingering pace,
Have scarcely started in the race.
Strange! at "*the Eighteenth Century's close,*
When light in beams effulgent glows,'
When bright "*Illumination's*" ray
Has chas'd the Darkness far away,
Heads fill'd with mathematic lore
Dispute if *two and two make four.*
Go on, ye Scientific Sages,
Collect your light a few more ages;
Perhaps as swells the vast amount,
A century hence you'll *learn to count;*
Whilst we more usefully employ'd
Will traverse back the mighty void,
With keen, researching eye discern
Some lessons for the world to learn.
Nor will we venture far to stray,
Lest *in the Dark* we lose our way;
A single year, perchance, or so,
Is all the length we mean to go——
. . . . . .
A year, that nowhere does belong
Shall be the subject of our song."

Respectfully yours, F. G. FRANKLIN.

MADISON, WIS., 915 UNIVERSITY AVE., January 16, 1900.

THE STRENUOUSNESS OF SOUTHERN "DIFFICULTIES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The appalling tragedy at Frankfort last Tuesday was without political significance, the chief actors being of one party. Colston (ex-Congressman) and Lieut. Scott, formerly officers of the Third Kentucky Volunteers, quarrelled in camp at Anniston, Ala., over military and personal matters, and there engaged in a pistol duel. Of course, under the example of war, and in the spirit of that "strenuous life" of which your Governor is the chief apostle, the quarrel was pursued to its desperate conclusion. Kentucky bows her humiliated head, but asks, Is the spirit of that conflict hers alone? Is not fighting now advanced to be one of the noblest incidents of life? And, if so, have we not furnished a splendid spectacle for the approval of those who favor fighting to develop manhood, courage, and virtue? Let Gov. Roosevelt answer. ****

LOUISVILLE, KY., January 18, 1900.

Notes.

Mr. Edwin L. Godkin's Reminiscences, which recently appeared in the *Evening Post*, are to be elaborated for publication in book form by Macmillan Co., in the coming autumn.

The same firm has actually in press a translation of some twenty chapters by as many German officers on 'The Franco-German War,' with portraits and battle-maps, and 'Monopolies and Trusts,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely, the first volume of a series called "A Citizens' Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology."

The third volume of Lady Randolph Churchill's *Anglo-Saxon Review* (John Lane) will be ready for delivery early next month. It has been delayed by fire. Among the portraits are those of Bonaparte, the Shelleys, Paderewski, and Canning; among the contributors, one American at least, Stephen Crane.

A new and amended edition of Prof. A. Campbell Fraser's 'Life and Works of Bishop Berkeley,' originally issued in 1871,

is now in preparation, and will probably be ready for publication by the Clarendon Press before the end of the present year; the 'Works' (including the posthumous writings first published in 1871) being now arranged in chronological order with additional material since discovered, and with the dissertations and annotations carefully revised and to a great extent rewritten. The life will be curtailed. Prof. Campbell Fraser will be glad to receive any fresh biographical or bibliographical information, or corrections of errors in his first edition, and communications may be addressed to him at the University Press, Oxford.

The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston, will shortly issue 'The Story of the Nineteenth Century [in round numbers],' by Elbridge S. Brooks.

A memoir of the late Charles Albert Berry, D.D., of Wolverhampton, England, by the Rev. James S. Drummond, is about to be brought out by Cassell & Co.

A. C. McClurg & Co. will soon issue a new volume of essays and addresses by Bishop Spalding.

From Macmillan Co. (London: A. & C. Black) we have the fifty-second issue of the annual biographical dictionary known as 'Who's Who,' for 1900, and the twentieth of 'The Englishwoman's Year-book and Directory' for 1900, edited by Emily Janes, Secretary to the National Union of Women Workers of Great Britain and Ireland—both works being in a series of new issues. Of 'Who's Who' it is needless to speak; its praise is reflected in the excellent imitation, 'Who's Who in America.' The fact that the present edition had to go to press early in November, accounts for the omission of the employment of British officers in South Africa; but we note that the late Gen. Symons is dropped. Attention should be called anew to the convenient preliminary lists and tables concerning the Royal Family, Parliament, the Government, the London School Board, the fleet, public schools, societies, etc. 'The Englishwoman's Year-book' is broadly occupied with furnishing all needful information about Education, Employments (a list suggestive outside of England), the Medical Profession, with a list of medical women; Science, with a record of woman's work in 1899; Literature, Fine Arts and Music, Sports, Clubs, etc. There are sections for Housekeeping, Travelling, and Thrift, for Public Work and Philanthropy. A list of charitable homes for women and children, and a first "directory of the names and addresses of women who are well known to the world and to workers," are still other features of this useful publication.

The Harpers proceed with 'Shirley' and 'Villette' in the "Haworth Edition" of the Brontë sisters. Mrs. Humphry Ward furnishes an introduction to each volume. Her praise of 'Shirley' is necessarily dimmed by her final remark that "it contains none the less the promise and potency of higher things than 'Jane Eyre'—of the brilliant, the imperishable 'Villette.'" Passing on to 'Villette' itself, we find Mrs. Ward certain that "it is the writer's masterpiece." This, in spite of the fact that it has never been so widely read as 'Jane Eyre,' and that the "majority of English readers prefer 'Shirley.'" The reason for the comparative neglect of 'Villette' Mrs. Ward discovers in the consideration that "the narrowness of the stage on which the action passes, the foreign setting, the very fulness of poetry, of visualizing force, that runs through it like a fiery stream, bathing and kindling all it touches down to the smallest detail, are repellent or tiring to the mind that has no energy of its own responsive to the energy of the writer."

All of Jane Austen in the pocket "Temple" output of first editions (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan)—the six works making ten volumes delightfully bound in olive leatherette, the whole encased in a neat box, at a moderate price—is something to tempt the booklover. Each dainty volume has a colored frontispiece illustration in the fashion of the beginning of the present century. There is no apparatus of any kind except what accompanied the original issue. The type is clear, the form most companionable.

The number of good State atlases of the United States is wofully small, corresponding to the backwardness of definitive surveys. That of New Jersey, prepared by its own Geological Survey, led in time and is still the best of its kind, and, as we lately reported, is undergoing revision. New York lacks the basis for a similar work, but what could be done with the materials at command, and by special surveys, was handsomely published five years ago by Julius Bien & Co. of this city. In the interval the same firm has undertaken an Atlas of Pennsylvania, on a smaller scale and therefore of somewhat handier size. Besides the several county maps with roads, "the names of all places," however insignificant, with indication of population, etc., there are fine folding maps (1) of the United States, reduced from that of the United States Geological Survey, showing every county and county-seat, and the entire railroad system of the country; and (2) a railroad and post-office map of Pennsylvania, on which, the railroads being delineated in red, it is curious to see to what an extent they hug the water-courses and in appearance form a fluvial system. There follows an economic and geologic map of formation and mineral resources, Harden's striking Centennial relief map of the State, rainfall and temperature map, and statistics in diagrams. Add to the foregoing a dozen maps of cities and a general index, and some idea will be had of this most welcome addition to works of reference for school, library, and office.

'Famous Actors of the Day,' by Lewis C. Strang (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), is a companion volume to 'Famous Actresses of the Day,' by the same author, of which due notice was taken a few weeks ago, and is of the same general description. It is pleasantly written, and contains a quantity of biographical information for persons interested in the personality of more or less well-known theatrical performers. The word "famous," of course, is rather grotesquely misapplied in a good many cases, and the critical estimates are often, as is common in publications of this kind, pretty reckless, although not much fault is to be found, in this respect, with the notices of such performers as Joseph Jefferson, John Drew, Richard Mansfield, and two or three others of assured position. The photographic illustrations are generally very good, and the book is attractive in print and appearance; but the typographical errors are altogether too frequent.

The Rev. S. P. H. Statham's 'History of the Castle, Town and Port of Dover' (Longmans) will do little to remove the discredit which attaches to local histories as a class. Externally it is substantial enough; and its compilation has doubtless involved a great deal of labor. But it includes a large amount of matter that is altogether unnecessary (take, for example, the account of the Druids); it contains an infinite number of details of no interest at all except to the genealogist; the author shows little power of grouping his facts and bringing out their significance; and the style throughout is dull, and often enough incorrect. Mr. Statham makes a great parade of his use of the rolls in the Record Office and of unprinted authorities in the British Museum, but he nowhere gives any exact reference, so that the volume can be of little service to serious students. There are abundant indications that it would be unsafe to rely on Mr. Statham's version of his authorities, as where the conflict with the Spanish ships in 1350 is converted into "a victory over the French in a battle named *Lespagnols sur Mer*"! Still, the book will look well on the tables of "the good folk" of Dover, and when they take it up on Sunday afternoon they will probably learn something from it.

As a contribution to the history of communistic experiments 'The Oneida Community,' by Allan Estlake (London: George Redway), has a certain value. The author, who was a member of this community, writes with evident sincerity; but his earnestness is not sufficient to overcome the disgust with which, in a monogamic society, reversions to polyandry will be regarded.

It is reported by German journals as more than probable that the third volume of Bismarck's 'Gedanken und Erinnerungen' will never be issued, as the sons of the Iron Chancellor have forbidden its publication. The house of Cotta, which contracted for the whole work, will go to law in the matter and sue for damages, as it has suffered considerable pecuniary loss by the suppression.

The Philippines is the subject of the opening article, by the Hon. John Barrett, in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for January. It contains nothing beyond the familiar statements of the importance of the position of Manila, the great natural resources of the islands, and the possibilities of trade with Asia. The only personal touch is the characterization of Aguinaldo. Of greater interest is Mr. F. C. Schrader's account of the Cape Nome gold district, which he visited last October. The beach diggings, from which it is estimated a million dollars were taken last season, have this advantage over those at the opposite extremity of America, at Cape Horn, in that they are above the high-tide level, but otherwise the conditions are very similar—the open sea without safe anchorage, a beach without shelter or fuel except driftwood, and a barren country behind. Yet Nome is a town of from three to five thousand inhabitants, with three newspapers. The beach gold is extracted by rocking, and, the supply of copper-plate having given out, in many instances "the bottom of the rocker was covered by United States silver coin, principally one-dollar pieces, and these coated with the mercury which caught the gold." The article is accompanied by an excellent map and some illustrations. Mr. R. U. Goode describes the methods employed by the Geological Survey for marking the boundary line between Idaho and Montana, and there are also notes descriptive of the

Copper River delta, upon the census of 1900, and the total eclipse of the sun.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number eleven, contains the conclusion of Gen. Krahmer's interesting account of the Province of Anadyr in the northeastern extremity of Siberia. He describes with some detail the methods of journeying between the settlements at the different seasons of the year, the traffic, the condition and manner of life of the Cossacks in the Government employ, and the general outlook for the future of the people, closing with a reference to the American whaling industry. After giving some statistics to show the value of the fish annually taken by our ships in Russian waters, he proposes as a remedy, since Russian war-ships could not be spared to patrol these coasts, that a monopoly of the fishing should be granted to a company furnished with the power to protect its rights. Some such measure he regards as essential, not merely to the well-being, but to the very existence, of some of the tribes.

Semitic epigraphical research has been so vigorously and successfully advanced of late years, and the mass of new materials, especially in the shape of inscriptions, has grown to such an extent, that an organ for the purpose of systematically utilizing these new finds has seemed necessary. Such an organ is now to be published by the house of J. Ricker, in Giessen, *Ephemeris für Semitische Epigraphik*, edited by Dr. Mark Lidzbarki. A leading purpose is to publish new inscriptions and foster special discussions and investigations. The size of the "hefts" will depend on the material requiring attention, and the annual volume is to cost about 15 marks.

According to the Berlin *Börsen-Courier*, the capital of Germany is the most "monumental" city in the world, boasting of no fewer than sixty-three such memorials. As soon as the Siegesallee is completed and other monuments now projected are a reality, the "Athens of the Spree" will be able to boast of at least one hundred. The *Rundschau* adds that this is a little too much of a good thing, as the why and wherefore of not a few of these monuments is not exactly apparent. It is noticeable that, in this centre of the greatest military state of the age, the number of civilians who have thus been honored exceeds the number of military men, there being only twenty-nine of the latter represented, as against thirty-four of the former.

The contents of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897-98, of which volume i. has just been sent out, though naturally in the main informatory and statistical, are not lacking in stimulating matter. What citizen of Kansas, for instance, can fail to be aroused by the statement that there are "practically no requirements" for the practice of medicine in his State, when even of the doctor among the Creek Nation in the Indian Territory "a good moral character and payment of $25 is required"? Dr. Harris's criteria of civilization, in his introductory remarks on Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines (pp. xl, ff.), are interesting and to the point. "If we cannot come into contact with lower civilizations," he says among other things, "without bringing extermination to their people, we are still far from the goal. It must be our great object to improve our institutions until we can bring blessings to lower peoples and set them on a road to rapid progress." The chapter on Education in the Philippines (pp. 968-983) is not a masterpiece of composition, but we wish it might be read by every man and woman, young and old, in the country. It would be news to many that "all travellers state that there are schools in every village"; that "the instruction among the Indians [*i. e.*, the Tagals] was far from being backward when compared with that of the lower classes in Europe. Nearly all the Tagals can read and write. . . . The Indians play from memory the overtures of Rossini and Meyerbeer," etc. An article by the German ethnologist Blumentritt is quoted from and referred to as being given in the Report (p. 971), but other counsel must have prevailed and prevented its insertion, for it is not there. The article appeared in the *Rundschau* for July, 1898, and, together with another by the same scholar. "Völkerpsychologisches in der Philippinenfrage" (*Rundschau*, May, 1899), is well worth reading. Of several other important chapters in the Report we must mention at least that on Foreign Influence on Education in the U. S. (pp. 591-629). As to the condition of education in this country during the year covered by the Report (ending June 30, 1898), it is encouraging to notice progress and improvements along the whole line from the common school to the university.

A bill has just been introduced in the Senate, through the Senate committee on the District of Columbia, which provides for the conferring of degrees by the Smithsonian Institution. Provision is also made for the appointment of a board of five examiners, each examiner to receive a salary of four or five thousand dollars a year, and to devote his whole time to the duties of instruction and examination.

The Egyptian budget of Mr. J. L. Gorst, the financial adviser, bears striking testimony to the prosperity of the country even under the unfavorable circumstance of the lowest Nile flood ever recorded. The total loss from this failure of irrigation, mainly in Upper Egypt, is estimated at $4,000,000. On the other hand, the value of the cotton crop alone in 1899 exceeds that of 1898 by more than $17,000,000, thanks to a larger yield and higher prices. Significant also is the influx of foreign capital, which has amounted in the past ten years to $22,500,000, while the tourists are estimated to have expended in the same time $50,000,000 in round numbers.

An evidence of the present supremacy of the civil power over the military party in France—one of the few satisfactory results of the Dreyfus trial—is the reorganization of French West Africa. A part of the Sudan is to be attached to each of the four contiguous colonies, and the remainder is divided into two military districts, while the whole region is to be under the control of a Governor-General, with powers apparently similar to those of the Viceroy of India, with headquarters at St. Louis, the capital of Senegal. One effect of this measure will be the putting an end to those annual military expeditions, at times unauthorized by and leading to action directly contrary to the wishes of the Government of the day, which have again and again brought France and England to the brink of war. Another equally desirable effect will probably be that the energies and resources of the Government will be diverted from these purely military operations to the work of the peaceful development of the country.

We regret to record the death of Surgeon Charles A. Siegfried, U. S. N., which took place at Newport on January 14. Dr. Siegfried was an occasional correspondent of the *Nation* while on his cruises. His powers of general observation were excellent, and he possessed a very humane spirit. Bacteriology was his chosen field of research, and, in the language of Dr. Wolcott Gibbs, he was "a mine of information upon all subjects connected with sanitation and with the construction, care, and management of hospitals."

—The thirteenth volume (new series) of the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society (Longmans) is one of exceptional interest. It opens with a Presidential Address—"the eighth and last"—by Sir M. E. Grant Duff. He takes for his text the recent translation of the Abbé Dubois's book on Hindu manners, and shows how the subsequent history of British administration in India has but confirmed the wisdom of the Abbé's observations. For instance, it is no less true than it was in 1823 that whoever may be the nominal sovereign, his rule must in practice be largely Brahminical. At present, "Brahmins swarm in all our public offices, and rightly so. . . . At the same time they are a caste . . . and they hold together like a vast trades-union combined with a cousinhood." Then follows an elaborate treatise of some fifty-seven pages by Mr. C. H. Firth, who, of course, knows more about the Cromwellian period than any writer except Mr. Gardiner, on "The Raising of the Ironsides." Herein he describes in detail, with an elaborate citation of authorities, the constitution of the force, its arms and equipment, its pay and maintenance, and its medical and religious organization. He furnishes incidentally some fresh evidence of the incompatibility of Cromwell's position as the commander of a body of troops devoted to his person with the theory of government by Parliament. For, within a few weeks from the day when Cromwell assured the House of Commons that his soldiers "look not upon me but upon you," and "do not idolize me, but look upon the cause they fight for," the Ironsides refused, in the absence of their beloved commander, to carry out the most positive orders of the House.

—The next paper is also by a writer who has made the period of which it treats peculiarly his own; it is by Mr. James Gairdner, and is concerned with the fall of Cardinal Wolsey. His contention seems to be that Henry VIII. had a lingering regard for his great minister to the last, and that 'the Parliamentary manœuvres of Cromwell might have saved Wolsey from utter ruin if he had not first died from disease aggravated by fright. Mr. Gairdner parenthetically expresses his dissent from the current view that the development of the House of Commons was arrested under "the New Monarchy." In his view "it was the Tudors who first instructed them to snub the House of Lords and the Bishops in convocation. . . . For the House of Lords and the Church had been the chief controlling powers hitherto to prevent absolutism; and it was the Tudor policy to depress them both by setting up the House of Commons as a counterpoise to the one, and royal supremacy to overbear the other." The other papers in the volume deal with "Politics at the Council of Constance,"

by Mr. Figgis, one of the best-known of the younger generation of Cambridge historical tutors, pointing out the similarity of the Conciliar theory to the Whig doctrine of later centuries; a comparison between Pitt's action in 1783-4 and Peel's in 1834-5, by Mr. F. H. Hill; the "Origin and Early History of Double Monasteries," or monasteries for men and women, treated with wide learning by Miss Mary Bateson; and finally the "Alexander Prize Essay on the Relations of the Crown to Trade under James I.," by Miss Hermia Durham—a pupil, if internal evidence does not deceive us, of Dr. Cunningham. So creditable a publication as this volume encourages us to remind the university librarians of America that the Royal Historical Society is more than ever deserving of support since it has been amalgamated with the Camden. Indeed, Mr. Gardiner has arranged to edit so many volumes of hitherto unprinted material for the Society that its publications will soon be indispensable to all students of English history in the seventeenth century.

—In 'Oxyrhynchus Papyri, Part II.,' published by the Græco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund, the editors, Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt, present one hundred and ninety-three Greek texts, all of the first century B. C., or first century A. D., with the exception of some theological and classical fragments, a number of medical prescriptions for affections of the ear, and the long petition of Dionysia, which are of the second, third, and fourth centuries A. D. The theological texts include St. John's Gospel, chapters i. and xx., and Paul's Epistle to the Romans, chapter i. Among the new classical fragments are some of great interest, *e. g.*, fifty-one lines of a lost comedy by Menander, "The Shorn Lady." The scene here presented is evidently near the close of the comedy, and helps to a fair reconstruction of the plot. One large fragment contains scholia on the twenty-first book of the 'Iliad.' Another gives a list of Olympian victors for the years B. C. 480-468, and 456-448. This is of great value, as it affords a means of determining the date of various odes of Pindar and Bacchylides. The most extended of the fragments of extant classical authors is a copy of a large portion of the fifth book of the 'Iliad,' of the third century A. D. Of miscellaneous fragments, the most important is the "Petition of Dionysia to the Prefect." It has to do with a dispute between Dionysia and her father, both on money matters and on the right of the latter to separate his daughter from her husband. So, both from the historical and legal point of view, it is a valuable document for this period (186 A. D.). The remaining numbers, 238-300, are first-century documents, among them several letters. They deal with various business matters, court affairs, marriages, divorces, deaths, taxes, etc. The value of such material is evident. Besides these fragments, which are given in full with notes, a hundred papyri are merely described. Perfect indices and eight facsimile plates increase the value and usefulness of the volume.

—Among other things the bicycle is doing is to produce a crop of gossipy guidebooks; and the invention of cheap methods of reproducing drawings enables the publishers to illustrate them lavishly at comparatively small cost. Among the best of its kind (so far as the text is concerned) is 'Highways and Byways in Yorkshire,' by Arthur H. Norway (The Macmillan Co.). The author has an eye for the picturesque; he has evidently got up the local history and folklore; and he carries his readers along with a breezy, not to say breathless, enthusiasm which young ladies will find contagious. The book deserves to be a success, though it is just a little too big and a little too daintily bound to be carried about on the wheel. And as Mr. Norway will doubtless go on to describe 'Highways and Byways' in some other counties, he may be the better for a word or so of caution. "Word-painting" is always in danger of becoming verbiage, and mediævalism-for-the-multitude is tempted to resort to Wardour Street. Mr. Norway has not altogether escaped these risks. It may be added that the note of ingenuous simplicity may be a little forced. "It is with the heart of a child that I have gone round Yorkshire, catching at whatever pleased my idle fancy; and now it is with the lips of a child that I find myself repeating," etc.—this is all very sweet and pretty, but it is apt to pall. As for the illlustrations, the reader who sees on the cover that they are by Joseph Pennell and Hugh Thomson, must prepare to be disappointed. They are so badly reproduced that their scratchy outlines can give no pleasure, and some of the plates—like the "Return from the Hawking," conceived of in a G. P. R. James vein —are simply ridiculous.

—Mr. C. W. Oman's 'England in the Nineteenth Century' (Longmans) is a *compte rendu* of the past hundred years which contains 260 pages, besides several useful appendices and an index. It is a serviceable manual as it stands, but might have been made better by the exercise of a little more care in the choice of language. A book of this sort need not be colorless, but it should avoid taking a partisan stand upon matters which are notoriously subjects of debate. Mr. Oman is not fair in his attitude towards the French Revolution or towards Napoleon, his references to the Continental rivals of England at the present time are in questionable taste, and, generally speaking, his tone is too condemnatory in passages where he deals with those who differed or differ from his own view. For instance, the following comment on the Fashoda episode suggests the animus of a newspaper editorial rather than the calm of an historical treatise: "We were, in fact, on the brink of a war with France, for her intolerable 'policy of pin-pricks,' pursued for the last ten years, had rendered any further yielding impossible. Fortunately, the French Government faltered and made submission; it was not ready to fight when its internal politics were confused with the wretched Dreyfus case, and when its ally, the Czar, refused any prospect of help." It would have been quite possible to give all the essential facts of the case without introducing the note of dislike which marks the sentences just quoted. In point of accuracy Mr. Oman is better than in point of style. We have observed nothing seriously amiss in his account of English domestic politics, though when he comes to imperial expansion and colonial self-government he is not quite impeccable. He should not say that the lower branch of the Dominion Parliament is a "House of Representatives." He is also at fault in his enumeration of Canadian provinces in the Northwest. "Since it [the Canadian Pacific Railway] was finished, the development of Manitoba and the other regions of the Great Lone Land has been very rapid. Nine new provinces now exist in this once uninhabited region, with a rapidly growing population of over 300,000 souls." Mr. Oman's treatment of economic history is the most distinctive thing among the good features of his book. He establishes the connection between industry and politics, both by frequent passages in the text and by placing among the appendices a table of six selected budgets; those, namely, for 1801-'02, 1810, 1820, 1846, 1855, and 1898. The introduction also contains several paragraphs which are devoted to the transformation of English life by the industrial revolution. If a certain amount of allowance is made for the degree of Mr. Oman's patriotism, and especially for his estrangement from France, the reader will find much that is admirable in his sketch of English political history since the Peace of Amiens.

EATON ON THE GOVERNMENT OF MUNICIPALITIES.

The Government of Municipalities. By Dorman B. Eaton. Macmillan Co. 1899.

No man in New York, perhaps no man in the United States, had better earned the right to be heard on municipal questions than the late Dorman B. Eaton had done. For many years he had been a persistent and unwearied advocate of civil-service reform in the national and State governments as well as in cities, and had labored with unselfish zeal for the improvement and purification of city government in New York. We regret that our notice of this volume, in which he sets forth his view with much fulness and care, and which deserves the attentive study of those who feel how little progress American cities have yet made towards the ideal which all good citizens agree in placing before their eyes, should have been necessarily delayed till after his death.

Mr. Eaton begins by noting the fact that municipal administration is the weakest point in the conduct of our public affairs. He does not need to prove the fact. Every reasonable man, from Portland to San Francisco, admits it. He next asks why municipal administration is so bad when national administration and State administration are so good. If we are satisfied with the Federal Constitution and the State constitutions, why, he asks, are we so dissatisfied with the charters of the great cities, and why are constant attempts made to improve them? He concludes that there must be special causes at work to deprave city governments which are absent from the wider spheres of the nation and the State; and he proceeds to indicate these causes, finding the chief among them in the control which national parties have established over the politics of the cities—a control which has enabled party organizations (themselves, perhaps, caring very little about national political issues) to dominate cities, and to use municipal governments for sordid and purely selfish purposes. He observes with truth that all the evils of American city government have grown up within the lifetime of living men, and notes that it was not till 1821 that the New York State Constitution contained any provisions relating to municipal affairs. Party organization seized upon the cities before it had been

realized what a dangerous field for its working the population of great cities supplied. And it may be added, though Mr. Eaton does not lay much stress upon the fact, that the large and rapid immigration from Europe, which accompanied and partly caused the swift growth of American cities, made evils which might anyhow have been looked for develop with unexpected rapidity.

Agreeing with our author in thinking that city government is the least satisfactory part of our system of government, and that its faults are chiefly due to the power of party organizations, we must point out that these faults are, after all, only the most striking instance of the weak point of modern democracy in the United States, viz., the tendency to let government fall into the hands of those who have selfish motives for getting hold of it, and to make its administration a means of private gain. This tendency is surely more powerful and more pernicious in the national Government and in the State governments than Mr. Eaton seems to recognize. But it is doubtless more palpably widespread and harmful in municipal governments, because the questions with which mayors and city councils have to deal are less interesting to most men of ability than are the questions which come before Congress, and because the field for ambition is less attractive, while on the other hand the opportunities for illicit gain are quite as great—probably even greater—in cities than they are in State or national legislatures.

This, however, is a digression, from which we must return to the remedies suggested by our author for the faults of city government. He first examines and dismisses two remedies on which some reformers have insisted. One is the grant of autocratic power to the Mayor. Differing from President Low, he disapproves of this arrangement, and holds it to be the offspring of party expediency, and calculated to play into the hands of party selfishness. He then discusses the view that what cities need is entire emancipation from State interference, or, as he terms it, complete home rule. This he considers to be wholesome only when the population of the city is sure to make a good use of its freedom—a condition which often fails to be realized. Thus, while blaming the frequent changes in our city charters—and particularly in that of New York, which has been tinkered with (according to Mr. Conkling) 390 times in the ten years between 1880 and 1890—he holds that some power of interference ought to be preserved to the State for supervising or correcting the errors of municipal authorities; and he cites the instances of State Boards of Charities, State Boards of Health, State Civil-Service Commissions, State powers of inspection, as instances of the good which such interference may effect.

These two remedies being accordingly pronounced inadequate, Mr. Eaton proceeds to propound his own scheme of reform. The chief plank in it is the removal of the party element from city government—a change the need for which he illustrates copiously from the career of Tammany Hall. Most of our readers will agree that this removal is desirable, but will ask how in the world it is to be accomplished. Mr. Eaton answers: By civil-service reform, *i. e.*, by making promotions for merit only, by forbidding arbitrary dismissals from party motives, by lengthening terms of official service, and also by reducing the number of elections and of elective offices. A further expedient which he advocates is a change in the mode of voting. The present election districts in cities seem to him too small. He would amalgamate them so as to form larger areas in each of which several persons should be elected; and he would have these elected on the system which has been usually called proportional representation, but which he prefers to describe as Free Voting. This scheme exists in the State of Illinois under the form of the so-called Cumulative Vote. In each Assembly district three representatives are elected, and a voter may distribute his three votes among the candidates as he pleases, giving one to each, or two to one and the third to another, or all three votes to the same candidate. The same plan has been at work in Great Britain in school-board elections since those bodies were established by the act of 1870. Mr. Eaton quotes British experience as being strongly in favor of the plan, but surely without sufficient ground. This mode of election has excited constant complaints both in England and in Scotland, on the ground that it gives too much power to small but compact sections. Attempts have often been made to get rid of it, and though the party in England which favors denominational schools has so far succeeded in preventing those attempts from being carried through Parliament, it would seem that the general opinion of educationalists condemns the system, and that it will probably be abolished and the method of voting which prevails in all other elections will be extended to school boards also.

In his next proposal Mr. Eaton again appeals, and here with better grounds, to European experience. He thinks that a Mayor should be elected, not by the city voters, but by the Council, and that, so far from being autocratic, the chief power should be taken from him and vested in the Council, as it is in the municipalities of all European countries. He admits that the Councils, as they now exist in our cities, would not be good bodies either to choose a Mayor or to administer a city, but conceives that the better method of election which he suggests would so greatly improve their composition that their functions might safely be intrusted to them. This method is as follows: The model Council would be elected upon the principle of free nominations and free voting in areas larger than the present districts. The city would be divided into four districts, in each of which nine aldermen would be elected by the cumulative vote, while ten others would be elected (also by cumulative vote) from the whole city. These forty-six would then add to their own number ten others, chosen from the whole city in respect of their fitness to aid in administration. These fifty-six, forming the whole Council, may further elect, if they like, other honorary aldermen, being ex-officials, who shall be entitled to speak, but not to vote. The district aldermen are to be elected for six years, one-third going out of office each year; the ten city aldermen for two years, one-half going out each year, so that the Council, like the national Senate, would be a continuing body. We give this scheme in full, because it is perhaps the most novel part of Mr. Eaton's proposals, and raises some points of interest. That it is not likely to be carried out, our State legislatures and the opinion of practical politicians being what they are, goes without saying; nor does the experience of England seem to us conclusive, for English conditions and traditions are very different from our own. Apart, however, from these difficulties, we feel far less sanguine than the author is that any changes of machinery will bring about the improvements he desires. Party organizations have shown themselves able to lay hold on and use for their purposes any and every form of municipal constitution that has hitherto been invented. Councils, uni-cameral and bi-cameral alike, mayors—mayors limited and mayors autocratic—have both become their tools.

It is possible that the experiments Mr. Eaton advocates may be worth trying. But with the record of failures behind us, we cannot feel confident that any reform which changes in the mode of election or the transfer of functions from one authority to another may effect, will really go to the root of the evil. That root seems to lie in two facts. One is the indifference of all classes in our cities (the well-to-do not less than the poor) to good administration, as compared with their adherence to party names and party leaders. The other fact is the existence of a vast multitude of voters who do not realize that they have any interest in good administration, and who, owing to their ignorance, are not really qualified for the suffrage. Most people assume this latter fact to be the chief source of mischief. If we were to look only at New York and Chicago, we might think so. But the case of Philadelphia proves that the former is the more deep-seated cause; and it needs a complete change in the thoughts and habits of the people to remove it. However, our less sanguine estimate of the gain to be expected from changes in machinery does not prevent us from recognizing the value of the facts Mr. Eaton has so well collected, and of the opinions he has so judiciously expressed. His chapters on School and Sanitary Administration, on Police Administration, on Judicial Administration, are full of suggestions which well deserve the consideration of practical reformers. The concluding chapter, on the new charter of the Greater New York, would need a review all to itself in order that its criticisms, many of them being verified by painful experience, should be duly examined.

MUIRHEAD'S PRIVATE LAW OF ROME.

Historical Introduction to the Private Law of Rome. By the late James Muirhead, LL.D. Second edition, revised and edited by Henry Goudy, LL.D. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

This well-known work first appeared in an abridged form in the pages of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' It was published complete as a book in 1886. Its author, who for several years had been professor of Civil Law in the University of Edinburgh, and who had already given proof of his ability, in 1880, by an excellent edition of Gaius and Ulpian, rose at once, by virtue of his modestly named "Historical Introduction," to the front rank of writers on Roman law. Three years later the book was translated into French—an honor which has been granted to a few only of the most distinguished civilians, such as Ihering and Mommsen. It has also appeared in an

Italian translation. Unfortunately, the author has not lived to revise and expand his work, so as to incorporate in it the results of criticism and of recent research. The present editor has wisely refrained from changing in any way the text of 1886, but has given us a reprint, with valuable additions in the shape of notes and appendices.

Before touching upon these we feel bound to notice one striking fact. On its own subject this "Historical Introduction" has no rival in the English language. That the second edition of a book so unique should not appear till thirteen years after the first edition is certainly a remarkable illustration of how little Roman law is studied in England and in the United States. Owing to her peculiar institutions, Scotland has always fostered the study of the civil law, but in England it has not been successfully revived, except in the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London. The statement made in 1879 by Frederic Harrison, that "an effective knowledge of Roman law has been introduced into the ordinary education of every lawyer" *(Fortnightly Review*, January, 1879) is not much truer now than it was then. Solicitors are not expected to possess that knowledge, and, though the examination for admission to the English bar does profess to require it, we know of a barrister who recently passed on the strength of a week's study of Hunter's 'Introduction to Roman Law,' so that even in his own land Sir Henry Maine's preaching has not yet borne adequate fruit. England has, indeed, produced in recent years a few able writers, among whom Poste, Hunter, Roby, Moyle, Clark, Amos, and Muirhead are the best known, but our own country cannot boast of a single well-known laborer in this important field of learning. The neglect of Roman law in our universities, and its entire omission from the curriculum of most of our great law schools, is perfectly notorious. Nay, more, the neglect is deliberate and the omission intentional—a manifestation of learned opinion which we do not, however, propose to criticise here.

This book is, therefore, not likely to have a brilliant career as a text-book for American students, though it is eminently fitted for their use. But among that large and increasing class of our lawyers to whom case law may be daily bread, and who yet prefer not to live by bread alone, we think that this book will prove popular, partly on account of its elegance—to borrow an untranslatable term from the Roman jurists—partly because of the facility with which it handles an intricate subject, and partly on account of the clearness with which it distils into 400 pages the essence of a vast mass of German, French, and Italian research. To readers of the class above mentioned, we have no hesitation in commending it, and we should advise them to obtain from this source a general view of the infancy and growth of the Roman law before they plunge into such formidable treatises as those of Hunter or Salkowski (Whitfield's translation), which depict that law at its maturity.

The mention of modern research suggests one serious difficulty with which all histories of this subject have to contend, and which readers of this book must be prepared to face, namely, the bewildering conflict among scholars and commentators. Whoever bears in mind the nature of the subject will scarcely be surprised that differences of opinion should exist. The earliest student of Roman legal antiquities whose works have come down to us is M. Terentius Varro, who died in the year B. C. 116, and even to him the early law was not an open secret. Several centuries later Gaius himself, when describing historical changes, occasionally hints at strife among the learned by some such remark as "valde quaeritur." If these men came upon difficult problems, surely we need expect no easier path. Since their day the sources have become scantier and more corrupt, and even the mighty Twelve Tables have been reduced to fragments, as if by the ruthless hand of some mediæval Moses. We cannot positively say whether the Lex Aebutia, so important in the history of Roman procedure, was enacted before or after the time of Cicero. The precise distinction between *res mancipi* and *res nec mancipi* will probably always remain uncertain. Instances of this sort might be indefinitely multiplied. Indeed, no history of Roman law can ever be written concerning which the critics cannot, if they please, point out weaknesses in dozens of more or less vital spots. Nevertheless, these spots are unimportant as compared with the solid bulk of fact which modern discovery has laid bare. What we may fairly demand of our historical guide, under such circumstances, is that he shall lead us over the whole field with a firm hand and a clear head, and that he shall frankly warn us when we are treading on insecure ground. That demand has been amply fulfilled in the present volume.

The author has divided his subject into five parts: i., the Regal Period; ii., the *Jus Civile*, covering the Twelve Tables and the law of the Republic down to the Punic wars; iii., the *Jus Gentium* and *Jus Honorarium*, covering the latter half of the Republic; iv., the *Jus Naturale* and the maturity of Roman jurisprudence, covering the Empire down to the time of Diocletian; and v., the Period of Codification, from Diocletian to Justinian. Some historical writers prefer to classify the various branches of the law, and to give a separate history of each branch from the earliest to the latest times. But in our opinion the method here adopted of division into periods renders the treatment of the subject far more interesting, and is worth the price paid for it, to wit, a certain amount of unavoidable repetition. The system of division adopted by Prof. Muirhead is as good as any that we have seen. Perhaps the titles of his periods might mislead the uninitiated, by their suggestion that there was no *Jus Civile* in the latter half of the Republic, or that there was no *Jus Honorarium* under the Empire; but a slight perusal of the contents would soon correct any such mistake, and would explain the broad sense in which these titles have been used. In each part there are three or four long chapters, and several sections in each chapter. The titles of the chapters and the sub-titles of the sections indicate clearly the scope and arrangement of the topics discussed, while the flow of the narrative is not broken, nor the reader's eye distracted, as is so often the case in modern treatises, by that elaborate subdivision into paragraphs and subparagraphs, each with its own numbering or lettering, which is apparently considered so lucid and so helpful.

In short, the style of our author and his methods of exposition leave nothing to be desired. The one serious fault we have to find with him and his learned editor relates not to what they have put in the book, but to what they have left out. It must, of course, be admitted that a work of this size, professing to contain only an introduction to the subject, cannot be expected to instruct us upon every point. The sense of historic perspective must be exercised, and some topics must receive a cursory treatment in order that others of greater importance may be more fully discussed. But even when due allowance is made for this fact, there remain a good many gaps which ought in our opinion to have been filled. The editor has made numerous corrections and additions of more or less consequence. Our sole complaint is that these additions are not more plentiful, for, though the text has wisely been left intact, the footnotes and appendices might easily have supplied what is lacking. For instance, in a note on page 251 the editor has corrected the inaccurate impression conveyed by the text that *pignus* always applied to movables only. We see no reason why, on the very next page, a similar note should not have been placed, supplementing the brief statement of the text as to the curious and interesting growth of *hypotheca*. The nature of the *interdictum Salvianum* might thus have been briefly explained. A student who should find some mention of this interdict and turn to this book for information, would now obtain no light on the subject.

But the chief poverty of the first edition, which the new notes have failed fully to remedy, is that relating to the development of the law of contract. Too little space in the original text was allotted to this important topic, as compared, for instance, with the space devoted to the law of procedure; and the omission could have been rectified by the present editor without greatly increasing the size of the volume. Agency in acquisition, in litigation, and in the making of contracts, a subject of the greatest interest, has been more than insufficiently dealt with. Not only are such obscure contractual relations as those of the *vas* and the *praes* noticed with the barest mention, and without adequate reference to their literature, but even such comparatively modern topics as the growth of *mandatum*, of *locatio*, of *societas*, and the important effects of the *actiones praescriptis verbis* are passed over in almost total silence. The Roman law of corporations, which presents an interesting field of research, has likewise been left untouched. In a word, we have nothing but praise for the editor's notes, so far as they go, but we regret that they do not go further.

In point of textual accuracy this edition is an improvement on the former one, which is saying a great deal. Thus, the incorrect citation of Gaius iii., 46, in a note on page 270 of the first edition, is now given as it should be, namely, Gaius iv., 36. One sensible change in the text—and almost the only change—which the editor has seen fit to make, is in the phrase "to condescend upon"—a term borrowed from Scots law, which appeared on pages 103 and 234 of the first edition. Instead, we now find the more intelligible English equivalents "to specify" and "to state." Besides the new footnotes and several valuable appendices, Prof. Goudy has added a complete collection of the fragments of the XII Tables which will prove most useful for reference. He has also

improved the index, though it might well have been improved still further. Finally, in everything which concerns outward appearance the book could not possibly be better than it is. It presents in this respect a great contrast to similar works of French or German origin, as to almost all of which it may truthfully be said that their bodily presence is weak and their type and paper contemptible.

Holly and Pizen, and Other Stories. By Ruth McEnery Stuart. The Century Co.

San Isidro. By Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Valda Hânem: The Romance of a Turkish Hârim. By Daisy Hugh Pryce. Macmillan.

Mrs. Stuart has a keen scent for the unusual, whether in things pathetic or things humorous, that rarely fails her in her choice of a subject. When it comes to the treatment, we have sometimes been reminded of Robert Collyer on the oysterplant which, as likened by him to the ineffective endeavorer, seems always to be upon the point of tasting like an oyster, yet never quite does. Uncle 'Riah Washington, absorbing the maladies of his neighbors in order to cure them, and incidentally to receive the good things remedial for them, could not be surpassed as a subject. Nor the Queen o' Sheba, foiled in the passion for magnificence in life, glorying in an expensive funeral, and, by favoring conditions, permitted to assist in the flesh. Nor Uncle Still, silent as an oracle and as ambiguous when moved to speech. Nor Miss Melissa, knitting green mats all her life, and suddenly impelled to change to scarlet and to go fishing on Sunday. Yet Uncle 'Riah falls short of his due effect from being over-dwelt on; the Queen o' Sheba's "pintedness" degenerates into the merely unpleasant as she approaches her timely taking off; Uncle Still's riddle is guessed so long before the climax that the sketch pays the penalty of a collapsing frame; Miss Melissa's innocent wild oatmeal has a made-up flavor as the banquet proceeds. The remaining story, "Picayune," shows, perhaps, more clever treatment than any in the volume, yet herein the subject (that of a bow-legged negro child in a Bowery freak museum) is the one least satisfactory to the sense of the picturesque. One could wish that the stories were better or worse—either really oysters or else plain squash.

A West Indian story is 'San Isidro,' prettily told and nicely observant of the relative values of landscape and figure. Across the mind occasionally darts the suspicion that one is undergoing guide-book instruction, as when one reads that the pilotojos, escaleras, ligazones, verandas, and techos were all of fine-red mahogany, that Isidro is pronounced *E-see-dro,* that the roof was thatched with yagua, and that the cattle browsed in the potrero, and that Don Beltran leaned against the chimenea which was between the casa and cocina, and that the gri-gris are hacked down to make way for banana-culture, and that banana bulbs must be planted twelve feet apart, ten inches deep, and (on windy hillsides) head downwards, and that the machete must be thrust into a post at the door when the owner enters. Still, a little knowledge, more or less, of Spanish-American language and manners is likely to attack us at any moment, and we must be brave. The story, for the rest, is full of an unusual grace, and of the picturesqueness that cannot be found elsewhere than on a tropical island; full, too, of the pathos and the tragedy that always attach to the dark drop in the human veins, and of a fierce Spanish spirit against which abduction and underground smuggling tunnels twinkle as naturally as jewels in an Ethiop's ear.

The title of 'Valda Hânem' calls up the picture of a captive beauty, playing the guitar to the listless ear of a black-bearded tyrant, who wears a fez and also a frown to match the scimitar which he fingers absently. A shadowy lover, in the background, suggests a rescue and tragedy galore. This Valda is a captive, in a sense; and her lord is a Turk of high degree, and wears a fez—sometimes. They live in a palace and have hordes of slaves. Their marriage was one of *convenance,* and neither ever saw the other before the raising of the bridal veil. There is, too, a lover, though he is not at all shadowy, and struts, oiled and curled, in the uniform of a British officer. There is even an attempt at a rescue and tragedy, of a sort. But though we have here all the elements of the suggested picture, it is a great shock to our sentimental preconceptions to find that Valda's chains are only the invisible ones of custom and convention, and that her husband is an up-to-date, well-read, and cultivated man of the world, devoted to his one wife; he even spends a part of every evening with her, and tells her all about the receptions that he attends and the foreign ladies that he meets. Their ways fill him with pleased wonder, though the veil, for his own womankind, with all that it involves, is as indispensable as ever. The book interests the reader as a series of pictures rather than as a story. The pictures are true to life in the universal; they also represent truly the present-day social and domestic life of the more conservative Turks of the higher classes. Miss (?) Pryce has evidently had excellent opportunities for observation, and she has used them well. She renders accurately what she has herself seen, but her explanations of Muslim law and custom cannot be depended upon so absolutely. She has succeeded best of all in the atmosphere of her story. Her Turks and Egyptians—slaves, children, mothers-in-law, and poor relations—are wonderfully genuine; and her book can be emphatically commended as a study in racial sociology.

The Cathedral Builders: The Story of a Great Masonic Guild. By Leader Scott. With Illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The most important work on the subject treated in this volume is that of the late Prof. Giuseppe Merzario, 'I Maestri Comacini,' published in Milan in the year 1893. The author of 'Cathedral Builders' (Mrs. Baxter) acknowledges her indebtedness to Signor Merzario, but states that she has collated many other authorities, including documents in various public archives. By the aid of such materials she has tried to make a chronological arrangement, and a list of the names of the masters at different eras.

She begins by discussing the various theories concerning the origin of masonic guilds, and finds that the first mention of them occurs in a document dating from the year 643. This document is a code of rules relating to the duties and responsibilities of builders. It appears to show that, as early as the seventh century, an organized body of architects and builders was in existence. Whether this was a survival of the older Roman organizations, we have no means of knowing. Mrs. Baxter infers that architects of the same guild worked in Rome in the early Christian ages, and that, during the disasters which overtook the city, the brotherhood fled to Como, where, at a later period, they were employed by the Lombard rulers; and that they finally became a powerful guild, and were known as the Comacini Masters. They were absolved from the observance of local laws and royal edicts, were exempt from military service, and from many other obligations which were imposed upon the people of the country. They had the power of fixing their own fees, and the right of regulating in their own lodges everything that pertained to their own government; and, by the terms of the diplomas and bulls which were issued in their favor, other artists and workmen were prohibited from entering into competition with them. Thus privileged and protected, their numbers grew, and many bands of them were sent with missionaries into distant countries, where their membership was further augmented, and Frenchmen, Germans, Belgians, and Englishmen were admitted into their body. Every lodge had three divisions—one for the novices, one for the working brethren, and one for the masters. Thus banded together for mutual aid and advancement in their art, they communicated to each other, from distant localities, such knowledge and experience as they gained in all branches of architectural design and methods of work.

We cannot follow our author through the tangled maze of history, tradition, and conjecture through which she seeks to support her main proposition, that this Comacini brotherhood, with its numerous ramifications, produced, almost exclusively, the architecture of the whole of Western Europe from the Early Middle Ages to the period of the Renaissance; nor can we accept such a proposition as true. The arguments adduced to establish this view are based on incorrect premises. It is affirmed, for instance (p. 3), that this architecture is everywhere of the same character at a given epoch. But any discriminating comparison of the monuments will show that this is not the case. Many diverse influences are manifest at all times, to say nothing of the minor varieties of Romanesque which were produced during the eleventh century, when Romanesque art was most exclusively practised. There were at that time at least two leading types of architecture differing radically one from the other—namely, the basilical Romanesque and the organic Romanesque. Churches like the Cathedral of Pisa, and many others in which the leading forms and structural principles are those of the primitive Christian basilica, with its timber roofs, its continuous arcades, and its unbuttressed walls, are certainly not similar to churches like San Ambrogio of Milan, with its vaulted nave, its compound piers, and its generally organic system. It is impossible that such wholly different forms of art should have been produced by one body of builders working on the same general principles, and inspired by the same traditions. And, even apart from such types as these, it would be easy to show that there never was anything like what the author

calls Comacine architecture as a style bearing the marks of a single school of builders, and common to all parts of Europe. The monuments stand as witnesses to the fallacy of any such theory.

The parts of this book that treat of the great corporation which the author supposes to have had so large a share in the architectural activities of the Middle Ages, might have value if the statements which she makes were based on unquestioned facts. But many of her statements lack due evidence, and her knowledge of mediæval history is imperfect. Taken altogether, her work is a mass of confusion. Its only real value consists in the interesting plates with which it is adorned.

The Expansion of Egypt under Anglo-Egyptian Condominium. By Arthur Silva White, Hon. Fellow (formerly Secretary and Editor) of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society; Hon. Corresponding Member of the Société Africaine de France. London: Methuen & Co. 1899. Pp. xvi+484.

On the front cover of this book is stamped a quotation from the Qur'ân in the original, beautifully written in an ornamental hand. Translated, it would run, "And everything We have reckoned in a clear record"; but Mr. White nowhere gives any clue to the meaning of what, for the most of his readers, must be simply a bit of effective decoration. This is a pity, for it exactly describes his book, even to a certain cocksureness corresponding, with reverence, to the divine "We." Everything about the Egypt of the present is reckoned here, and the record of it is clear. Mr. Penfield's book, which we noticed recently, was similar in a way. It, too, was about present-day Egypt, and had no lack of clarity and insight. But the touch was light, and details were skipped; it was a holiday book for a holidaying public. Mr. White's book is for study, and careful study. It is swollen with details and bristles with statistics, mercifully arranged, for the most part, in careful tables. The touch is light enough, but it is also firm; the weight of facts is carried easily and even gracefully. Mr. White has mastered the art of the bookmaker.

There go three elements to the making of this record. First, Mr. White has his theory —a theory well sponsored—that Egypt is to be regarded as an island, and must fall to that power which has command of the sea. So he traces the history of the country from point to point, and, of course, abundantly finds his dogma there. Buttressed with Capt. Mahan, his case will certainly bear stating. One weak point, however, is Syria. Egypt and Syria have always historically gone together. He recognizes that, and would rather have Syria German than French. The possibility of that arrangement and its ultimate advantages may be doubtful. So far, history; but the second element in order is the future of Egypt, and Mr. White has no more doubt as a prophet than he had as an historian. In or before 1905, England must proclaim a protectorate over the whole valley of the Nile. That follows of necessity from the situation. What, then, is that situation? The answer is the third element—a plain and full description of things as they are in and around Egypt. This description can hardly be praised too highly. We may think as we please of the theory of the sea power and of the destiny of England in the valley of the Nile, but no one can question the wonderful fulness and clearness of this account of Egypt and of the work of England in Egypt. The physical factors are here—practically the Nile, for the land is the gift of the river, and everything depends upon irrigation. Nubar Pasha is reported to have said that Egypt needed two things, justice and water. The political situation, too, in all its bewildering ramifications: the Sultan's suzerainty, firmans, capitulations, *Caisse de la Dette*, international control and English control, a Walpurgisnacht of ghosts and realities. The population, too, and its characteristics according to the census of 1897; how that population is governed and how it governs itself; how it is educated, taxed, judged; how it buys and sells and smuggles—all this with tables galore. The Suez Canal at length, with its dreary history of squabbles and cheating, and its present as an international crux; then the situation in the Sudan, the native races, the loss, the reconquest, the Condominium—almost as beatific a word as Mesopotamia. Finally, what is aptly called "The Title-deeds of the Nile Valley"—a lucid *précis*, based on Hertslet's 'Africa by Treaty,' of the documents and rights involved. This is brought down to the latest agreement with France in March of the present year, which is given in full.

It will be seen that we have here the necessary continuation and supplement to Milner's 'England in Egypt,' and Wingate's 'Mahdiism.' Of special points of interest, the book is full: the damming of the Nile, and the character of the present Khedive; educational institutions in Egypt, and missionary enterprise; the Gordon Memorial College at Khartum, and the Abyssinian difficulty; Tripoli and its relation to the Senussi dervishes—a thorny matter. Seven excellent maps are added. These are among the most beautiful, full, and accurate that we have ever seen. The last, of political boundaries and data, gives the absolutely latest agreements and delimitations for the valley of the Nile. It will stand most careful study. The fourfold shading in red, from the British Protectorate in British East Africa, through a British Sphere of Influence in the Bahr el-Ghazal and the Condominium of England and Egypt between Fashoda and Wadi Halfa, to Egypt proper with its British Occupation, and the red-bordered white of the desert with its awkward Senussi question, are a triumph of cartography and put the situation in vivid brevity. Whoever wishes to understand that situation and Egypt generally, should turn to this book. Its timely importance cannot be exaggerated.

A History of Wireless Telegraphy, 1838-1899. By J. J. Fahie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 325.

Everybody who seeks general information about Marconi's method of telegraphing and its relation to those of Preece, by ordinary dynamic induction, and of Lindsay and others by conduction through water in two paths, will be able to gather a somewhat better idea of these matters from this book than from the little volume of a quarter of the size by Richard Kerr. He will also learn here of some thirty earlier attempts. Steinheil the elder, in 1839, first proposed to telegraph by means of radiation otherwise than by vision. Morse, in 1842, first had the idea of erecting ordinary telegraphs along the two banks of an estuary or strait in order to make two conducting paths through the water. O'Shaughnessy in 1849 tried naked wires under water. Mahlon Loomis in 1872 proposed to telegraph through the upper air. Henry early telegraphed by means of the induction of coils, a method which Stevenson in 1892 practically developed.

The book has two faults that are common to almost all writings of practical men. The first is that it is needlessly technical. A good many people would like to read it who would have been thankful for a glossary explaining what an Obach cell, a D'Arsonville galvanometer, a Theiler sounder, a Cardew vibrator, a Righi exciter, and the like, are; for they will probably search for such expressions in vain in their encyclopædic dictionaries. The other fault is a want of logical distinctness in the thought. The very title of the book illustrates this. Contrivances that depend upon the vision of distant signals are, we believe, the only strictly wireless telegraphs that have ever been proposed. These, too, are the types to which the word "telegraph" was first appropriated. Yet this subject, which has been much studied by soldiers and sailors since 1838, is omitted by Mr. Fahie. On the other hand, Edison's contrivance (really due in its essence to Willoughby Smith) for communicating with a moving train cannot properly be called telegraphy, since it is only designed to close a gap of a few feet, while a telegraph is an apparatus for transmitting all sorts of messages faster than sound to distances beyond the reach of a man's voice. Nor do experiments with bare wires laid across the bed of a river come under the head of wireless telegraphy. The same defect is shown when Mr. Fahie professes not to understand what physicists mean by calling electricity a kind of matter, saying that engineers understand it to be a form of energy. If there were any real dispute upon such a point, we may be sure, from the nature of their studies, that it would be the students of theory who were right. But, in fact, it is a mere verbal discrepancy, best mended by confining the word "electricity" to vaguely denoting all phenomena depending on the luminiferous ether. Of course, optics is now universally acknowledged to be a branch of the science of electricity.

Notwithstanding these two faults, the work may be profitably read by anybody having a good elementary acquaintance with electricity.

Laxdæla Saga. Translated from the Icelandic by Muriel A. C. Press. London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1899. Pp. viii+272.

The Laxdæla Saga is, next to the Njals Saga, the longest of the sagas specifically Icelandic that have come down to us. In literary style it ranks among the very best of its kind, and far beyond many that have long been accessible in an English translation. It is, furthermore, one of the most romantic of all the sagas in its action, and one of the least removed by the strangeness of environment and the unfamiliarity of motive from the comprehension and sympathy of present-day readers. These are all good reasons for

the present translation, which, aside from an episode from the saga in Thorkelin's 'Fragments of English and Irish History' (1788), has never before been put into English.

The book, which, as a volume of the "Temple Classics," is daintily printed and bound, is intended for the general reader, and is wholly without critical apparatus. The English flows along smoothly over all difficulties of the original text—first and last not a few—although this by no means implies that, from a critical point of view, they are always satisfactorily overcome. That is here, however, perhaps, of secondary importance, and we have really in the little book an extremely good literary version of a saga that cannot fail to charm the reader, even when he is not especially interested in this particular kind of literature. The Laxdæla Saga possesses an added attraction in that it has been the source of the material for what is in many ways the strongest and best sustained of the poems in William Morris's cycle, 'The Earthly Paradise,' viz., "The Lovers of Gudrun," whose heroine is also the central figure in the saga.

The editor of the series, Mr. Gollancz, in a note at the end, expresses the hope of the popular success of this translation, so that others of the sagas may follow. The increasing number of such translations, since publishers in the great majority of cases do not proceed on a principle of pure altruism, seems already to indicate a growing curiosity regarding this astonishingly fertile field where we should least have thought to look for it:

"Betwixt the ice-hills and the cold gray sea."

Aside from the subject-matter of this old narrative prose, there is in it a strength of simplicity and directness that might well point a moral in literary manner to many a writer of the present day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barbe, W. Going to College. West Virginia University: The Author.
Chambers, G. F. The Story of Eclipses. Appletons.
Dutt, R. Ramayana: The Epic of Rama, Prince of India, Condensed into English Verse. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Fitch, C. Nathan Hale: A Play in Four Acts. R. H. Russell.
Gay, A., and Yeaman, C. H. An Introduction to the Study of Central Station Electricity Supply. Whittaker & Co. $3.
Harrison, F. Annals of an Old Manor-House, Sutton Place, Guilford. Macmillan.
Irving, W. The Alhambra. Macmillan. 25c.
Iverach, Rev. J. Theism in the Light of Present Science and Philosophy. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kemble, E. W. Coontown's 400. Life Pub. Co. $2.
Lamartine, A de. Scènes de la Révolution Française. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Marryat, Florence. A Rational Marriage. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Nelson, O. N. History of the Scandinavians and Successful Scandinavians in the United States. Vols. 1 and 2. Minneapolis: O. N. Nelson & Co.
Oeuvres Complètes de Molière. 1 vol., 12 mo. Also 4 vols., 32mo. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 5s. and 14s.
Peet, Rev. S. D. The Cliff Dwellers and Pueblos. Chicago: American Antiquarian.
Richardson, C. F. The Choice of Books. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Savage, R. H. Captain Landon. Rand, McNally & Co.
Scott, Sir W. Marmion. Macmillan. 25c.
Smith, W. A. Temperate Chile: A Progressive Spain. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Spielmann, M. H. The Hitherto Unidentified Contributions of W. M. Thackeray to "Punch." Harpers. $1.75.
Strachey, H. Raphael. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Thompson, V. French Portraits. Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co. $2.50.
Thorp, F. L. Outlines of Industrial Chemistry. Macmillan. $3.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Vols. LIX. and LX.
Turgenev, I. The Jew, and Other Stories. Macmillan. $1.25.
Turgenev, I. A Desperate Character. Translated by Constance Garnett. Macmillan. $1.25.
Walford, L. B. Sir Patrick; The Puddock. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Walker, Prof. J. Introduction to Physical Chemistry. Macmillan. $2.50.
Ward, G. E. The Bride's Mirror. Henry Frowde.
Watson, W. A Text-Book of Physics. Longmans, Green & Co.
Welles, Dr. C. S. The Lute and Lays. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Welsh, Charles. Publishing a Book. Boston: D. C. Heath. 50c.
Weltgeschichte. Vol. I. Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
West, Sir A. Recollections, 1832-1886. Harpers. $3.
White, G. The Natural History of Selborne. Edited by Grant Allen. John Lane. $7.50.
Whitehouse, H. R. The Collapse of the Kingdom of Naples. Bonnell, Silver & Co. $1.50.
Who's Who, 1900. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Woodward, W. H. A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire. 1500-1870. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Worsfold, W. B. The Redemption of Egypt. Longmans, Green & Co.

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The Week.

We drew attention the other day to the wavering policy of the Administration touching the tariff with Porto Rico, The President said in his annual message: "Our plain duty is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets." Secretary Root said in his annual report:

> "The highest considerations of justice and good faith demand that we should not disappoint the confident expectation of sharing in our prosperity with which the people of Porto Rico so gladly transferred their allegiance to the United States, and that we should treat the interests of this people as our own; and I wish most strongly to urge that the customs duties between Porto Rico and the United States be removed."

That President McKinley and his Cabinet have been shaken in their purpose to carry out the policy so bravely proclaimed, has become plainly manifest in the last few days, but the change has been veiled by a desire to follow the lead of Congress, or, perhaps, to await a new decision of the Supreme Court. The President and Cabinet, we are told, want free trade with Porto Rico. They want to bring it about in the way that will cause the least disturbance in the popular mind; that is, they want free trade without a quarrel with the protectionists. They hope Congress will legislate in favor of free trade, but, although they have the power now, as is alleged, under the Court of Appeals decision in the Alaska case, to proclaim free trade by executive decree, they will not do so because they want Congress to take the initiative, thus maintaining the principle that Congress has authority to legislate separately for each of the colonies, regardless of the constitutional requirement that duties shall be uniform, and that no imposts shall be levied as between different parts of the United States. If they were to declare free trade now, it is said, or if Congress were to make sweeping general legislation, applicable to all colonies alike, these ends would be defeated.

This signifies a back-down from the high position taken when Congress met in December. It is Mr. McKinley's way of doing things, or rather of not doing them. He has had no colonial policy at any time. He has been waiting on Providence to supply him with one. He hopes to worry through the present session of Congress without coming to a decision on the main question of the day, which is this: What is the political status of our new possessions in the East and West Indies? Are they a part of this country, or not? Are their people citizens of the United States? If not, they must be subjects, like those of the Roman provinces of old, to be ruled by proconsuls and taxed according to our ideas and for our interests. Those who contend for this policy point to our dealings with the Indian tribes in our own territory. They forget that our statute-books are full of treaties with the Indian tribes, and that appropriations of money are made by Congress every year for the fulfilment of such treaties. In other words, the policy of the Government from the earliest times has been to treat with the Indian tribes as independent nations, however small they might be, until they reached a sufficient degree of civilization to be incorporated in the body politic. If any precedent is to be drawn from our relations with the North American Indians, it is altogether favorable to the idea of independence. We see nothing but increasing embarrassment to the Administration from its delay to carry out its declared purpose in favor of free trade with Porto Rico. We understand, of course, that the protectionists, who are threatening this and that if the McKinley plan is carried out, do not fear free trade with Porto Rico *per se*. They fear the precedent. They fear its application to the Philippines, to Cuba, and to the whole expansionist programme in the future, whatever that may be. They are wise in their generation. They are right in assuming that whatever policy is adopted now will prevail hereafter.

Seward's oft-repeated prediction, in the early part of the civil war, that the Confederacy would be overthrown within ninety days, has been recalled by the frequent statements of late that Gen. Otis would be able to report the complete pacification of the Philippine Islands within thirty days. That a proclamation announcing this as a fact may soon be issued, there seems every day increasing reason to believe. It also appears to be accepted at Washington as the fixed policy of the Administration that the President shall thereupon issue a proclamation extending amnesty to the insurgents, and denouncing as outlaws and bandits all who do not avail themselves of its terms. This would, of course, involve the shooting, at the discretion of any commanding officer in our army, of any native who might be caught in arms after the expiration of the time limit—whether he had heard of the proclamation or not. Considering such performances in the past as the firing upon unarmed people in a native village, without necessity and without warning, by a young officer who had been appointed from civil life, it would seem that the power of shooting "niggers" at will would be a most dangerous one to confer indiscriminately.

Our gold-and-glory Philippine orators have now taken to drawing circles around Manila. Circles used to be drawn only about Hawaii. Honolulu was proved, by this method, to be the centre of all our commercial and military power. But now it is Manila. Thus, the Hon. John Barrett, in his address before the Philadelphia Geographical Society the other day, solemnly said to the assembled savants: "Draw a circle of 3,000 miles around Manila, and it will include more great entrepôts of trade, more millions of human beings, and more developed and undeveloped material and moral opportunity than a similar circle circumscribed about any other Pacific-Asiatic city." But we are pained to observe one of the listening geographers. Prof. Angelo Heilprin, treating this powerful argument with levity. He wants to know, in a letter to the Philadelphia *Ledger*, why Mr. Barrett didn't make his circle 6,000 miles, and so include nearly one-half the inhabited globe. Drawing circles on the map is a harmless affair—no foreign Power would treat it as a *casus belli;* therefore, why not make one big enough to take in the whole earth? Prof. Heilprin puts two perfectly heartless questions to Mr. Barrett:

> "Is Mr. Barrett aware that a circle of 3,000 miles drawn around Boston would take in nearly the whole of the continent of North America, besides including within its confines such centres of population and industry as Liverpool, Manchester, London, Paris, and Madrid, not to mention all of the West Indian Islands and a big slice of northern South America? Does Mr. Barrett believe that any sane person recognizes any locality of the earth's surface to be the commercial centre of such a region as that which he figuratively describes?"

Coming just when our diplomatic success in helping to maintain the "open door" in China is still fresh in the public mind, there could be nothing more timely than the Chinese Minister's warning last week that open doors are of little value if the people behind them are not treated civilly and justly. To expect the Chinese to pour their money into our laps when they see themselves discriminated against in both the United States and its Pacific island possessions, is expecting too much, even from a long-suffering Oriental. No matter what the quality of the goods we may send them, no matter how tempting the bargains we may spread before them, it will not be possible to conceal the fact that the Chinaman is not a welcome visitor at our doors, and that laws exist which make it impossible for him to seek his

home where the immigrants from all other countries are welcomed. Evidently the Chinese Minister has become familiar with the word reciprocity during his residence in Washington, and in his eyes reciprocity in trade means justice, fair dealing, and mutual respect on both sides. What the inhabitants of the Pacific Coast will say to this is a very different matter. But even our gold-and-glory statesmen ought to see that it will be impossible, as the Minister said, for the United States "to take everything and give nothing." As to his recommendations that American merchants should study their markets and not dump upon China any surplus wares without regard to their quality, it is only necessary to say that failure to heed similar advice in the past has driven Yankee traders out of markets, all the world over, in which they should and could have become predominant.

We can recall nothing more judicious in the treatment of our foreign relations than the speech made by Senator Hoar on Monday in reply to that of Senator Mason on his resolution of sympathy with the Boers. Senator Mason had alluded, in an uncouth tone, to the "arrogance, cowardice, and brutality of the English Government." Mr. Hoar reminded him that the Senate of the United States was a part of the diplomatic machinery of our Government, and that all words uttered in the Senate were charged with a degree of responsibility quite different from that of the stump. Mr. Hoar then addressed himself to the merits of the subject, and gave a temperate and almost pathetic expression of his own feeling in view of the bloodshed now in progress in South Africa. He had declared himself a "Boer sympathizer" some time ago. He now tells us what that attitude signifies. It is an attitude toward Great Britain "of warm, cordial friendship—I might almost say, an attitude of attachment and love—and that, when we think her in the wrong (as we pretty often have had occasion to do, and as some of our people now do), we have the same feeling which patriotic English have toward their own Government when they think it is in the wrong, and the same feeling which patriotic Americans have toward their own Government when they think it in the wrong." He had hoped that the time might come when an expression of our Government, or the opinion of the people of the United States, calmly and modestly made known, would have its effect on these contending parties, and bring about peace with justice and liberty.

It is reported from Washington, in a triumphant way, that in the hearings on the shipping-subsidy bill nearly all the witnesses are favorable to its passage. There is nothing wonderful in that. Here is a bill which proposes to give a bonus of $1,276,948 per year to the American Line for running four ships between New York and Southampton, not to mention the subsidies for the dozen or more ships of the same company running on other lines. With such a cash inducement as that, it is not surprising that witnesses can be found in abundance, and counsel in plenty, to advocate the voting of the money. On the other hand, who is to pay the travelling expenses of anybody to go to Washington to represent the taxpayers in general? Some persons familiar with the subject have gone there at their own private expense to oppose the bill, and one of these, Dr. S. A. Robinson, characterized it as "the most infamous measure that ever marched up Capitol Hill." He was right. This is a bill to pay out of the Treasury in nine years the whole cost of such a steamer as the New York or the Paris, at the end of which time she will be owned, not by the Government of the United States, which has paid for her, but by the company which has received her cost price—the United States being obliged to go on paying the yearly bonus eleven years longer. All this is to be done because Great Britain pays $35,000 (not $350,000) as subsidy for a ship like the *Teutonic* or the *Campania*.

One of the tricks in the Hanna subsidy bill is the pretence that the cost to the Treasury will never exceed $9,000,000 a year. If this were true, the professed aim of the bill could never be attained. What the subsidy-seekers say they mean to do is to put our foreign commerce under the American flag. They point with astonishment and grief to the fact that only 15 per cent. of it is now done by American ships. Well, suppose we advance to 30 per cent., or 60, or 90, what would the cost be under the Hanna bill? It has been carefully figured out by ex-Commissioner of Navigation Bates, and he declares that, if 30 per cent. of the trade were done in American bottoms, the subsidy payments would be, the first year, $12,000,000; if 60 per cent., $24,000,000; if 90, $36,000,000. By the end of the twenty years for which contracts are to be made, and allowing for the natural increase in commerce, the Treasury would have to pay out $45,000,000 a year in subsidies if only 50 per cent. of the trade were under the American flag! This is the richness on which Hanna has his eyes fastened. That $9,000,000 maximum would endure about as long as it took to get a bill through repealing it. At any rate, the scheme is self-contradictory as it stands. If Hanna is to "restore the flag" in the way he says he is, his limit on the sum available is obviously fixed far too low. There was no limit at all in last year's bill; the one inserted this year is plainly intended to deceive.

The House of Representatives on Friday "vindicated the sanctity of the American home" by action which prevents a polygamist from serving as a national law-maker. Unfortunately, unnecessarily, and unjustly, it did violence to the Constitution of the United States in accomplishing this result, when the same end might have been reached in a much more impressive manner by compliance with the fundamental law of the land. Roberts ought not to serve as a Congressman—everybody except Roberts takes this view. But the man whom the people of Utah elected as their Representative, and who met the Constitutional tests, was as much entitled to be sworn in as a member of the House on the first Monday of December as was Representative Tayler of Ohio, who led the movement for exclusion. This plain right having been granted, the House might then have proceeded to his expulsion without a moment's delay beyond what a fair consideration of the charges against his character should demand. Not only would he have been expelled by more than the requisite two-thirds vote, but there is no reason to suppose that a single Representative would have favored keeping him in his seat.

The decision rendered on Monday, in the United States Circuit Court at Chicago, declaring the "anti-monopoly" act of Illinois unconstitutional, appears to rest on solid grounds. That act, which was passed in 1893, declared in terms that its provisions did not extend to agricultural products or live stock in the hands of the producer or raiser. In other words, it assumed that monopoly was wrong in the case of some goods and some persons, and right in the case of others. It seems pretty clear that such an act is properly described, as Judge Kohlsaat says, as both class and special legislation, and therefore in contravention of both the State and Federal Constitutions. It was speciously urged that the exception might be held void, and the remainder of the act constitutional. To this it was replied that such a decision by the courts would make the act binding on the very classes which the Legislature had deliberately excluded. That would be judicial legislation of the most flagrant character. The truth is gradually emerging that, if anti-monopoly laws are to stand the constitutional tests, they must apply to farmers and to laborers as well as other classes—a truth which makes the task of the legislator a very heavy one. No class in the community is more disposed to form combinations for industrial purposes than the farmers, and these combinations are frequently necessary for their protection against extremes in prices. Many of the laborers are also firmly convinced that combination is necessary for their prosperity, and yet the combinations which

they form savor of monopoly. On the whole it seems that, if there are to be anti-monopoly laws, they must be impartial and universal—a requirement which would silence a large part of the outcry for such legislation.

Mr. Bourke Cockran announces that he is ready to support Bryan for the Presidency this year. He was the most effective Democratic supporter of McKinley on the stump during the last Presidential campaign. He bases his change of position on what he considers the change of issues. He regards imperialism as the most important question before the people in 1900, and he would make the Democratic campaign on the reaffirmation of the Declaration of Independence. Mr. Cockran makes what we must consider a fanciful suggestion, that the Democratic national convention next summer ought to declare in favor of preserving the financial *status quo* for four years, and bringing up the free-silver question again for the campaign of 1904. We are surprised that he did not see and say that the Republicans in Congress are practically eliminating the free-coinage issue by passing a bill which they maintain will render it impossible for Bryan and a silver Secretary of the Treasury to shake the gold standard. Once convince the country that the Democrats cannot do any harm to the national finances if they shall carry the election next fall, and the people will not give much thought to the silver question. But nobody can tell yet whether the people will take this view. Meanwhile, Mr. Bryan explicitly repudiates "anything in the shape of a truce," and Mr. Cockran wants to know whether he will yield to the decision of the convention as to the timeliness of taking the sense of the people on the Chicago platform of 1896.

In the selection of Francis Hendricks of Syracuse for Superintendent of the Insurance Department, to succeed Lou Payn, the Republican machine has snatched victory from defeat. The real significance of Mr. Hendricks's appointment is found in the statement by Gov. Roosevelt, last Friday, that Mr. Hendricks was his first choice for the place, that Mr. Hendricks twice declined the office, but that finally, upon Wednesday of last week, being once more urged to accept the post, he had informed the Governor by telephone, that "*he would accept the office if the 'Republican organization' would support the nomination. This support was promised by the 'Republican organization,'* and, therefore, Mr. Hendricks's name will be sent to the Senate at the beginning of the week." Mr. Hendricks should make a good Superintendent. He has served long and creditably in public life—in his own city, as President of the Fire Commission and Mayor; in the Legislature, as member of the Assembly for two years, and a Senator for six; under the Federal Government, as Collector of the Port of New York, from September 17, 1891, to March 6, 1893. He is a man of unsullied personal character, high business standing, and ambition to make a good record in public office. He is thus at all points a welcome contrast to the man whom he will succeed. Yet, good man as he is, creditable as has been his past, and promising as is the outlook for an honest administration of the Insurance Department, the selection of Mr. Hendricks remains a signal triumph for the machine. The great evil which afflicts us, alike in the metropolis and in the commonwealth at large, is the overshadowing influence of "the organization." This is equally true of the Democratic party in New York city and of the Republican party in the State. No Democrat can rise to high position in the city without the consent of Tammany; no Republican to a prominent State office without the consent of the Republican machine.

Every one is interested in the construction of the rapid-transit tunnel on Manhattan Island, but no body of citizens feels more deeply on the subject than the leaders of the labor unions. They have succeeded in limiting the hours of daily work on the enterprise to eight; but that does not content them. What they really want is to have only members of the unions employed. If this cannot be accomplished, at all events, they maintain, no alien labor should be employed on the work. Some of the representatives of labor have suggested that if an alien belonged to a union he might be allowed to participate; but this doctrine was repudiated by the Central Federated Union. The late Stephen Walker, who was long President of the old Board of Education in this city, was in the habit of replying to those who asked about the functions of that body, that they consisted in taking care that the instruction given in the New York schools should be undenominational in character. The labor unions are not very active in their inquiries as to the character of the services to be rendered on the rapid-transit enterprise, but they are bound that it shall not be contaminated by the coöperation of foreigners. As one leader declared, "No self-respecting American citizen could compete with the alien labor brought from Europe, to whom a fishball would be a big luxury."

The annual report of the Hamburg Chamber of Commerce for 1899 pays special attention to the trade relations of the United States and Germany, which it characterizes as unsatisfactory. The blame for the situation is of course placed upon the Dingley tariff, and the harassing restrictions and regulations to which German exporters to the United States are subjected. In regard to the importations of American meats, the Chamber's conclusions cannot fail to give great satisfaction on this side of the Atlantic. The report points out that the large reward offered for a case of trichinosis in consequence of the consumption of American meat is still unclaimed, and that attempts to cause the disease in German animals, by introducing in them trichinæ from American swine, were quite unsuccessful. The Hamburg merchants therefore ask with much reason why the laboring classes should be deprived of this cheap food supply, now practically shut out by the rigorous inoculation and quarantine regulations. They do not hesitate to admit the fact that German producers will never be able to compete with foreign cattle-raisers, and earnestly urge the doing away with all restrictions on meat importations, not only because they believe this would be an economically wise move, but also because it would mean the removal of a serious cause of irritation in the trade relations between their country and the United States.

One must go far back in history to find a parallel to the severe blow inflicted by the Boers upon English military prestige when they forced the retreat of Gen. Warren's division to its original position south of the Tugela River. Gen. Buller may lay stress, if he pleases, upon the fact that the retreat was successfully conducted, but it was a retreat none the less, and in the face of his now famous instructions to his army, "Our Generals will only give one order, namely, 'Advance!'" it cannot fail to have a demoralizing effect upon his army, again checked when almost in sight of its beleaguered comrades in Ladysmith. As the three frontal attacks failed in the second week in December, so the much applauded flank movement has failed in the last week of January. There is only one other manœuvre left open to Gen. Buller—a movement to turn the Boers' left flank, and the fall of Ladysmith may be reported before this can be properly begun. For many reasons this news would be welcome to the English commanders, in spite of the additional blow to English pride which the loss of the garrison within twenty miles of a relieving army would inflict. It would undo the original military blunders of the campaign—the attempt to hold isolated fortified places instead of falling back for a general concentration, and then advancing along the best route into the enemy's territory. It would enable Lord Roberts to begin over again by marching upon Bloemfontein from the positions now held by Gen. French, through an open country favorable to English modes of campaigning.

A FEDERAL CORRUPT-PRACTICES ACT.

One who had not looked into the matter would be surprised to find how little federal legislation there is in force designed to preserve the purity of elections. Chapter 7 of "Crimes" in the Revised Statutes of the United States has some twenty-eight sections devoted to "crimes against the elective franchise," but many of these were repealed in 1894; the one section, 5507, which enacted penalties for bribery has been held unconstitutional, and the whole is practically inoperative as against modern methods of corrupting the franchise. As regards Senators and Representatives, either house, in judging of the qualifications of its members, may and doubtless would refuse to admit a man who had bought his seat with a too reckless violation of the Eleventh Commandment —not to be found out. But, aside from this doubtful resource—which, of course, is of no avail whatever in the case of Presidential electors—we have practically no federal protection of the purity of the ballot-box.

Yet the need of some bulwark against corruption of national elections was never so crying as it is to-day. Senator Hanna is almost openly preparing to raise a huge corruption fund for the next Presidential campaign. He has cynically proclaimed "money" as the great need of his party, and declared emphatically in Philadelphia the other day that "one dollar of campaign funds to-day is worth five dollars three months hence." Hanna is the Sir Gorgeous Midas of politics. His theory of nominations and elections is exactly the same as his theory of iron ore and railway bonds—if you want any, buy them. Every man has his price, and Hanna has the money. With him the true remedy for bribery is more bribery. A campaign fund is all he asks; give him that, and he will do the rest. Doubtless his appetite is only whetted by the huge sum he had the handling of in 1896. Just how great it was has never been made known. Grosvenor says he knows to a dollar, but will not tell. We are credibly informed and believe that it was $8,000,000. Hanna would no doubt argue that it ought to be at least $16,000,000 this year; for are we not twice as prosperous as we were in 1896?

Now it needs no argument to show that any such amount of money, or the tenth of it, in the hands of any man or party, collected in secret and spent irresponsibly, is a standing and enormous peril to the franchise. Something ought to be done to check it, but what? Most of the States have passed laws against corrupt practices in elections, but Congress has been a laggard. Yet the evil is national, and requires a national remedy. It is confessedly, however, a difficult thing for Congress to get at under its constitutional limitations. Full power over the "manner" of the election of Senators and Representatives is vested in Congress, and it would be well if some act were passed, like the English corrupt-practices act, regulating the amount of money a candidate for the national legislature might spend. But this, confessedly, would not go to the root of the matter, as it is Presidential electors that Hanna needs money to "educate," and their appointment is left wholly with the States.

Yet we think the thing can be got at indirectly. Congress and public opinion working together can reach the two great evils to be corrected—the secret contribution of money for corrupt purposes and its spending in secret. It has been suggested, for example, that it should be made a penal offence for a corporation as such to give any money to party war-chests. Congress is no doubt empowered to pass a law to that effect which would apply to the larger corporations, if not to all. It would be a perfectly proper law. The presumption is that any funds given by a corporation to a political boss are given with corrupt intent. A corporation as such can have no politics. If it pretends to, it can be only business in the guise of politics; and campaign contributions made under those circumstances are plainly a mere investment on the principle of *do ut des*. As corporations grow in number and power, the urgent need of laws cutting them off from mischievous interference with party politics is more apparent than ever. The State Legislatures and Congress cannot move too speedily to make corporation gifts to party funds a crime.

But the great remedy would be publicity. If national party committees had to publish a full report of the sources and amount of the money raised by them and present vouchers for its expenditure, a good part of the evil would be done away with at a stroke. Many of the mysterious rewards of rich men, in the shape of foreign missions and so on, would be impossible if it were known in this way that the discovery of their diplomatic talent was made at the same time as that of the size of their campaign contribution—money advanced, as Mr. Whitney said in the Van Alen affair, when "needs were many and friends were few." The value of the unwitting publicity in the case mentioned suggests what a gain it would be for public morals if the whole monetary transactions of party committees had to be spread out in the light of day. Whether Congress can constitutionally compel this is, of course, a doubtful question. But it ought to try to. Hanna contesting in the Supreme Court a law ordering him to publish his accounts as party manager would be an edifying spectacle.

The chief thing to aim at is agitation and the rousing of public opinion. We are surprised that the Democrats in Congress are so lethargic in this matter. Here is the most brazenly commercial boss of modern times practically notifying them that he means to buy the next election away from them. He is frying his fat in public. He is laying the foundations of corruption broad and deep. His subsidy bill, his Nicaragua-Canal bill —all the promise and potency of jobbery in financing and exploiting imperialism— these things, to his practical mind, are useful mainly as a basis for campaign contributions. He believes profoundly in gratitude as the expectation of favors to come, and is dangling the favors so that the expectant recipients will come down with the dust. It is a shameful and dangerous business, and we urge the Democrats in Congress to bestir themselves against these advertised designs on the purity of the franchise. Let them at least bring the facts to public notice, in speech and resolution and bill, and in all ways bite it into the minds of Americans that there is a conspiracy afoot to buy the next Presidential election.

THE TAX ON BANKS AND TRUST COMPANIES.

Nothing has given those who struggle with the subject of taxation in this State so much trouble as the effort to derive revenue from capital employed in the banking business. The difficulty has been mainly due to the fact that most of the banks are organized under national law. The United States law forbids the taxing of the capital of these institutions by State authority, but permits their shares to be included in the assessment of the personal property of their holders, provided it be not assessed "at a higher rate than other moneyed capital in the hands of individual citizens." Under this authority an act was passed in this State in 1866 providing for the assessment of bank shares to the holders, and the payment of the tax by the banks, which were to keep back the amount in the payment of dividends.

Under the interpretation of this law given by the Attorney-General, and sustained by the State courts, no deduction from the assessments was allowed for debt; but the question reached the Supreme Court of the United States in 1880, and that tribunal held that, as such deduction was made in the case of other moneyed capital in the hands of individual citizens, this law as interpreted by the Court of Appeals was in conflict with the national statute, and so far invalid. A new law was then passed specifically declaring, in the terms of the act of Congress, that the capital of national banks should be exempt from taxation, but providing that their shares should be included in the assessment of the personal property of the holders, that the rate of assessment should not be higher than that of other moneyed capital in the hands of individual citi-

zens, and that deductions for debt should be allowed as in the case of other personal property. The provision was retained for the payment of the tax by the banks, and its collection from the stockholders by deduction from dividends. A separate act put State banks on precisely the same footing.

The practice which has grown up under the incongruity of national and State law has been a technical evasion. Lists of stockholders are furnished by the banks to the assessors, and the shares are nominally assessed to them, their value being arrived at from statements made by the bank officers. It is virtually calculated from the amount of capital, surplus, and undivided profits, with a deduction of the assessed value of real estate and certain other allowances deemed equitable. It is what is called the "book value" of the stock, and is generally quite different from the market value. There is practically no payment by the shareholders, and even the assessment is a matter between the assessors and the bank officers. The banks pay the tax as part of their yearly expense, and deduct it from the dividends only in the sense that the dividends are necessarily reduced so much on account of it without applying the deduction to the shares individually. So far as stockholders are concerned, it is an indirect tax, of which they are not conscious, and it is assumed by the banks as a charge upon their capital. While the system of assessment has been fairly equitable and uniform in this city, assessors in other parts of the State have used their discretion in the most arbitrary fashion. In many places banks have been made to bear the chief burden of taxation. They have been assessed very unequally in proportion to their resources in different counties, and almost always excessively in proportion to the burden imposed upon "moneyed capital" employed in manufacturing and trade.

The banks have long had the grievance of excessive and unequal taxation, in spite of the restriction of the national law in regard to those in the national system, and latterly they have had a new cause of complaint in the growing competition of trust companies. These companies are all State corporations, and are simply taxed as such on their franchises and on their "property." Their capital and surplus and undivided profits are included in the assessment, but they are required by law to invest their capital in real-estate mortgages and certain public securities which are exempt from taxation, and they are at liberty to invest their surplus in the same kind of securities, so far as they see fit. The amount of their non-taxable securities is deducted from their assessment for taxation, and the result is that the tax which they pay varies greatly with the different companies, and at different times, according to the way in which their funds are invested or employed. On the whole, the burden of taxation which they carry is much lighter than that of the banks.

No great fault was found with this so long as the trust companies were regarded as fiduciary institutions, whose main business was the custody and safe employment of trust funds, but in the last few years they have been branching out greatly in their financial operations. Not only have they become trustees of the mortgages of great corporations and agents in their reorganization, but they have become promoters of industrial organizations and underwriters of their securities. Some of them have extended into the banking field, not only by loaning money on call, but by buying commercial paper and keeping mercantile accounts for deposits subject to daily check, upon which they pay interest. They have been crowding the banks very seriously in their own proper field, and the result is seen in their multiplication and the increase of their capital and their profits, while banks have been going out of business or consolidating, and their aggregate capital in this State has diminished. The State banks have suffered most, and their very existence has been threatened.

So far as the question of taxation is concerned, the joint legislative committee, which has just submitted a report on that subject, proposes a remedy for the inequality between banks and trust companies; and it is one of which the latter have no reason to complain, considering their advantages in other respects. It would simply impose an exclusively State tax of one per cent. upon all banks and trust companies alike. To conform technically to the United States law in respect to national banks, this is called a tax upon "shares," and the assessed value of the shares of each institution is to be determined by adding together its stock capital, surplus, and undivided profits and deducting the value of its real estate, which would still be assessed locally. This is, strictly speaking, an evasion of the restriction of the national law, for this State tax would be practically a tax upon the capital of the banks, and it would not be even in effect an inclusion of their shares in the assessment of personal property in the hands of their holders; but it presents, on the whole, so just and equitable, as well as so judicious and convenient, a solution of a perplexing problem, that it ought to be accepted without contest by banks and trust companies alike.

OUR ERIE CANAL POLICY.

After attentive perusal of the report of the canal committee, of which Gen. F. V. Greene is chairman, we concur with Gov. Roosevelt that its recommendations are wise and proper, and that the State ought not to abandon its great canal. This is not our preconceived opinion. When the Aldridge fiasco was exposed, and it was shown that the $9,000,000 appropriated by the Legislature had been wasted or worse than wasted, we inclined to the opinion that further expenditure would be useless, and we agreed with Abram S. Hewitt that it would be best to await events and gather more accurate information. Events have been telling their tale in the loss of still more of our trade, and now the more accurate information that was needed has come in abundant measure. It is seldom that we have seen a report on any public question more methodical, painstaking, and convincing. It leaves out no part of the problem. It minimizes none of the difficulties in the way of proposed enlargement. It exaggerates none of the dangers of supineness and delay. It presents to the people of the State the great question: Will you avail yourselves of the advantages that nature bestowed upon you; will you preserve the supremacy that your fathers bought for you when they opened the great waterway to the West; will you keep what you have got; or will you let all these things pass away, lose half your property, and sink into decrepitude and decay? To these questions there should be only one answer. The cost of the work seems large—it rises to $60,000,000; but the losses that confront us if we do nothing are obviously much greater. They cannot be computed in exact figures, but they must be many times the cost of the proposed work on the canal.

Upon this point, the report of the Schieren Commission, which was sent in by the Governor simultaneously with that of the canal committee, is very important. This Commission was appointed to investigate the causes of and remedies for the decline in the volume of commerce of the port of New York. The Commission finds that there has been a relative decline in our exports during recent years, and that while New York has been losing, Montreal, Boston, Baltimore, Newport News, New Orleans, and Galveston have been gaining. The reason for this alarming state of facts is that the rates of transportation and terminal charges at these ports are less than those at New York. It is cheaper to send grain to Europe by way of our rival ports than via New York. No matter what may be the reasons making for cheapness on the other routes, they will take the business from us if they can do it for less money. No sane person will send his goods by our route if some other route offers to do the work at a lower rate. Nothing seemed more improbable a few years ago than that Newport News, Va., should prove itself an important grain-exporting point. Yet we find it looming up as a formidable competitor with New York and Baltimore in the North, and with Charleston, Savannah, and New Orleans in the South,

This result has been achieved by small margins of cheapness, carefully studied out and steadily pursued year after year. Such results will always follow from similar causes. New York is no more exempt from their operation than the planets in space are exempt from their pulls upon each other.

The charges made by the Schieren Commission against the New York Central Railroad Company are serious, and almost savage in tone. The charge is that this railroad has entered into an agreement with other roads forming the "Trunk Line Association," whereby a differential rate against New York is allowed as an offset against the natural advantages which our harbor affords for ocean commerce. If there were no Trunk Line Association, and if inland commerce were free, these natural advantages would tell in favor of New York: her supremacy would be maintained by the same causes which first established it. But if it is agreed by all the railroads, including those of New York, that a lower rate of carriage shall be made to other ports, in order to offset the natural advantages of New York, then anything may happen unfavorable to her trade. The question of how large a differential shall be allowed against us will always be an open one, and each new improvement adopted by us at great cost may be neutralized by taking a vote in a board of half-a-dozen gentlemen. The system seems indefensible, yet the New York Central's answer would probably be that only in this way can paying rates be obtained for the carrying of grain at all. Without the differential the other roads cannot exist. Therefore, seeing that they might as well perish in one way as another, they will put the rate so low that neither the New York Central nor any other road can make a profit.

This fight about differentials has been going on, with varying results, but on the whole adversely to New York, ever since the day of Commodore Vanderbilt. The time seems to have come for the adoption of radical means to secure for New York the advantages to which her natural position entitles her. We have no confidence in any measures of coercion against the New York Central to compel it to change its policy. It is acting under coercion now. It does not want to cripple the commerce of New York. Its officers are under a grim necessity to earn dividends, and they find only one way possible, and that is to tolerate a differential which they would be glad to abolish if they could. If the canal enlargement proposed by Gen. Greene's committee shall abolish this differential or annul its effects, it will be cheap for the city and State at the price named. This is a matter for engineers and other experts to determine. If their decision is in the affirmative, then we had best carry out the Governor's recommendations. But, as we have previously said, the first step to be taken is to put all work on the canal, both of enlargement and of subsequent management, on the solid basis of a reformed civil service. Without this not a dollar should be spent upon new work, but rather should the present canals be sold at once to the highest bidder.

THE EDUCATION OF EXAMPLE.

I was much interested the other day in reading the *Nation* article on "Reform by Social Stigma," following up a line of argument already opened by President Hadley of Yale. Your proposal that we should avoid the company of dishonest men in general is, of course, a difficult one to follow, however useful it may be, owing to the way in which the good and the bad mingle in society. The good, unhappily, are not marked off from the bad by any clear line of demarcation. They have to work with them, to depend upon them, to accept aid from them in all sorts of laudable enterprises, both in the church and in the world. To evince positive disapproval of the rogues every day would be a terrible task, from which young men, who have their fortunes to make, would naturally shrink. I remember during the civil war that a lady in a country town, who had joined a society of her own sex to help the war, told me that the duty of "rebuking Copperheads" was set down in the list of those incumbent on its members. She said, with a look of despair, that all others she had faithfully discharged, but "rebuking Copperheads was something she could not do." So it will always be, I fear, with a large number of our good people. They will always find the task of telling a man that he is a knave, or indicating to him their opinion of him, a little too much for their virtue.

In this, however, as in many other things, there is a sort of half-way house. We may not always be able to avoid a rascal's company, but surely we need not seek it—if not for our own sake, for that of our children. To me, nothing is more strange than our indifference to the effect on our youth of our political manners. The extent of our reliance, in education in the duties of citizenship, on books, pamphlets, lectures, leaflets, "talks," is something amazing. We seem to forget altogether the effect upon a youth of the *milieu* in which his father and family live, of the people whom they see at their house, and of the estimation in which he finds they hold them. It is out of this that he really gets his idea of citizenship, however gratefully he may accept the books or listen to the lectures. A filial boy naturally believes that the men his father sees and "confers" with are as good as there are, and that the work in which they are engaged is honorable and useful work.

I have been familiar for twenty years with the history of Thomas C. Platt. Twenty years ago he was about the most despised and insignificant man, outside the penitentiary, in this State. When the *Tribune* used to be calling him "Me Too," he was the general laughing-stock. He is now one of the most powerful and respected. And yet his career has been one of political fraud and intrigue, and studious and protracted efforts to break down the old Constitution of the State and to impede efforts to reform it. I think few intelligent persons will deny that he is on a par with Croker, and we know the account Croker gave of himself the other day. Platt imitates him in every particular. Now how has he reached this bad eminence? Simply by success in getting ostensibly decent people to consult with him, to keep company with him, and follow his advice and example. How do you expect the children, when they see this man courted and invited to his house by the Governor of the State, to think that he is a bad man, or that his methods or way of life are odious? What do you suppose Gov. Roosevelt's children think of Platt? Why, that he is a dear old friend of their father's, and a good example for a rising young man. It is only a short time ago that a number of leading citizens of New York exposed enormous political frauds committed, connived at, and encouraged by Platt, and swore roundly that they would never, never have anything to do with him again. In a year or two they were all good friends with him, and some of them gladly accepted office at his hands. What impression do you suppose this makes on the boys? Why, either that their fathers lied when they said that Platt was guilty of fraud, or that there was no great harm in Platt's frauds, after all. Which conclusion do you think they are likely to reach?

The truth is, every one, or almost every one, admits that our standards of honor, of honesty, and of patriotism in public men, need to be greatly raised; but what to me is droll is that we expect that the next election will surely do the business. I think the process will be a long and tedious one. The general uplifting which has to take place, if America is to fulfil her mission among the nations, must be begun lower down, among the youth of the country, by showing them that there is a difference between men, both in morals and in conduct. You need not "cut" bad men, but you surely can avoid conferring with, coöperating with, lying and cheating with them.

It is not very long since two men from whom this generation expected a good deal, Messrs. Lodge and Roosevelt, filled the colleges with a terrible hullabaloo about the duty of plunging into public life, and, as they said, "accomplishing something." In fact, Lodge administered a stunning Phi Beta Kappa rebuke to Harvard College for criticising his career instead of imitating it. Well, one of the earliest acts of their political life was to vote for and support for the Presidency a man whose dishonesty and unfitness for the office they had two or three months previously admitted, exposed, and denounced. And they did this through sheer cowardice, the fear of being expelled from the Republican party. Since then Lodge's career has been simply a series of "base compliances." There is nothing, however absurd, including silver, for which he thought there was a majority, that he has not advocated. Roosevelt has been a useful civil servant, but the routine of civil life was too much for him. He had to break loose and go to war. His military exploits have procured him the Governorship of this State. The first use he makes of this is to share its powers and duties with our greatest corruptionist and our greatest enemy of good administration.

It is, therefore, hardly necessary to say that the notion of these gentlemen that they

would "accomplish something," is a mere phantasm. They accomplish nothing worth mentioning. They may turn a rogue now and then out of some trumpery place, and put a slightly better man in for a short term, or hinder the passage of a blackmailing act. But the great evil of the day, the boss system of government, they do not touch. On the contrary, they increase the boss's credit and authority; and when their own little day is over, they leave him more firmly established than ever.

Since representative institutions have been established on a popular basis, that is, within the present century, two great reforms have been achieved by agitation, the abolition of the corn laws in England and the abolition of slavery in America. But these were achieved by men who had convictions, which they would not change though the sky should fall, who stood to their guns in the darkest hour, and bore defeat without flinching. They never "conferred" with the enemies of their cause, or thought they were "accomplishing something" when they made an "ignoble peace." This is the way and these are the men to inflame the imagination of youth, and educate its conscience in a modern state. I remember how my own blood was stirred as a young man by seeing Wendell Phillips, facing a hostile audience, serene and resolute, though not still; his hand thrust into the breast of his frock-coat, like an artilleryman standing behind his piece, waiting for the enemy to get within range. The courage never to submit or yield is the courage we need to-day, for civil life more than for military life. E. L. G.

SERRAO'S 'CONQUEST OF ROME.'

PARIS, January 10, 1900.

I doubt if we are becoming very humanitarian and international in politics, notwithstanding our peace congresses and conferences; but we are certainly becoming very international in literature. It may be because novel-reading seems to be now one of the necessaries of life. I have been told that there appears on the average one new novel a day in Paris. The huge piles of them, which often have catching titles and title-pages, disappear more or less rapidly from the bookseller's shop; they never remain long, and have to make place for others. What becomes of the unsold volumes is a problem which has often puzzled me. There are about a dozen writers whose volumes have an assured sale, and of them you can see edition after edition rapidly succeeding each other. These writers have the ear of the public, and some of them make brilliant fortunes; the happy few are looked upon with envy by the legion of those who have still a name to make, and the immense majority of whom are sure to see their works sink into oblivion.

Foreign novels are a great and important addition to the novel-reader's *menu*. Russian novels were the first to invade the French market. Russia was made known to us by such eminent writers as Turgeneff and Tolstoy; and after we had admired their masterpieces, some of us wished to know Dostoyevsky and other less eminent writers. We became familiar with what was called *l'âme russe*, and there was all the more reason why we should try to understand the Russians when politically they became our allies.

Our acquaintance with modern Italian romantic literature is much more recent. Our familiarity with Russian literature dates from the time when Ivan Turgeneff made Paris his home, and was familiarly mingling with French society and French writers; we have not yet seen any Italian writer choosing Paris for his headquarters. The influence of French literature is, however, much felt in the Italian works which are beginning to attract our attention. The Italian novel-writers of the day are devoted to the principles of realism or naturalism, as you choose to call it; in fact, they are intensely realistic, but they have chosen to cover their principles with a new word—they are *verists*, devoted to truth, and to truth only. Among the recruits of this school are counted Verga, who may be considered the chief, the flag-bearer; Luigi Capuana, Cameroni, Ciàmpoli, De Roberto; but the most brilliant of the verists is a woman, Madam Matilda Serrao.

Verga's history is a curious one. He belongs, like many of the writers of the new school, to the southern part of Italy—to Sicily. His family owned a property at Vizzini, near Mineo. An epidemic of cholera induced it to emigrate, but Verga, though he became a member of the best clubs of Rome and of Milan, always remembered the poor people of Sicily. He described, in his popular novel 'The Malavoglia,' the manners of the fishermen of the coast; he wrote the libretto of the "Cavalleria Rusticana," which has become so popular; he traced for himself a programme of work which is only partly fulfilled.

But I will not speak now of Verga, and I return to Mme. Serrao, as she has taken, so to speak, the French public by storm. Several of her stories or novels have been translated into French and have had an immense success. There is no exaggeration in saying that, in the opinion of French readers, though every work of art loses immensely in a translation, Mme. Serrao has placed herself on the level of the greatest novelists of our time. She, too, represents the genius of South Italy, so full of life, of animation, of passion, rather than the more cold and prudent spirit of Northern Italy. But she may be said to be a product of the revolution which has unified the north and the south; and her great novel, 'The Conquest of Rome,' is, consciously or unconsciously, symbolic of this great revolution.

I have seldom received so vivid a literary impression, I might almost say sensation, as on reading the beginning of 'The Conquest of Rome,' describing the journey from Capua to Rome of a newly elected young Deputy of the southern province of the Basilicata. The Deputy is alone in a special car; he cannot sleep, he is cold; accustomed to the heat of the South, he set out on his journey without overcoat and with a modest trunk. He holds in his hand his Deputy's medal, with his name engraved on it, Francesco San Giorgio. He looks out of the window. "The train went on silently, now in the plain; the wheels turning on smooth rails did not disturb the sleep of the travellers; lighted windows flew past on the black earth—not a shadow behind the panes. The huge sleeping-car ran in the night as if pushed by an implacable and ardent will, carrying with it all wills disarmed by repose." San Giorgio alone is awake; he has left the paternal home, the little place where he has spent dull, insipid years as a small lawyer. He thinks of Rome. "These four letters, round, clear, sonorous as the trumpets of an army on the march, danced before his eyes with the obstinacy of a fixed idea." He had never been there, for want of leisure, for want of money. He saw Rome only in the abstract, like a huge mystery, an ideal apparition, an immense and indistinct feature. "Ah! how he liked this Rome! He figured it to himself as a colossal human shadow, extending maternal arms towards him to enfold him in a powerful embrace. . . . He thought that he heard in the night the irresistible softness of a feminine voice pronouncing his name. . . . Rome called him, was waiting for him as a mother waits for her son after a long absence."

When he approaches the great capital, his excitement increases. All his thoughts, his vague ambitions, his intense curiosity face to face with the unknown are analyzed with extraordinary vividness. The Roman Campagna has a majesty well suited to the thoughts of San Giorgio. I remember even now the sensation which I experienced the first time I approached Rome—a sort of religious awe in presence of the solitary aqueducts, the great plains which surround the capital of the world, so full of memories; and then the sudden apparition of the dome of St. Peter's.

San Giorgio arrives and takes a room at a hotel. His first thoughts are for the palace of Monte Citorio. There he has to choose a seat, there he will have to show what is in him. He has not yet selected his political line definitively; the ten years of a lawyer's work, of obscure and petty struggles, have hardened him, prepared him for public life; but he has not had much time yet to think of the great issues of politics. The old Deputies look on him with curiosity—the Socialists especially, for San Giorgio is poor, a self-made man; but "the cold look, the wilful forehead under the close-cut hair, the energetic physiognomy of the young man, mark a formed character, little disposed to submit to any influence whatever."

It is needless to say that the influence which will be felt by San Giorgio is the influence of a woman, for otherwise we should have no novel. This hard, stern, severe young man is doomed to fall under the soft, gentle, winning influence of a woman. Rome's first impressions on the young Deputy, his walks among the ruins in the Forum, in the Coliseum, in St. Peter's, are well described; but San Giorgio is not a dreamer. The Chamber, the Deputies, his new colleagues, absorb him; he studies the faces of the Ministers. "Why should he not become Minister? Is it so difficult?" There is a description of a great session, a great parliamentary tournament in Monte Citorio, which is so alive that you seem to be a witness of it. This extraordinary power of description is one of the great merits of Madam Serrao; it is found also in the account of a grand soirée at court. Photographs, cinematographs, can hardly equal the descriptive powers of the Italian writer, but she adds to her descriptions the dramatic, the psychological element.

San Giorgio is eloquent, naturally eloquent, as frequently happens in the meridional races. He has made his mark in Parliament; the party chiefs court him, dread

him. He is biding his time; does not at first know well on which side of the House he will sit. His fate is decided by accident more than by any great convictions. The Minister is an old, very old man with a very young wife. San Giorgio met her first at the railway station, on his arrival. He has seen her since continually; has taken long walks with her; has become intimate with her; she likes him, feels drawn to him, but she does not love. She is incapable of love, in the material sense; she is a creature of a superior sort, an idealist, ignorant of everything that goes under the name of passion. Nobody knows this better than her husband, the Minister, whom she regards more as a father than as a husband. The situations created by the contrast of the ardent San Giorgio and the pure Angelica Vargas give a singular psychological interest to 'The Conquest of Rome.' The devouring passion, which is never quite satisfied, finally destroys all the energy of San Giorgio; an absorbing topic incapacitates him for the political work which was and ought to be the object of his ambition. Before Angelica, all is forgotten—"so much so that the personality of San Giorgio effaced itself more and more." Angelica finally conveys to him, by the mouth of the Minister, her old husband, her desire that he would leave Rome. The Minister says to him: "Man, this great thing, this power, this force, is subjected to a supreme law which tells him, 'You must do this and nothing else if you do not wish to be useless and mediocre; you must have but one passion, one ideal. Love, science, politics, art—these forms of passion and of the ideal are exclusive sentiments.' 'What,' inquires San Giorgio, 'is Madam Vargas's desire?' 'That you will leave Rome.' 'I will go; I will resign.'" And he does resign. He returns to his Basilicata. He was to make the conquest of Rome, but Rome has vanquished him. His dream is finished.

SOME HINDU PROVERBS.

NEW HAVEN, January, 1900.

Threefold is the pleasure given by proverbs. First there is the intrinsic satisfaction derived from the adage in itself, as it is *ad agendum aptum*, or applicable to life. Thereto is added the delight of association, as we begin to wonder where we have enjoyed the flavor before, and finally locate it as appertaining to some well-concocted tart of different form but similar quality, made, perhaps, by the cooks of a far-distant nation. Lastly, if the proverb is the product of a long civilization, there is the gentle joy of tracing it back in its own confines, and seeing what proportion of its ingredients is new, stale, or well preserved. It is true that the intellectual pleasure is not of a very high order. The historical question is generally trivial; the association is sometimes very vague; nay, it must even be admitted that the pleasure in the flavor itself is often based on a somewhat reprehensible enjoyment of that spice of cynicism without which no proverb is perfect.

Nevertheless, though each strand (to change the figure) of this twisted pleasure is slight enough, the threefold cord is often constraining, and a new collection of proverbs may hold us pleasantly bound till we have satisfactorily solved some of its petty but knotty problems. This is especially true when the proverb-makers are quite isolated from Europe; and indeed in this case one of the pleasures, that of the comparative study of proverbial literature, is not without importance. For if we find proverbs springing up apart from all possible European influence, and yet identical with those of Europe, does not this do its part in helping us to understand how other traits, literary, philosophical, or religious, may arise separately in different communities, and so guard us against hasty generalizations in respect of a supposed unity of origin where such an assumption is not altogether necessary?

But to return to the proper subject of this study, and at the same time to the abandoned metaphor, all the mingled pleasures spoken of above may be had for the tasting of a new dish of Hindu proverbs recently served up to us in excellent shape by a past-master in the art, who has collected and translated under the head of 'Marathi Proverbs' nearly two thousand sayings of his chosen people, from whom he has gathered them in the course of his long missionary labors. Mr. Manwaring's collection is well arranged under different heads. Each proverb appears in the original and in translation, while numerous parallels are cited from Latin and modern European languages. Unfortunately, though naturally enough, the author is more at home in Latin and French than in the classics of India, and he gives scarcely any native parallels or originals of the proverbs of to-day, while Greek parallels appear to have escaped him altogether. But with these exceptions the book is a model of its kind. It is published by the Clarendon Press, a sufficient guarantee for its outward appearance.

Such a collection cannot be too highly commended, for it perpetuates sayings which are more or less fugitive in any circumstances, but in India peculiarly so, owing to present conditions. Proverbs change with the times; and when the times change as rapidly as they do now in India, many an old adage is liable to be abandoned as something that has outlived its usefulness. Thus, it would be a pity to lose all the scathing proverbs on the dishonesty of that wicked wight the goldsmith, for they go back at least two thousand years; but it is quite conceivable that new police and courts may even result in ousting this time-honored villain from his place in the bitter heart of his countrymen: "He may make or he may buy, still the goldsmith is content"; that is, he will cheat you just the same whether he sell to you or you sell to him.

India has always been the home of proverbs as well as of fables, and the two are often united, as in several of the specimens from this Marathi group. Some of these saws are of universal application; others could arise only in India, and lose their point elsewhere. "If you kill, kill an elephant; if you rob, rob the treasury"—that is, you might as well attempt a great deed and a great sin as run the same risk for smaller profit. The sleeping lion of the English proverb is here "Wake not the sleeping tiger," which was proverbial twenty centuries ago as it is to-day. Another proverb of antiquity (though the original is not noticed by the author) is "The elephant's footprint includes all"—the subordinate's fame is lost in that of the superior. How familiar, again, is this version of the *ridiculus mus*, "Excavate a mountain and take out a rat"; and how applicable to a certain dispute in high quarters, "The hunter is he who caught the hare." Many of the animal proverbs, though thoroughly indigenous, read like translations: "What is play to the cat is death to the rat"; "He made the stable-door after the bullock was stolen"; "A gift-cow—why has it no teeth?" (Don't look a gift-horse in the mouth.) Some might have arisen west of India: "Kicking is cheap in a gathering of donkeys"; or, "A lame cow is prime minister among blind cows." More characteristic are the agricultural proverbs. We say "as the tree is bent," but to the irrigating planter of India it is more natural to phrase the thought thus, "As the water-course goes, so the water will run." All the famine-distress of the country is epitomized in another of these rustic sayings: "Always crops and always poverty"; that is, however good the crop, the farmer's habit of borrowing will keep him always poor. He cannot lay up against a famine-year.

To illustrate some of the more remarkable coincidences of parallel proverbs, we may select the adage *zase perâve tase ugavate*, "As we sow so it comes up"; or, "Take the pestle from your own eye, then the straw from another's"; or, again, the group of sayings like *ne sutor ultra crepidam*, "A child's run extends to its mother," "A chameleon's run extends to the wall," and others of the same string. Cut off your nose to spite your face appears as "to cut off one's nose that it may be a bad omen." The Italian says, "In at one ear, out of the other"; the Hindu, "to hear with one ear, and let it out of the other." The Spaniard says, "The one-eyed man is king among the blind," which are the exact words of the Marathi proverb. So, too, "the blind as leader of the blind" is found here, as are "to look for a needle in the sea," "Walls have ears," "In need the friend is tested." Two to make a quarrel is more veiled in "You can't clap with one hand," though the thought is the same; as it is in our "too heavy artillery" and the Hindu's "use an axe when a finger-nail even is not necessary." "Beads about the neck and the devil in the heart," says the English proverb, the echo of that of the Hindu (who, by the way, knew the rosary before the Christian era), "A rosary on the neck, but black at heart." Pope said, "All looks yellow to the jaundiced eye." Yet he was anticipated in this sage remark by the Hindu, "To the one who has jaundice all appears yellow." But did Cæsar say "Teneo te, Africa," before the Hindu woman who has now passed into a proverb "fell down and said she was bowing to the sun"?

Other proverbs employ other illustrations, but have the same application: "Cooked rice can be tested by one grain" (A straw shows the wind); "Even figs are bitter to a full stomach" (A full stomach loathes the honeycomb); "to cut his throat and cure his cough" (remedy worse than disease). Some are almost like our phrase, but not self-luminous. Thus, Every light has its own shadow, appears as "Under the lamp it is dark" (two words in the original, *divyâkhâlî andhera*); that is to say, "Even an illustrious man has some vice." The Frenchman's delicate sneer, "In the adversity of our friends there is something not displeasing," is boisterously vulgarized in "Our goods are destroyed, our friends laugh," but each re-

flects its home. Quite enigmatic appears the saying, "The buffalo is dead, it gave twelve quarts"; till we learn that this is twice the usual quantity of milk, and perceive that we have to do with a bucolic *de mortuis nil nisi bonum*. Another Latin proverb is found in more elaborate form, "A poet may have a teacher, but to be a poet is nature" ('s gift, *svabhâva*), while our "when at Rome" is generalized in, "When among other people, do like them." Even *vox populi vox dei* appears as "An assembly of people is God," *janî janârdana*. To turn to another French parallel, *honi soit*, we may compare, "Evil is in front of the evil man." For the witless "Shakspere never repeats" there is a parallel phrase which is at least a figure, "We boil our rice only once" (We cannot tell the story again).

Mutual-admiration societies are well known in India, and are hit off in the succinct adage, *aho rûpam aho dhvanih*, "What a beauty [you are, says the ass to the camel], what a [lovely] voice [you have, replies the complimented camel]." Not a few proverbs are ethical and philosophical: Desert your child, but not a refugee; As many characters as there are individuals (*tot sententiae*); What is seen is perishable; What is seen is true (Seeing is believing); Practice is better than *Vedânta* (better than precept); Under its clothing the world is naked; A word to the wise, but all night to the fool (*verbum sap.*); At the end of effort is God (God helps those who help themselves). Not a bad compliment to the English Râj is the saying, now become proverbial, "The English rule and salaries are paid promptly."

Quite a number of these sententious words rest on well-known stories of which they are the epitome. A traveller asked a wise man how deep was the river he had to cross. The scholar answered correctly, "The average depth is up to the knee." So the traveller began to ford the broad stream and in its deep middle was drowned, the sage's answer remaining as a proverb on the misleading nature of averages. The King's barber, when asked how the world went, always replied, "O King, it goes well." The King's minister always said, "It goes ill." The monarch demanded the reason for this varied interpretation of life, and the minister promised that within the day he would convince the barber of his error, and the king should receive only one answer. So he stole the barber's money, and the next morning when the latter appeared and was questioned, he, too, said, "The world goes ill." Then the king, on learning how the barber's change of opinion had been effected, said, "Know the world by thyself," and it became a proverb to illustrate the truth that all human judgments are affected by the personal equation.

The melancholy condition of Hindu widows receives due attention from the proverb-makers, but these cruel jests are both too local and too sad to quote. Almost as pathetic are those on the poor little child-wife, but here a spice of wit sometimes brightens the darkness, as in this: "On becoming a mother-in-law, all the torments of being a daughter-in-law are forgotten" (The child-wife is little better than a slave to her mother-in-law).

Proverbs that go back to the classical literature of India are found in several cases, but the only one traced back by the author to its source (in the Hindu epic) is "Whom the gods wish to destroy they first deprive of sense." It may, therefore, be useful to indicate a few others which are registered as modern, but are rooted in antiquity. Thus, we find "The crow flies and the bough breaks" (*post hoc propter hoc*), which appears in the epic as a fable. Again, "The crane is a saint" (because it appears to meditate; in reality it is plotting destruction), a very ancient type of hypocrisy. Well-known, too, in ancient literature, is the proverb *hansakshîra nyâya*, "the judgment of the swan separating milk from water" (as it is supposed to do, a type of clever discernment). The saying, "Long are the arms of a wise man," is both an old epic proverb and a parallel to *longas regum manus*. What is given in the modern proverb as "Do not ask about a saint's ancestors nor a holy river's source," is an adaptation, for proverbial use, of the solemn statement of the ancients, "The source of saints and rivers is undiscoverable." Modern is "Clap in praise of him whose bread you eat," but it seems to be only a variation on the old Sanskrit proverb, "Praise the teacher" (in whose house the pupil lives). "Bear what is on your forehead," or, in other words, "What Fate has written on your forehead will never fail," is also at least as old as the classical period. It is interesting to see that both the great epics are often referred to in the proverbs of to-day, and their heroes and heroines furnish a considerable number of modern axioms. How many modern Greek proverbs, one would like to know, refer to the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey'?

Finally, in some of these sayings there is a seeming touch of Greek literature, which need not surprise any more than the coincidence of Latin and Hindu proverb illustrated above. What Greek scholar can read without interest such proverbs as "The corpse is a burden unto the ground," ἄχθος ἀρούρης; or, "When there is an auspicious day, there is no priest; when the priest is there, the day is not auspicious"? In the original (for of course all these sayings suffer by translation) the phrase is as neat as in the case of the dog and the stone. The Greek heroine might have welcomed the proverb that declares, "The brother is one's flesh, the husband is but a relative"; and the oracle's μηδὲν ἄγαν is identical with *ati sarvatra varjayet* (not *varjayeta*, as Mr. Manwaring has it), "Always avoid the too [much]," a good proverb to end with, though to it is attached a literary question of interest. It appears that the present proverb is from a stanza which speaks of Sita, Râvan, and Bali as being respectively beautiful, proud, and liberal to excess. These all belong to the Rāmāyana cycle. Now, in the old stanza (not noticed by the author) one of the characters is from the 'Mahâbhârata' cycle, and the thought is changed also in the case of Râvan, thus:

Through too (much) giving was Bali bound;

Through too (much) pride, Suyodhana:

Through too (much) longing was Râvan doomed—

Always avoid the too (much).

There is, by the way, another proverb, which gives almost the converse of this advice in the words *thodakyânta goda*, "sweetness in little," small and sweet.

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

Correspondence.

HE KNOWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You were quite right when, in your notice of Mr. Beveridge's great speech on the Philippine question, you described him as "inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity"; although you were in error in not giving due credit to the extravagant praises of his "fool friends," who, it seems to me, were also largely responsible for his inebriety. But you missed the really great point of his speech, in not being aware that he spoke as an expert and past-master when he enlarged in such a beautiful and highfalutin and spread-eagle way on the necessity of sending men of the highest and noblest character and ability to administer the civil service in our new possessions. He knows the kind of men we need for such places, and is doubtless willing to "sacrifice all his wife's relations" for the great cause.

As evidence of this, I submit the fact that his father-in-law is now serving his country and its wards in the postal service in Porto Rico. It is true that he is a man of sixty-odd years, whose only previous service was as postmaster, a great many years ago, in a small Indiana town, and that he has apparently outlived his usefulness, as was shown by the unsuccessful efforts of his son-in-law to find a place for him in the federal service previous to his own election as Senator. But then, Porto Rico is only a small island, and "any old thing" will answer there. Just wait a little while until we fill up the really good offices in the Far East, and I venture to prophesy that then our young prodigy will be able to name you half-a-dozen men for every place; yes, and get them appointed, too.—Yours respectfully,

IMPERIALIST.

INDIANAPOLIS, January 23, 1900.

DEWEY'S PREPARATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your excellent editorial, "Ex Oriente Lux," reminds me that I have seen only one statement as to how Dewey came to be so thoroughly prepared for war as to be enabled to sail for Manila immediately upon the declaration of war, April 23, 1898. I copy a letter published at the time, but, so far as I know, never commented upon.

Yours truly, R. WAGNER.

12 COLLEGE PLACE, COLORADO SPRINGS, COL., January 22, 1900.

WHILE MCKINLEY AND SAGASTA NEGOTIATED.

A Mr. Williams of Cincinnati, who has a son serving upon the *Baltimore* as Lieutenant, after receiving a letter from the young man, dated at Honolulu, prints the following statement of what was done to equip Commodore Dewey's fleet for the task assigned it:

Before the bubbles ceased to rise from the sunken battleship [*Maine*], ammunition that could not be duplicated in all America was ordered on the trains that had the right of way over all that came before their swift rush to San Francisco. There these explosives, that must be handled as carefully as a mother holds a babe, were tenderly transported to the slow but steady old warship *Mohican*, and started for Honolulu. There, at Honolulu, they were again as hastily as

possible unloaded and again restored on the beautiful but terrible *Baltimore*. Every solid foot of the *Baltimore's* magazines was filled. And 400 tons more of modern munitions were secured on her decks. She was also filled to the utmost with coal.

On March 22, just thirty-four days after the disaster to the *Maine*, the officers and crew of the *Baltimore* started on the long sail of 5,000 miles to Yokohama, and thence to Hong Kong, where Dewey was waiting for the food of war. In the meantime, the depleted arsenals were refilled by agents that made the powder-mills run day and night on both sides of the Atlantic, for every American had answered to the call for $50,000,000. On the same day thirty-five fighting vessels were added to the slender line of steel that marks our first line of defence.

While Dewey was filling his magazines from the stores of the *Baltimore*, McKinley and Lee were calmly controlling the wrath of their countrymen who were clamoring for the shooting to begin. As the last obtainable ton of coal sifted down on the hidden decks of his squadron, Dewey hoisted the signals for sail and steered straight for Manila.

McKINLEY BEER IN MANILA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have called attention to some of the large consignments of American beer to Manila, though I believe you have missed the most notable, that of two hundred and nineteen carloads from one Milwaukee brewer, of which he has boasted *ad nauseam* in full-page advertisements in several of our leading monthly magazines. Every man aware of the legal situation knows, of course, that the admission or exclusion of this liquor rests wholly in the power of the President, as head of the War Department (Mr. Root being merely a Secretary, removable at will), so long as military occupation shall continue. Why has not the President stopped this devastating inflow? The most obvious answer would be that the welfare of the country demands the retention in power of his party and himself, and that the exclusion of American beer from the Philippines would endanger that retention. It would never do to sacrifice the present Administration to the moral needs of the Filipinos. Besides, it will no doubt be true that the wives and children of drunken Filipinos will be peculiarly susceptible to the consolations of the missionary, when his turn at last comes, and thus we see that bottles as well as bullets may have their place among the weapons of a holy warfare. It is only on some such theory as this that one can understand the silence of our imperialistic religious editors as to the President's action in allowing this enormous introduction of beer into "our new possessions."

But I venture to suggest the possibility of a deeper motive behind the course of the Administration. Ancient expansionists openly and above board used the vices of inferior races as a means of keeping them in subjection. Now Manila, with its hundreds of new American saloons, is of course more disorderly in many respects than it would be otherwise, but what is the chance of any intelligently planned and carefully concealed insurgent plots there with so large a portion of the natives constantly filled with liquor? Of course everything becomes known at once, and why may we not suspect that this is the intention? I know that the faithful supporters of the President will rise in wrath at any such suggestion, and deny it explicitly and *in toto* on the simple ground of the President's character; but let them pause and consider the simple and undeniable facts that the President does allow the liquor to go there, and that the natives do drink it; that its immediate result cannot be other than the frequent exposure and failure of plans for resistance in the city and for aiding the insurgents in the field, and that the final result of all this must be the easier subjection of the islands as a whole. Now the President must have some motive in admitting liquor which he has the full and legally unquestionable authority to keep out, and, from the imperialistic standpoint, what motive can be more admissible than the one suggested? It is incumbent on some such moral authority as Dr. Abbott to say.

W. H. Johnson.

THE VERB *DOUBT*, 'FEAR, 'APPREHEND,' 'SUSPECT.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Of the equivalence thus indicated, taken in its entirety, the illustrations furnished by even the amplest of the dictionaries must be, to many, misleading, their scantiness being such as to suggest, at variance with the truth, that, in recent times, it has been of somewhat infrequent exemplification. To correct this impression, a string of quotations for it, selected from a very large number which might be produced, is appended:

"I have sent him the following verses, which I neither like myself, nor will he, I *doubt*." Thomas Gray (1761), *Works* (ed. 1858), vol. iii., p. 287.

"I shall come off, I *doubt*, But scurvily with my decrepid Eunuch." George Colman (1764), *Terence* (ed. 1810), p. 86.

"Feeling something pointed running into his breast, he *doubted* some foul play." Goldsmith (before 1774), *Scarron's Comic Romance* (1775), vol. i., p. 24.

"I *doubt* some little difficulty may arise." Jeremy Bentham (1778), *Works* (1838-43), vol. iv., p. 16.

"I *doubt* those from whom I heard it think any use of punishment too much." Rev. Thomas Twining (1779), *Recreations and Studies* (1882), p. 65.

"I *doubt* they will not be done before you come away," "I *doubt* he can do no good to poor Mr. Scrafe." Dr. Johnson, *Letters to Mrs. Thrale*, April 11 and July 10, 1780.

"If they [the Americans] will still persevere, they will find it, I *doubt*, an hopeless contest to the last." William Cowper, *Letter to the Rev. John Newton*, Nov. 27, 1781.

"My execution of their second orders will not be answerable, I *doubt*, to what is expected." Henry Thomas Colebrooke (1790), *Life* (1873), p. 36.

"The answer was in the affirmative; but it was given in such a manner that I *doubt* they wished to deceive me." Mrs. Eliza Parsons, *Woman as she should be* (1793), vol. iii , p. 185.

"The little darling urchin robs me, I *doubt*, of some portion of thy love." R. B. Sheridan, *Pizarro* (1797), Act ii., Scene i.

"I *doubt* I am almost too far off to be in a sufficient fury for the purpose." Lord Byron (1819), *Works* (ed. 1837-40), vol iv., p. 176. "I *doubt* that it would not be honest." *Id*., *ibid*., vol. v., p. 25. "I am glad you like it, however, but *doubt* that you will be singular in your opinion." *Id*., *ibid*., vol. v., p. 189.

"I *doubt*, I *doubt*, sir, that this is the book which belongs to the scrutoire." De Quincey, *The Dice* (1823), *Works* (ed. 1862), vol. x., p. 295.

"I *doubt* that the salmo salar is only one species." T. L. Peacock, *Cro chet Castle* (1831), ch iv.

"The task you would set him is, I *doubt*, utterly impracticable with his other numerous avocations." Rev. H. F. Cary (1843), *Memoirs* (1847), vol. ii., p. 338. Also vol. ii., pp. 15, 24, 84.

"James Marshall went in pursuit of that game, I think, in company with Buckland (and, I *doubt*, Sedgwick)." Rev. Dr. W. Whewell (1846), *Account of Dr. Whewell's Writings* (1876), vol. ii., p. 335.

"I very much *doubt* that my Aunt . . . did not know what she was talking about." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Annals of an Eventful Life* (1870), vol. i., p. 96.

These quotations would, of course, appear in several distinct groups, if disposed lexicographically.

A reviewer in No. 1800 of the *Nation* speaks of the partiality of Edward FitzGerald, my neighbor in past years, to the employment of *doubt* as typified in the expression, "to the detriment, I *doubt*, of his family." In his younger days, such phraseology, though already then archaic, had considerable vogue, especially in discourse of an informal cast. By Sir George Dasent—since, as has been seen, he patronized it only a generation ago—it must have been regarded as an item of by-gone diction deserving of continued existence. But FitzGerald's fondness for it, while he, without question, estimated it similarly, was, not at all improbably, in some measure determined by his surroundings. In the common speech of these parts one constantly hears the like of, "There's a mouse in the cupboard, I *doubt*," "I *doubt* the dog will bite you," "I *doubt* he won't get back to-day." In the case of most locutions akin to these, the generality hereabouts often substitute, after the occasional fashion of those who should set better example, *expect;* and only in its injurious sense do they ever employ *suspect*.

Provincial peculiarities, in language no less than in pronunciation, are, in England, very far from unusual among the educated. Many instances which I have observed, above all, in Suffolk, might be enumerated; but I here confine myself to the mention of two or three, the first of which calls up, but only on a superficial view, the French *chez moi, chez nous*. Bernard Barton, FitzGerald's father-in-law, has, in one of his published letters, "I may be tempted to stroll over to *thine* to dinner," thus amusingly Quakerizing an every-day East-Anglianism, "I were to *his* this morning, and he were to *mine* this afternoon." This bucolically worded information, addressed to me while still unversed in outlying English, availed to enlarge my linguistic knowledge by more than one interesting fact. What was intended by *his* and *mine* was self-explanatory; but I should have decided amiss in taking *were to* for *was at*. Not till after some reflection did it dawn on me that the idiom, long widely familiar, which imposed on *was* the senses of *went* and *came*—and not only as above, but in, for instance, "I *was* to see him there, and he *was* to see me here"—still subsisted, locally, as a noteworthy survival.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, January 12, 1900.

ROMAN LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 76 of No. 1804, in your review of Muirhead's 'Roman Law,' you say: "Our own country cannot boast of a single well-known laborer in this important field of learning" (Roman Law). Permit me to call your attention to the analytical power of Morey's 'Outlines of Roman Law' (N. Y., 1884), and to voice the expectation with which students of this subject are looking forward to the publication of Prof. Munroe Smith's treatise on the Roman contracts—a work which will, we trust, remedy the deficiency that you justly censure in Muirhead.

Your review further says (p. 76): "The one serious fault we have to find with him and his learned editor, relates *not to what they have put in the book*, but to what they have left out." Perhaps your words are too gentle here—at least, so far as you include the first edition, which is before me. Of its 448 pages of text, 77 are given to the law of the "Regal Period," while only some 90 are given on the average to each of the other four parts, and nothing whatever is said of post-Justinian law. Now while it is clear that the Roman *public* law—at least the *constitutional*—did develop during the first three centuries of the city, so elaborate an attempt as that of Muirhead's to trace the development of *private* law prior to the Twelve Tables, based, as it must be, on the inferences of men of much later times (*e. g.*, Varro, about three centuries later than the Twelve Tables), is hardly well calculated to impress the practitioner of to-day with a sense of the practical value, or even the reliability, of the book—or the science. If even the earliest Latin inscription known (C. I. L. xiv., 4123) should be dated in the fifth century B. C., and the early period of the literature begins three centuries B. C., surely the most obsequious follower of the fanciful German reconstructor should say on every page: "This is mere inference based on the fancies of the poet Ennius, the antiquarian Varro, of Livy, Dionysius, Plutarch, Pliny, Tacitus, Servius, Macrobius, Voigt, *et al.*" Even Bruns, though he excerpts references to the *leges regiae*, adds ('Fontes,' 5, 1, note): "omissa quaestione de vera earum natura."

To illustrate my contention (that in this matter your review is too generous): Muirhead (i., pp. 67 ff.) gives, with some qualms, two pages and a half to Servius Tullius's contract laws. Far better Krüger's treatment: "Diese Servianischen Gesetze sind nicht verschollen, sondern erdichtet"!

Yours truly, EDGAR S. SHUMWAY.

RUTGERS COLLEGE, January 30, 1900.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL EVIDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer whom I have to thank for a kind critique of my 'Homeric Hymns' (*Nation*, December 28, 1899) demurs to the evidence for a Pawnee rite, analogous to the myth which inspired the Eleusinia. He wants evidence "not taken from the reports of missionaries," who "are easy to gull." I relied on De Smet, and I think that a "guileless" Pawnee cannot have known the myth of Demeter and so palmed it off on the recorder. Again, De Smet, I think, does not even notice the Eleusinian parallel; indeed, it does not appear to have been observed, any more than the Pawnee rite parallel to the Attic Bouphonia, by other students.

Again, evidence from "the journals of educated travellers" is objected to, and what sources are left? Only the reports of uneducated travellers. It seems that the educated, "not possessing the scientific spirit, are too ready to press analogies between the beliefs they encounter and the classic myths." Lafitau, about 1740, may fall under this condemnation, and so does Adair, with his Jewish theory. But surely Messrs. Spencer and Gillen, in Australia, do "possess the scientific spirit." Mr. Spencer is Professor of Biology in the University of Melbourne, and, while they give, *e. g.*, an Australian parallel to the Osiris myth, they never notice the analogy. A Professor of Biology may know little of Egyptology. Nor does Winslow note analogies, in 1621, with his Kishtan and Hobamoc; nor, in Fiji, does Mr. Basil Thompson note the classic analogy of the golden scroll from Petelea: very possibly he did not know of its existence. In short, I do not think we have here to deal with "missionaries looking for analogies," when neither missionaries nor travellers, educated or not so educated, seem to be aware of any analogy at all. Lafitau, as was said, and William Strachey, in Virginia (1602), *did* note analogies, and we recognize their bias accordingly.

In this spirit of criticism I "ride my hobby," which is common to all anthropological students of early religion. The savage and classical parallels impress me the more when the reporters show no sign of being aware of their existence. When missionaries and travellers are also comparative mythologists, *then* their evidence becomes *suspect*. But, hitherto, we have suffered little from this growing source of possible error.

I regret my archaistic "explosions," though I warned the reader of "Etin" in the preface. Only for "shieling" do I stand out, because, as the man said of a "Yorker," what else can you call it? Every reader of Mr. William Black knows what a "shieling" is, just as every reader of Malory knows what "flatlings" means.

> "From the dim shieling on the misty island
> Mountains divide us and a world of seas."

"Aumbry," an English word, I like better than "cupboard"—when speaking of the furniture in the divine cave of a goddess. I can hardly think such words unknown either to scholars or ordinary readers of our literature. But, methinks, I have taken too much knowledge for granted in both classes of men. It is a mistake which I would gladly correct if I had an opportunity.

Faithfully yours, A. LANG.

ST. ANDREWS, January 13, 1900.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' preliminary announcements embrace Prof. B. I. Wheeler's 'Alexander the Great'; 'Charlemagne,' by H. W. Carless Davis; 'Oliver Cromwell,' by Charles Firth; 'Theodore Beza, the Counsellor of the French Reformation,' by Prof. Henry Martyn Baird; 'Modern Spain,' by Martin A. S. Hume; 'Slavery and Four Years of War,' in this country, by Major-Gen. J. Warren Keifer; 'Reminiscences of J. Morris Steinert,' compiled by Jane Martin; a (third) volume supplementary to Sir George Nicholls's 'History of the English Poor Law,' bringing the work down to date from 1834; and 'North American Forests and Forestry: Their Relations to the National Life of the American People,' by Ernest Bruncken.

Harper & Bros. will issue next month the 'Life of William H. Seward,' by Frederic Bancroft, and 'The First American: His Homes and his Households,' by the late Miss Leila Herbert.

Fresh announcements from Macmillan Co. are 'Great Oxford Leaders: Keble, Newman, Pusey, Liddon, and Church,' by the Rev. A. B. Donaldson; 'A Short History of the Church in Great Britain,' by William Holden Hutton, D.D.; 'Clinical Studies in Vice and Insanity,' by George R. Wilson; and 'The Peace Conference at The Hague,' by Frederick W. Holls.

Still another translation of Hauptmann's "Versunkene Glocke" is announced by Henry Holt & Co. It has been made by Dr. Thomas S. Baker.

'Ten Years' War,' by Jacob A. Riis; 'Charles Sumner,' by Moorfield Storey; and 'Charles Francis Adams,' by his son, the bearer of the name, are about to be issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Clarendon Press, Oxford (New York: H. Frowde), will soon publish 'British Jurisdiction Outside the United Kingdom,' by the late Sir Henry Jenkyns, and a large-type edition, in crown octavo, of Dr. Moore's text of the 'Divina Commedia,' with a few emendations and corrections, and a revised index of proper names by Mr. Paget Toynbee. By midsummer of next year, a volume of notes, in preparation by the Rev. H. F. Tozer, is expected to be published by the same press.

Mention may appropriately be made here of the Temple edition of the "Paradiso," of which we shall say no more now than that it presents the Italian text, based on Cassini's and looked after by H. Oelsner, face to face with an English prose version by the Rev. Philip H. Wicksteed. Both editors are responsible for the notes at the end of each canto, and the latter for the Arguments prefixed. The handy form of this edition (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan) chimes in happily with the end in view, of being "helpful to the beginner" as well as of interest to the more advanced student.

Bibliographically, Mr. M. H. Spielmann's book on Thackeray's 'Unidentified Contributions to *Punch*' (Harpers) is an unexceptionable piece of work. The necessity of doing it the author justifies on the ground that "the matter has been trifled with in another quarter." He says, also, that his project had the approval of Thackeray's daughter, Mrs. Richmond Ritchie. His "authentic and exclusive information" is derived from "a long-forgotten editorial day-book" in which the items of Thackeray's contributions to *Punch*, with the payments for the same, are all entered. This, of course, puts all the higher critics at Mr. Spielmann's mercy. His corrections of mistaken attributions, together with his revelations of unknown contributions, make a good-sized volume, which the publishers have properly bound up uniform with their recently completed "Biographical Edition" of Thackeray. But it must be said that there is little here which lovers of Thackeray would not willingly have left unidentified. Mr. Spielmann's service is to bibliography, not to Thackeray's fame. One can imagine the fresh point which the novelist would find this book giving to his own words: "That turning back to the old pages produces anything but elation of mind. Would you not pay a pretty fine to be able to cancel some of them? O, the sad old pages, the dull old pages."

Dr. Garnett's 'Essays in Librarianship and Bibliography' (Francis P. Harper) have more than mere technical interest. The difficult problems with which the administration of a vast library has to grapple, such as classification, space, and cataloguing, and the ingenious devices by which special exigencies are met, will appeal to all librarians; while the papers on early printing and book-hunters and on eminent libra-

rians and collectors will interest a wider public.

Richard de Bury, born in 1287, the descendant of an ancient Norman house, favorite of Edward III., Ambassador to the Pope and the King of France, Prince-Bishop of Durham, Lord Treasurer of England, Lord High Chancellor of England, reached the highest pinnacles of earthly greatness, short of royalty. Yet the ambition of his life was to go down to posterity as a lover of books. All his life he was an eager collector, and that in an age which cared but little for books, and in a society that looked upon so strange a passion with disapproval mixed with some scorn. So, "to close the perverse mouths of talkers," he wrote the treatise 'Philobiblon,' the first of its kind, in praise of books and in vindication of book-collectors. From Meyer Bros. & Co., New York, we have of it a reprint from the first English translation, made by John Bellingham Inglis in 1832, the author having waited more than 130 years for a printer and about 500 for a translator. Though the 'Philobiblon' is often referred to, it is not often read; and this handsome reprint, accompanied with an excellent introduction, should make it more widely known.

Mr. Henry Childs Merwin contributes to the "Beacon Biographies" a pleasantly written sketch of 'Aaron Burr' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), in which the immorality of that extraordinary life is lightly touched, and some of its grosser faults in part condoned. Burr's eventful course as a free lance in politics and a pagan in social relations is, on the whole, sufficiently well set forth, though with less attention to the political side of his career than is usually given. The portrait frontispiece is well executed.

If brevity is the soul of wit, we cannot praise 'Wit and Humor of Bench and Bar,' by Marshall Brown (Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.). The author has, apparently without much knowledge of the art of effective narration, made his book largely from newspaper clippings which record local witticisms and anecdotes. Judicious compression and selection would have doubled the value of this collection by diminishing its bulk one-half. Many of the jests are of great antiquity, and few that are new have very striking merit. Even the old stories are occasionally marred by mistelling, and the omissions of really classical anecdotes are conspicuous. The arrangement of matter is alphabetical, according to the name of the person or the title of the subject, as it happens. But it is only fair to say that this book is not worse than most collections of the kind.

'The Social Philosophy of Rodbertus,' by Prof. E. C. K. Gonner (Macmillan), is a scholarly attempt to systematize the views of a thinker who left no methodical exposition of them. In a sense, Rodbertus laid the foundations of the theory of State socialism; but he was too much of a philosophic historian, not to say statesman, to become prominent as an agitator. It was said of him by Prof. A. Wagner that while most of the points of his theoretical teaching were incorrect, he yet possessed deep insight, and in fact deserved the title of a "Ricardo of scientific socialism." Whether the theories of Rodbertus are of sufficient consequence to deserve exposition, is a question to which different persons would give different answers; but those who would answer the question affirmatively should be grateful to Prof. Gonner for the light which his labors have thrown on the subject.

Dr. S. A. Knopf, an authority on the subject, in his 'Pulmonary Tuberculosis: Its Modern Prophylaxis and the Treatment in Special Institutions and at Home' (Philadelphia: Blakiston), is infused with the spirit of Pasteur's quoted utterance: "It is in the power of man to cause all parasitic diseases to disappear from the world." The transcendent importance of the matter considered and its painstaking presentation deserve more extended notice than can be given here, though there is in the book much of vital interest with which the lay reader is too often unfamiliar. The dangers of indiscriminate spitting, the necessity of sputum disinfection, the means of avoiding inoculation by inhalation or ingestion, the need of pre-natal prophylaxis, the influence of dress on breathing, the methods of obtaining correct breathing habits, the subordination (in recent opinion) of the efficacy of specific climates in phthisis to that of outdoor life in general, the social significance of the fact (hitherto little recognized) that cures obtained in native air are relatively more lasting than those procured away from home, are all clearly discussed with easy intelligibility. An urgent appeal is made for the wide establishment of proper institutions for phthisical patients exclusively, as being essential in the fight of the community against consumption, and, in the end, financially economical for the commonwealth. The well-illustrated list of sanatoria will prove useful to the physician, and is critically compiled.

Students of French history will welcome the 'Répertoire Méthodique de l'Histoire Moderne et Contemporaine de la France,' of which the first issue, for 1889, has just appeared. Under a topical classification which the editors, MM. G. Brière and P. Caron, appear to feel an unnecessary obligation to defend, the guide groups somewhat more than two thousand titles, most of them, of course, from periodicals. A few words of description accompany the more important entries. The periodical list is remarkably full, though susceptible of improvement on the side of English and American publications. Chronologically, this first number stops with the war of 1870-'71, but the next is intended to reach to 1900.

Otto Ribbeck's 'Reden und Vorträge' (Leipzig: Teubner), a collection of the greater number of that scholar's public addresses, will be of interest to those who have known him either in person or by reputation. The six lectures which he gave at Kiel in 1864-72 derive their chief interest from the application which he made of classical material to the political events of that time. A second group comprises six addresses on subjects in Greek and Latin literature, such as Euripides and his Time, and the Idylls of Theocritus. A third section contains seven masterly "in memoriam" pieces. At the end of the volume is Ribbeck's review of Stromberg's translation of Catullus, entitled, 'Catull in Rom und Poppelsdorf,' which is a masterpiece of wit, satire, and sarcasm.

'Geschichten vom Rhein' (American Book Co.) is the title which Mr. Menco Stern has given to a collection of retold tales from the region of the Rhine. Though primarily designed as a reading-book for more or less advanced students of German, it possesses an interest for all lovers of Rhineland lore. A distinguishing feature is the geographical arrangement of the tales and legends. Starting at the sources of the Rhine, the reader is carried down stream past the thousand haunts of ancient romance, with occasional excursions overland, until he reaches Lohengrin's castle in Brabant, and is borne out to sea, where lies submerged the glittering city of Stavoren. A small map serves as a general guide, and an inadequate vocabulary is appended. The stories themselves, often of a most tenuous character, are all told in clear and colloquial German. That the narrator should sometimes fall into the condescending, familiar tone of the nursery, and so exasperate minds more mature, is a fault which it was perhaps impossible entirely to avoid in a work of this kind. In the preface we are informed that the author has in a manuscript form had these stories in use for fourteen years, with such success as to encourage him to extend the sphere of their usefulness. Few readers can fail to find in these pages something that is new and attractive.

The Third Annual Report of the Commissioners of Fisheries, Game, and Forests of the State of New York, for 1897, seems likely to attain the popularity of the former issues, and, in its limited edition, equally to fall short of the demand. It is a handsome quarto, illustrated with many colored plates of fishes and birds, with numerous sporting vignettes and plates, and abundance of photographs from nature. Fish-hatching is the leading topic, but much information is also given about forest fires, destruction of timber for wood pulp, the manufacture of maple sugar, forest reservoirs, etc. One hatchery has entered on the business of growing the ringnecked pheasant. The black bass, not being capable of artificial breeding, is most in need of protection. At Chautauqua Lake an effort has been made to extirpate the garpike, which preys upon the mascalonge, among other coinhabitants; but the Commission will not aid in propagating the mascalonge in inland waters, on account of its cannibal voracity. On the other hand, it propagates frost fish though they can be taken only with a net—which is illegal. The reason is that the trout feed on the frost fish. So man distributes praise and blame among his inferior fellow-creatures, and interferes with natural selection.

The important features of the Third Annual Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of the American Historical Association are a calendar of letters of Calhoun heretofore printed, and an index guide to the American items in the reports of the English Historical Manuscripts Commission. The twenty pages of the former represent almost exclusively official correspondence; and it is interesting to note that hardly more than twenty of Calhoun's private and political letters have ever been published. The task of collecting and editing the correspondence is well in hand, although early publication is not promised. The guide to the contents of the English calendars will be a real boon to students, to whom the lack of a general index to the series has been a serious obstacle to the use of those important collections. Useful, also, is the further list of items relating to

historical manuscripts in the different States, supplementary to a similar list published in the first annual report.

The third volume of the publications of the Maryland Geological Survey is entirely devoted to questions connected with highway improvement, and, although written with special reference to Maryland, contains much information upon this important subject which will be of value in other communities. The subjects discussed include the relations of Maryland topography, climate, and geology to highway construction, the present condition of the roads and the best means for their improvement, the relative values of the different natural road-building materials, and the construction and repair of roads in Maryland, in other States, and in foreign countries. The book is copiously illustrated with half-tones, cuts, and maps, and as a whole makes an attractive appearance.

The Maryland Weather Service has published the first volume of a new series of reports dealing with the climatic features of the State. The introduction, by W. B. Clark, is devoted to an account of the plan of operation, and a history of the work and publications of the service since its establishment in 1891. A general report on the physiography of Maryland, by Cleveland Abbe, jr., follows, and there are also chapters on the aims and methods of meteorological work, by Cleveland Abbe, on the progress of meteorology in Maryland and Delaware, by O. L. Fassig, and on the present knowledge of the meteorology and climatology of Maryland, by F. J. Walz. The director, William Bullock Clark, who is also superintendent of the Geological Survey, has had charge of the publication of this volume. It contains numerous illustrations and several maps, and presents the same elegant appearance which characterizes the publications of the Geological Survey.

The French Société de Géographie has just begun the issue of *La Géographie*, a monthly journal which it hopes to make worthy of itself and of the growing importance of the science in France. The managing editors are Baron Hulot, the society's General Secretary, and M. Charles Rabot, under a committee consisting of President Milne-Edwards, Gabriel Marcel, Prince Roland Bonaparte, etc. The publishers are Masson & Cie. (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The journal will contain the reports of the Society's proceedings, hitherto committed to a special *Comptes Rendus*.

The Munich periodical *Jugend* is fond of publishing special numbers. Not long ago we noticed its Goethe number. Now come two others—one, of December 9, a Heine number, on the occasion of the one-hundredth anniversary of the poet's birth; the other, of December 23, a Schiller number, in honor of the "Lied von der Glocke," which was published 100 years before. Particularly noticeable in the first are the illustrations and two articles: "Heinrich Heine's Seele," by Otto Ernst, and "Heine's Lottchen: Errinerungen an Charlotte Embden-Heine," by J. Loewenberg. In the Schiller number is a series of interesting pictures illustrating the "Song of the Bell," which is also the title of an article by A. Matthäi. Other noteworthy features are Paul Heyse's poem, "An Schiller," and articles on the poet by Otto Ernst and Prof. Ziegler of Strassburg.

—Three more of the excellent series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) are issued, two of them being 'Luca Signorelli,' by Maud Cruttwell, and 'Andrea del Sarto,' by H. Guinness. In his essay on "The Study of Poetry," originally prefixed to Ward's "English Poets," Matthew Arnold dwells upon the importance of retaining "a sense for the best, the really excellent," and of the danger that this "real estimate" shall be superseded by "the historical estimate and the personal estimate, both of which are fallacious," and goes on to say: "The idea of tracing historic origins and historical relationships cannot be absent from a compilation like the present. And naturally the poets to be exhibited will be assigned to those persons for exhibition who are known to prize them highly, rather than to those who have no special inclination towards them. Moreover, the very preoccupation with an author, and the business of exhibiting him, dispose us to affirm and amplify his importance. In the present work, therefore, we are sure of frequent temptation to adopt the historic estimate, or the personal estimate, and to forget the real estimate." The warning is equally necessary as regards the present series of monographs upon great artists, and we are a little in danger of finding each of these masters the greatest of all masters, and of losing sight of proportion and of "the real estimate." Signorelli is of great historic importance, and made a real advance in the drawing of the nude figure; but it is far from true that his work is "an achievement which no later skill has surpassed, which is perhaps the last word in the treatment of the nude in action." The estimate of Del Sarto is more measured, but even so, the "faultless painter," the most modern of old masters, whom one earliest likes and soonest tires of, is given an undue importance. With this suggestion the books may be recommended. Although the list of illustrations gives the facts correctly, in the body of the book the portrait of Signorelli by himself is twice spoken of as forming the frontispiece of the volume. This may cause confusion to the unwary. The portrait of Signorelli is on p. 8, and the frontispiece is correctly labelled, "Portrait of an Unknown Man."

—The 'Raphael' of the same series, by Henry Strachey, is a more than usually good book. The "real estimate" is here so high that even great enthusiasm could not go far wrong; but Mr. Strachey is far from a blind enthusiast. His criticism is sound and sensible, and his analysis of the talent of Raphael is excellent. Common sense is predominant also in the treatment of the biographical part of the volume, and it is rather refreshing to have some of the conjectures of the Morellists disposed of with the quiet statement that there is really no evidence in the matter. Conjecture so rapidly becomes fact in the hands of some writers, and is so readily accepted as such by succeeding writers, that it is surprising to find any one asking for proof or refusing to accept, for instance, the imputed mastership of Timoteo Viti, which has been considered as established—Mr. Strachey says, "chiefly, as it seems, on the ground that no evidence exists to prove that he did not occupy that position." Mr. Strachey acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Berenson, but the doctrines of that critic, so far as adopted, are stated in simpler and less technical language, and are, be it further said, intrinsically modified by the "sweet reasonableness" of their present expounder. We think Mr. Strachey leans too heavily upon a passage of Vasari in making it support Berenson's theory that the "Sposalizio" of Caen is by Lo Spagna rather than by Perugino. Vasari simply states that Raphael's "Sposalizio" is finer work than his master could do, and this is certainly true, whether or no the picture is a modified copy of Perugino. Berenson's theory must rest, for the present, entirely upon such internal evidence as the picture may afford. The exception proves the rule in this case, for this is the solitary lapse from sound sense and mental balance that we have detected in the volume.

—The Tower of London offers a capital subject to the author of a book for boys, and Mrs. Violet Brooke-Hunt has thus used it in her 'Prisoners of the Tower' (E. P. Dutton & Co.). Whether or not she writes for the benefit of a particular lad matters little, but in the prologue she describes a typical incident, "Geoffrey's first visit to the Tower." Finally, the boy is led by the conversation which springs from a round of the apartments and cells to exclaim: "Why, it is every one out of the history-book, and I can't remember everything about them all. Couldn't you write it down from the very beginning, so that I could read it over and over again?" The result of Mrs. Brooke-Hunt's compliance with this request is that she tells in direct and simple style the story of the celebrated prisoners, from Flambard to Thistlewood, the Cato Street conspirator. In another department of history the design is similar to that of Freeman's 'Old English History,' though Mrs. Brooke-Hunt's manner is fortunately less patronizing than that of the late Oxford professor. She does not, in the words of Gray, apostrophize the great fortress as "Ye towers of Julius, London's lasting shame, With many a foul and midnight murder fed!" Her moral is of another kind. "Within the cells of that Tower many a victory has been won, many a lesson has been learnt, many a soul has been purified, of which the record has never been kept, and yet which surely never can have been in vain." The volume is beautifully printed, well illustrated, and written in a healthy tone—not one which will tend to give a child "the horrors." It is picturesque without being inaccurate, and will rejoice the hearts of those for whom Mr. Henty cannot produce stories rapidly enough.

—In the dramatizing of "Vanity Fair" Mr. Mitchell has introduced two anachronisms. In the ball of the night before Waterloo, when the alarm comes that the French are at hand, an officer cries, "This is serious; they will fight to a finish," and the phrase is used a little later by another. It is difficult to determine the exact chronology of slang, but we will venture to say that "fight to a finish" cannot be found in any sporting literature more than fifteen years old. We apprehend that it came in with "to knock out" and "to put up a fight." The English at Brussels would, perhaps, have said, "They'll fight it out this time." The other anachronism is worse. When

Lady Bareacres, jealous of Becky's social triumphs, tries to take her down by recalling her governess days, adding, "I cannot imagine Mrs. Rawdon Crawley teaching anything, at least anything useful," Becky replies, "Oh, it's quite simple, dear Lady Bareacres. Imagine me giving a lesson in French to your daughter. I ask her, 'Have you the brains of your mother?' She answers, 'No, my mother's brains are in a nutshell,' "—an evident allusion to the Ollendorffian manuals. Now Ollendorff first published his idiotic but not ineffective method of teaching languages in the forties. He loudly proclaimed it a new thing, and with justice, for any one can see by looking through the earlier school-books that they had no such infantile questions and answers. Becky would have been about as likely to draw her retort from telephones or automobiles as from Ollendorff's Methods. Thackeray was more careful about his local color and his dates.

—In his latest drama, "Naar vi döde vaagner" (When We Dead Awake), Ibsen shows the same qualities of style and dramatic construction that have won him his present high place in European literature. Not a word fails of the desired effect, not a situation falls short of the author's intention. The atmosphere of the play, or rather of the heroine, suggests strongly the weirdest of Ibsen's dramas, "The Lady from the Sea." The story is briefly as follows: Prof. Rubek is a Norwegian sculptor who has won fame and wealth by a statue called the Day of Resurrection. Four years before the opening of the play, he had married a girl named Maja, who is incapable of sympathizing with his artistic ideals. They are introduced at a Norwegian watering-place, and the opening words indicate clearly their relations to each other. Soon after, the wild huntsman Ulfhejm appears, and, by his contrast to her husband, makes an immediate impression on Maja, whom he asks to join him in a bear hunt in the mountains. As they leave the garden together, Rubek joins a lady who proves to be Irene, the model for his great statue. On finding her love for Rubek returned with formal thanks for her services as model, and her share in the work regarded as a mere episode, she had disappeared mysteriously, all efforts on the sculptor's part to find her proving fruitless. She is now, as she says, dead, wandering about the world with only a mute sister of charity as companion, and with all her thoughts centred in her child, the statue. Rubek's love for Irene asserts itself, and they are united at last, but in the mist and death-bringing avalanche of the Norse fjeld, to which they have hastened in an ecstasy of passion. Maja's adventure with Ulfhejm and her escape from the storm that overwhelms the others, seem to be introduced mainly by way of contrast to the main story. As for the moral, Edvard Brandes, in his review, published a short time ago in Copenhagen, holds that the work is a hymn in praise of free love, an anathema pronounced by the Norwegian prophet on such hindrances as marriage and public opinion, though it would seem quite as natural to find the moral in the disillusioning of Maja, who is disgusted with the coarseness and sensuality of her huntsman lover. It is characteristic of the literary relations of Norway and Denmark that the new National Theatre in Christiania has acquired the right to produce this play, but not until after its production at the Royal Theatre in Copenhagen.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S ENGLISH HISTORY.

The United Kingdom: A Political History. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L., Author of 'The United States,' etc., etc. 2 volumes. The Macmillan Co. 1899.

The first thought that occurs to us in reading this book of one of the most famous of living authors is that of the delightful inexhaustibility of history. Hundreds of histories of England have been written, many of them by able investigators, many others by brilliant literary artists. They have been written by men of every type of political and religious opinion. Rapin, Hume, Goldsmith, Hallam, Lingard, Macaulay, Freeman, Froude, Stubbs, J. R. Green, S. R. Gardiner, F. York Powell, are only a few among the men—some eminent as masters of style, some as investigators, some few as both—who have produced books which everybody knows upon some larger or smaller part of this great theme. Yet here another author handles it in a way so fresh and so vigorous that it reads like a new tale, and makes on us an impression different from what any of his predecessors have made.

This is not the result of the collection of fresh materials, for Mr. Goldwin Smith does not claim to have unearthed MSS. or to have laid under contribution matter inaccessible to earlier students. The novelty lies in the point of view and in the method of treatment. The essential feature of the treatment consists in seizing the salient and characteristic points of an epoch, or a question, or a character, and in bringing them into a strong light, while passing quickly over details or minor incidents. A deeper impression is thus left on the reader's mind; and matters whose significance he had not realized in the histories he had perused before, stand out clear and sharp before him. Such a method needs a style to match it, and Mr. Goldwin Smith's style retains the qualities which have, for fifty years past, put him in the front rank of masters of English. It is strong, trenchant, cogent. The diction is choice and elevated. It is full of color, yet of a color which is rather deep than bright in tone. Each sentence—and they are mostly short—is so concisely pregnant as to seem to sum up and exhaust the particular matter it handles, leaving little further to be said; while that which most writers would need a chapter to convey, is frequently condensed into a single paragraph.

The preface contains a touching reference to the author's age. There is, however, no sign of old age in the book. It is as keen in vision, as forcible in expression, as decided in judgment, as anything which he wrote in the days when he was the most powerful champion in England of the Northern cause during the war of secession. Yet there is one characteristic of the book which makes us feel that it comes from a man of the older generation. This is that very decision in its judgments to which we have just referred. The modern habits of seeing good in every party and every doctrine, of finding compensations for every misfortune and redeeming traits in every villain, the disposition to look on all events as the result of general and therefore irresistible causes—habits so marked in most of our younger historians—are here quite absent. Mr. Smith does not, like the proverbial young Oxford don, bid us remember that Phalaris must be judged by the standard of his own age, not of ours. To him black is black and white is white. He refuses to accept the view that the Norman Conquest was a blessing in disguise. He displays none of that tenderness for the Roman Church which has become so fashionable among English and American men of culture, but treats her with the sternness of a Puritan, though a Puritan of that modern and enlightened type, perhaps too rare, which is repelled by her policy as much as by her doctrine. The Anglican ecclesiastical establishment is handled with scarcely less severity; that establishment having, in his view, retained, along with a tendency to relapse into Roman doctrine, a pernicious leaven of the Roman disposition to intolerance and the Roman attachment to arbitrary power. Nevertheless, he is ready to reverence virtue and purity even in a prelate, and one of the finest passages in these volumes is that which describes the saintly simplicity of Anselm, and his strenuous, albeit passive, resistance to the tyranny of William the Red.

In its form, though not in its substance, the book reminds us of Lectures, such as those of Niebuhr on Ancient History or those of Sir James Stephen on the History of France, rather than of a narrative like that of Hallam or Green or Freeman. The book is, indeed, not so much a chronicle of events as a running commentary upon them. The chief events are doubtless told, but told rather as things already known to the reader, which have to be mentioned not for the sake of fixing them in his memory, but of explaining their significance and drawing moral or political lessons from them. Its markedly ethical character is another sign that the work represents a taste and temper not of the younger generation of historians. They are nothing if not objective. This book bears in every line the stamp of a marked personality, with clear and strong convictions, and with a gaze so fixed upon the present that allusions to the incidents and controversies of the years that are now passing meet us in his comments upon struggles fought out and settled long ago.

The period before the Norman Conquest is passed over very briefly and lightly, and the twelve centuries from the coming of the Saxons down to the beginning of the great constitutional struggle with Charles I. are summarily dealt with in four hundred and seventy pages, while more than six hundred are given to those more definitely political ages which link the days of the great Civil War to those of the Reform Bill of 1832. With the Reform Bill, or rather with a survey of its results down to the fall of Lord Melbourne's Ministry in 1841, the history closes an era well chosen, because it marks the beginning of the passage from an oligarchy with some popular elements into a pure democracy, tempered only by a remnant of traditions formed in aristocratic days, and qualified, not to its benefit, by the all-pervasive influences of wealth. It is also the date when the historian's own contemporaries began to appear upon the scene; and though it is not impossible for a powerful mind, however decided in its views, to deal even justice between allies and opponents, it is impossible for the crowd to believe

that a historian has so shaken himself from the prepossessions to which it is itself enslaved.

The omission of social, economic, military, and ecclesiastical matters, except in so far as they bear upon political history, and the summary treatment of the legal side of constitutional questions, together with the briefness of the references to Scotch and Irish affairs, leave space for a full handling of the great epochs of change, such as the Reformation and the struggle of Parliament against the Crown, which, beginning under James the First, lasts till 1688. Nothing can be more brilliant or effective than the manner in which these periods are presented. The point of view is that not so much of a Whig as of a theoretic Republican, who is also an advanced Protestant, so that to the friends of monarchy and of ecclesiastical pretensions it may, perhaps, appear that their side of the case is not adequately stated. Yet it is a sign of the author's insight and superiority to prejudice that those supposed champions, or at least unconscious pioneers, of Protestantism, Henry the Eighth and Queen Elizabeth, find no favor, while King Charles the First receives much more indulgence than was allowed to him by Carlyle, or even, perhaps, than is allowed him by the singularly cool and impartial S. R. Gardiner. As there has been of late a tendency in England (partly, perhaps, owing to the renewed passion for naval achievement and territorial expansion) to glorify Elizabeth, it may be worth while to quote our author's short description of her character:

"Her youth, her good looks, her high spirit, and princely carriage, with her mental accomplishments, which were remarkable, awakened an enthusiasm of which she had the tact to make the most. . . . False and perfidious she was, heartless and selfish, capable at times of hateful cruelty, possessed with a vanity such as could hardly dwell in the same breast with greatness, to say nothing of her indelicacy and of at least one darker stain, for if she was not criminally cognizant of the murder of Amy Robsart, she certainly prompted to the assassination of Mary Queen of Scots. Yet Elizabeth, in spite of all revelations and dissections, still keeps the title of the Great Queen. Writers again bestow it upon her after recounting the proofs of her littleness. They say, with scant justice to her sex, that, after all, she had only the faults of a woman. She had the sense to keep good counsellors, though she preferred to them unworthy favorites, and sometimes treated them with base ingratitude. She had remarkable arts of popularity when she chose to exert them. She had a queenly bearing, tempered with condescension. She had personal courage, which was needed in an era of assassination. . . . Something, also, her reputation gained from the contrast of her reign with the political troubles which followed, albeit of those troubles her self-will was in part the cause. The illusion was strong. It was strong enough in her lifetime to make men fancy themselves, or at least say that they fancied themselves, in love with a virago who spat, swore, and cuffed; and this when she was past middle age and the last traces of her youthful comeliness had fled. But those who still call her great, if they do more than pay tribute to custom, have before their mind's eye not the figure of the Queen in the grotesque trappings of her vanity, but the figures of Burghley and Walsingham, of Sir Philip Sidney and Sir Walter Raleigh, of Shakspere and Spenser, of Drake and Frobisher, of the heroic mariners of England returning from the attack on Cadiz or the victory over the Armada."

Still more striking, and, as is his due, more full and careful, is the account of Oliver Cromwell—an account more penetrating than is Macaulay's, more discriminating, if not more picturesque, than is Carlyle's. Indeed, the biographical sketches are among the finest things in the book. Some among them are worthy of Tacitus, of whom, in epigrammatic conciseness and piercing sarcasm, we are often reminded. A Tacitean grimness is relieved by a humor less frequent in the Roman, for Mr. Goldwin Smith has a keen eye for those minor traits of character which make men real to us, and for any touch of picturesqueness in an incident which brings a distant age nearer. He has also the Tacitean gift of conveying a judgment in a statement of fact. Narrating the last moments of Charles the Second, he tells us: "He declared himself a Roman Catholic, was admitted by a priest furtively brought to his bedside into the Church, and, after a confession which, if at all complete, must have been highly condensed, received absolution and the sacrament." And in mentioning the movement for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, he observes that "Pitt consulted the bishops, who deemed the profanation of the sacrament for political purposes still vital to the maintenance of religion."

We have noted some points, such as his notice of the so-called massacre of 1641 in Ireland, in which his views seem hardly in accord with the results of recent investigation. But these are few. He shows throughout that sort of instinct for being right which is a mark of the highly trained historical mind, together with a power of appreciating the main principles which run through and give unity to the long and splendid drama of English history. To see these and to be able to set them forth with breadth, conciseness, and unfailing energy, are gifts so rare that they insure for one who possesses them a permanent place among the great historians of all time.

AN UNSAFE GUIDE.

Religion under the Barons of Baltimore. By C. Ernest Smith, D.D. Baltimore: E. A. Lycett. 1899.

One would have thought that by this time the question of toleration in Maryland had been so thoroughly threshed out that nothing remained to be said. However, it is open to any one to form opinions and conjecture motives, and if he thinks his opinions and conjectures of interest, he may give them to the world. All we ask is that, in making an historical argument, he shall carefully distinguish between opinion and fact; that he shall, as far as possible, verify positive statements, and that he shall not accept an authority as trustworthy, nor discredit him as unveracious, according as that authority agrees or disagrees with his own views.

Though written under a strong bias, there seems no intentional want of candor in this book. The author has made liberal use of the original and authentic sources wherever they served his purpose. But, unfortunately, he has accepted as history too many statements of prejudiced, or even mendacious, writers when those statements tend to confirm his own opinions. Still more unfortunately, he too often insinuates an unproved opinion as an historic fact, and draws positive inferences from an unsubstantial conjecture. He says, with entire truth, in the preface, "The facts herein recorded are true"; but he has given the ordinary reader no means of distinguishing the facts from the fictions and the fancies. The present writer has no intention of taking a side in an idle controversy; but as the book has a rather imposing air of authority, and may be accepted by some as history, it may not be amiss to give specimens of its inaccuracies in points of fact, and of its vicious mode of reasoning.

History tells us that in 1625 George Calvert announced to the King his conversion to the Roman Catholic faith, at the same time resigning his office of Secretary of State. As this effectually closed his political career, it is a reasonable inference that his conversion was sincere. It is also a probable opinion that this change of faith was not sudden, but a gradual process. Dr. Smith, however, conjectures that he had long been a Romanist in secret, while "outwardly a member of the Church of England ever since he obtained court preferment," and proceeds to draw positive conclusions from this conjecture. His argument, condensed, is this: Calvert may have been long a secret Romanist. Therefore he hypocritically professed himself a Protestant in order to hold office. "Prompted, then, by ambition, he had conformed to the national church, and had not been found afraid to use even religion itself as the ladder by which he might rise to wealth and fame." But a man who is a hypocrite in one thing will probably be a hypocrite in two; and he therefore tells us positively that Calvert was not even a sincere Catholic; he was only a Catholic "so far as he was anything at all." Men have wrecked their fortunes for their faith, but here is one who wrecks his for a faith which he does not believe in. And all this rests on an unsupported surmise.

In comparing the charters of Maryland and Avalon, Dr. Smith very properly calls attention to the fact that one was held by knight's service and the other in free socage (which he thinks was not a feudal tenure). And then he tells us that this last tenure compelled Baltimore to reside in England. The statement is so surprising that it is best to cite the author's own words: "The patentee under the Maryland holding . . . year by year had to appear personally at Windsor, bringing his Indian arrows with him and prepared to give an account of his stewardship." And he draws the inference that this obligation "to regularly appear in person at a certain time and place and there pay his rent," was the reason why Cecilius never came to Maryland, and that it was inserted on purpose to keep him in England. The weak point of this ingenious theory is that it is contradicted by the facts. The delivery of the arrows was not a *service*, all services being discharged by fealty. The words of the charter are: "In free and common socage, by fealty only for all services . . . yielding therefor unto us, our heirs and successors, two Indian arrows of those parts to be delivered at the said castle of Windsor." There is nothing about personal delivery nor "giving account of a stewardship"; and, as matter of fact, from the first the payment was made by deputy, as the receipts show.

Another important difference between the charters our author finds in the clause wherein the people of Maryland and their successors are expressly declared to be "denizens and lieges of us, our heirs and successors of our kingdom of England and Ire-

land." On this he comments as follows: "The change from the feudal lordship to the free and common socage involved it [this clause]. As by feudalism all the people in Avalon were also under the over-lord—the English King—under the Maryland charter they were not, save as specially declared to be so. Hence the clause." That the author should be hazy in his ideas of feudal tenures is a small matter; but what is surprising is the fact that the difference on which he founds these singular notions does not exist. The whole tenth clause of the Avalon charter is almost word for word identical with the corresponding clause of the Maryland charter, and in particular provides that all settlers there (in Avalon) and their descendants "shall be denizens and lieges of us, our heirs, and successors." It would seem indeed that the author has the unsafe habit of citing authorities without consulting them, for he tells us that the charter of Avalon made Calvert more absolute than the King, empowering him to rule "without a parliament or even a council of state," when the charter expressly provides for both.

The notion that Thomas Cornwaleys was a Protestant, Dr. Smith has taken from Neill. The letter of Cornwaleys to Baltimore (Calvert Papers, i., 169) settles that question. The story is too long to discuss here, but Cornwaleys is protesting against what he thinks harsh treatment of the Jesuits in holding them liable for public taxes and services, amenable to the civil law, etc. In this letter Cornwaleys calls himself "a real Catholick," and deprecates ingratitude to that church, "which is the only true guide to all eternal happiness." He then goes on to say that persons better qualified than himself will place the matter more clearly before his lordship; and, in fact, Copley (who seems to have been a lay member of the order, and not a married priest, as Dr. Smith thinks) writes more explicitly by the same ship, detailing the grievances that Cornwaleys hints at. Any one who can believe that Cornwaleys, writing a most earnest, friendly, and respectful appeal to his chief, would gratuitously insult him at the same time by implying that he was no real Catholic, and telling him that his church was no true guide to eternal happiness, must have some power of drawing conclusions that is denied to the present writer.

An instructive example of our author's mode of reasoning may be seen on page 133. In March, 1639 (N. S.), an "act for Church Liberties" was passed, which, he thinks, contained provisions dangerous to the Protestants, and that it was these perils which called forth Cornwaleys's remonstrance. But here he is confronted by the fact that Cornwaleys's letter was written in April, 1638, nearly a year before. This difficulty he gets over by *assuming* that, at the previous session, some act of a similar character had been passed, and goes on to reason from that assumption. And yet he had before him the journal of that session, with a list of all bills proposed or passed, in which nothing of the kind is mentioned.

On page 302 he tells us that at Ingle's invasion Baltimore lost all hope, and wrote to his brother bidding him "gather together the wreck of his private property, and then abandon his ill-starred enterprise." After the previous instances of this author's imaginative powers, our readers will not be surprised to learn that Baltimore did nothing of the sort. What he did was to send out a power of attorney to his brother and to Secretary Lewger to collect his rents and other debts due him; but it contains no word about abandoning the province.

Dr. Smith is fond of making assertions on the authority of the Rev. E. D. Neill, in whose veracity he appears to place entire confidence. Thus he tells us, on that reverend gentleman's authority, that in the Assembly of 1650 it was proposed to make the Toleration Act "a permanent feature of the Maryland Constitution" (whatever that may mean), and four Roman Catholic members voted against it "because it was too tolerant." Those who have undertaken to verify Neill's statements will feel no surprise when told that nothing of the sort is to be found in the records. One member, it is true, scrupled at taking the regular oath as a Burgess (in which there is no mention of any toleration act), and was therefore not allowed to take his seat.

Again, on p. 181, our author has a note: "On April 4, 1638, the Commissioners of Plantations reported the right and title to the Isle of Kent to be absolutely with him [Claiborne]," and refers to Neill's 'Founders of Maryland,' p. 55. Neill's words are: "While the Maryland Assembly was confiscating his estate, Clayborne was not idle in London, and on the 4th of April, 1638, the Commissioners of Plantations reported the right and title to the Isle of Kent to be absolutely with him." It is true that Neill quotes this from another writer, but he quotes it as fact, while he had the State Papers before him in which we have the full record of this session of April 4. After premising that Claiborne and Baltimore had appeared before them, and that Claiborne's commission, when produced, was found to be "only a license under the signet of Scotland to trade with the Indians," the Commissioners add: "Which commission their lordships declared did not extend nor give any warrant to the said Clayborne nor any other, nor had they any right or title thereby to the said Isle of Kent." And finally they resolve and declare "the right and title to the Isle of Kent and other places to be absolutely belonging to the Lord Baltimore."

With the main thesis of this book—that neither the Proprietary nor the Catholics are entitled to any credit for religious toleration in Maryland, and that the famous Act of 1649 was really "a most disgraceful piece of intolerance"—we are not concerned. Our object is simply to protest against history being written in the manner of which we have given a few examples. At the same time we would commend to the author's consideration the wise admonition of a great divine of his own church, "not to be too peremptory herein, and build standing structures of bold assertions on so uncertain a foundation; but rather, with the Rechabites, live in tents of conjectures, which, on better reason, he may easily alter and remove."

Mediæval Music: An Historical Sketch. By Robert Charles Hope. Second edition, revised. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. viii, 170.

This is partly a professed compilation; partly, no doubt, the result of independent study; but we have failed to discover whether even those chapters where the author seems most at home represent any considerable amount of original research. He has a habit of verbally quoting some recent authority, like Hawkins's 'History of Music,' Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' etc., for what, if anything, should be his own contribution to our knowledge. Furthermore, where he has used original sources, he often either merely asserts that Alcuin, or Bede, or St. Augustine says this or that, or else he gives the passage in somebody's translation—possibly his own, if one could but know—without any reference which would enable us to verify the citation and collate the version with the original. This is not quite fair. Modern critics have justly vindicated our right to every aid which an author can give us in the examination of facts alleged in argument. Purposely to deprive the reader of this right would be unpardonable; to do so even by mere negligence is still a serious fault in a book which professes to teach the adult reader. And this is nothing if not such a book; for, from the literary point of view, it is mere chaos—a jumble of memoranda, some of them incredibly crude in form. In many cases the beginning of a chapter gives the impression of being written like any other book, but, after a page or two, the author suddenly drops into mere jottings like this (p. 9): "The Bruce harp with twenty-one strings being finely shaped and excellently painted," which is a sentence absolutely without syntax. If such examples did not necessarily take up more room than we can spare, we could easily multiply them.

So far as the author is a compiler, he professes to follow the best authorities; but when we find him adopting the heresy that the Greek modes differed only in pitch, and preferring the authority of Mr. D. B. Monro to that of Gevaert, Jahn, Westphal, and, we had almost added, Common Sense, we cannot greatly trust his judgment as to what authorities are best. Our distrust is enhanced when we see that on such a vexed subject he gives no hint that any question exists. Who can tell how many other important questions are ignored in the same misleading way? We would not speak over severely of a habit too common with a certain class of English antiquarians, but the day of the *ipse dixit* is happily past. It is time that not writers only, but all readers, should understand this elementary truth.

There is much more that the reader will complain of. Although this is a second edition, "thoroughly revised," he will find that Mr. Hope has not corrected the most obvious mistakes, even in matters of mere grammar. We meet with such sentences as this (p. 83): "The Tables of Alypius, a native of Alexander [*sic*], . . . *is* printed in 'Meibomius Antiquæ Musicæ,' 1652." On p. 13, "The historical period of Greek Music commences with the establishment of the Olympian . . . games, *and was of the simplest kind*," etc. But far more serious are the mistakes we discover in essentials. On p. 46 the Ven. Bede is said to be a contemporary of Isidore of Seville; and this in the face of the dates given by the author himself, from which it appears that Isidore died in 636 and Bede was born in 672. On p. 41 we find "St. Augustine c. 597" (meaning the date of his birth, we suppose), and the footnote shows that Mr. Hope refers to

the author of the 'Confessions.' He simply confounds him with Augustine, first Archbishop of Canterbury. He is careless even in musical matters, where we might expect extreme carefulness. Thus, p. 101, we read that in triaphony the "organum," or added melody, "was doubled in the octave above, being both a fifth below and a fifth above the canto *firmo* [*sic*]." Every tyro in music knows that this would separate the added melodies, not by an octave, but by a ninth, which is a discord. On p. 112 we find the startling proposition that "when the lesser contains the greater, the above terms," *i. e.*, the names for the quantitative ratio of two notes, prefix "the word Sub-." What the author means to say is that, when proportions like $\frac{3}{2}$, for example, are regarded inversely, the smaller number being taken as the numerator, the names are thus modified; but who would guess it from his language?

Owing to such carelessness on the author's part, we cannot feel sure, as to many other errors, whether they should be laid to him or to the proof-reader. We have seldom seen a book so full of misprints as this second edition "thoroughly revised." In a single piece of Greek, p. 23, we find seventeen mistakes in twenty-seven words. On p. i., "Harmonic and Monodic" is printed "Homonic and Monadic"; on p. vi., "Mongal" stands for Mongol"; p. 9, "Diodorus, Siculus and Athanæus" for "Diodorus Siculus and Athenæus"; p. 13, "Pythagorus" for "Pythagoras"; p. 38, "Cæsara" for "Cæsarea"; p. 39, "St. Marcelona" for "St. Marcellina" (sister of St. Ambrose); p. 39, note, "Vales in Socrates" for "Vales. (*i. e.*, Valesius) in Socratem"; p. 83, "the 11th c." for "the 2d century." Elsewhere we have the bilingual combination, "San Isidore" for "St. Isidore," "San Isidro," or "Sant' Isidoro." On p. 54, "Council of Quierci" means, probably, the Council of Quierzy, by confusion, perhaps, with the town of Quercy, innocent, we believe, of any council. On p. 56, "Honorious" is for "Honorius"; p. 90, "Apezzio" for Arezzo; p. 100, "de Devina Natura" for "de Divina Natura"; p. 104, "Punctus, Contra-punctum," which is nonsense, for "Punctus contra punctum," or, in better Latin, "punctum contra punctum." We omit several other serious mistakes which could not be explained briefly; but we must mention the amusing statement on p. 51, that Charles the Great "posted to Milan, and, seizing *all* the chant and hymn-books containing the Milanese song, *made bonfires of them* in the middle of the city. *He also carried many with him across the Alps*," etc.

In spite of all these faults and all this unaccountable carelessness, of which we have omitted as many instances as we have given, there are some chapters which will interest musical readers. We would especially mention chapter v., in which Mr. Hope discusses Pope Gregory I.'s claim as the compiler of the Gregorian Antiphonary, the chapter on Measurable Music, a very good one on mediæval notation, the one on the introduction of the organ, and the chapter in which the claims of Guido d'Arezzo are examined. But, even in these, the reader will do well not to accept any historical statement without express reference to original sources, and to remember that, even when passages are cited, it is almost always in translations which may be, like one from St. Augustine on p. 41, of questionable accuracy.

Two Years in Palestine and Syria. By Margaret Thomas. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

One wonders, sometimes, how it is possible for all the books that are written about Palestine to find a sale. That so many are published is, perhaps, the best evidence of the intense interest which people feel in everything pertaining to the Holy Land. The present work is written from the artistic standpoint, and does not lay claim to any special Biblical or archæological knowledge. This largely disarms criticism when we are told, for example, that "the Jews brought a taste for tombs, excavated in the natural rock, from Egypt" (p. 117); but it does not pardon such numerous inaccuracies as appear throughout the book, like "Terah" for "Torah" (p. 45); "Adonai" for Jehovah or Yahweh as the unutterable sacred name of God (p. 46); "Ecco Homo" for "Ecce Homo" (p. 130); the statements that our word "hell" is derived from "gehenna" (p. 147)—that the Jordan flows from the north end of the Lake of Gennesaret (p. 201)—that the Dead Sea is "two thousand six hundred and three feet below the level of the Mediterranean" (p. 203)—that the rocks of the Judæan wilderness are lava (p. 228), etc.

The book is scrappy and somewhat inconsequent. Apparently, the two years referred to in the title were spent in Jerusalem. The author is familiar with that city, and two-thirds of the book is a description of Jerusalem, its inhabitants, its ceremonies, and the most notable sights within and about it, as far south as Hebron and as far east as the Jordan. The last third of the book is the story of a hasty trip from Jerusalem northward by the ordinary route to Damascus, from Damascus to Baalbek and Beirut, and back to Jerusalem by the coast. There is, therefore, practically nothing of Syria outside of Palestine, and in so far the title is misleading.

The charm of the book, and it has very distinctly a charm of its own, lies, not in the information which it imparts with regard to history or topography or the like (for, as already stated, it does not profess to do that), but in the artistic appreciation of the scenery and the people. The descriptions are often charming. The author saw everything of consequence at and about Jerusalem, including all the great religious ceremonies and functions. More than that, she saw what very few people do see, wonderful sunsets, moonlit mountains and valleys, plains decked with flowers, and all the picturesque effects of a most picturesque country.

At times, however, the artistic element leads her astray. The Syrians are picturesque and the Jews are distinctly unpicturesque. Hence, apparently, her conclusions with reference to the two. The Syrians "are a handsome, strong, clean, and industrious race—upright and manly, well dressed and cared for, they tread their native land as if it belonged to them; while the mean and shifty Jews, idle and cunning, creep about in the streets of Judea as if they apologized for their existence, and dare scarcely call their gabardines their own" (p. 312). She evidently met with much bigotry and superstition among the Jews in Jerusalem, but we should like to know in what language she had "a long conversation with a Jew as to his religious ideas, a subject about which little seems known" (p. 36), and who and what that Jew was. "Jews, he said, believed in transmigration. The soul of every Jew goes to hell for eleven months. Women have souls, but infinitely inferior to those possessed by men," etc., etc.

The book is beautifully illustrated with colored reproductions of paintings by the author, and the text is also illuminated by occasional facile verses from her pen. The print is large and broadly spaced, and the paper is soft to the eye. It is an attractive volume outwardly, and, in spite of its scrappiness and inconsequence and generally unscientific character, it is an agreeable book to read, and gives one a picture of the Holy Land and its inhabitants from a point of view not commonly presented. If not a work of permanent value, it nevertheless well repays the perusal of any who are interested either in Bible lands or in beautiful scenery.

Le Mécanisme de la vie moderne. IIIme Série. Par le Vicomte G. d'Avenel. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1900. 18mo, pp. 340.

If the first two volumes of this work are as good as the third, which we venture to doubt, it is well worth binding and putting on one's shelves. This volume treats of the house, of alcohol and *liqueurs*, of heating, and of horse-races. It tells all about these things as they exist to-day in Paris. For example, under the head of the house, it fully informs us concerning the different building-stones, where they come from, what precisely each kind is used for, what various defects may lessen their values, how they are tested, how cellars are dug, how long it takes a man to get out a cubic metre of earth of different kinds, how fast the wheelbarrows move, what the volume of the earth is after it is taken out, how long it takes to shovel it into a cart, where the rubbish is carried, how the foundations are constructed; all the different trades of workers in stone, plaster, and wood; the processes of stone-cutting; the laying of stones, plaster, mortar, cement, "ciment armé"; how the workmen live, how they spend their money, what they lay up, how they bathe, how often they change their sheets; contractors, their methods, their overseers, their profits, the legal requirements relative to different kinds of walls, the different styles of plastering and its substitutes, the different trades of carpenters; roofs of tiles, slate, "zinc blanc"; the locks and hardware, the marbles, paint, wall-paper, window-glass, mirrors, bow-windows, elevators, bath-rooms, closets, the dissection of the space into rooms, and so forth, with surprising accuracy. The only errors we have detected are quite unimportant. In short, the general reader will rise from the perusal knowing infinitely more about the way things are done in Paris than in New York. At the same time he will be supplied with a classified treasury of French terms relative to the arts treated of, where they can be readily recovered when they are needed for use in writing French.

Nor must it be supposed that the account is dry and tedious, for it is anything but that. As the author proceeds, he everywhere compares the present state of the arts of life with those of previous centuries in a way that evinces not only industrious

study but real research. The whole is enlivened by many anecdotes and bits of history that are at once instructive, curious, and amusing. The French art of making a book was never more consummate. It is a mass of facts and statistics dressed up to make a charming "article-Paris." The author is of the opinion that it was not during the dark ages that dirt flourished most richly, but in *le grand siècle* of Louis XIV. We confess we can hardly believe he is right about this. However, he argues that, even in the later Middle Ages, the innumerable bagnios still served their original purpose, while the palace of Versailles had 274 *chaises percées* and not a bath-tub. He tells how an aged lady under the Restoration, visiting a château impregnated with bad smells, which had already at that date become rare, but which in her youth were usual in the best houses, remarked, "Voilà une odeur qui me rappelle un bien beau temps et de bien doux souvenirs!"

Chapter xi., about the house, is so much the best that we suspect the earlier volumes are not comparable to the third. Chapter xii., on alcohol and liqueurs, is, however, also very entertaining and full of information, and chapter xiv., concerning horse-races, will interest a great many readers; for, as M. d'Avenel remarks, of all topics that supply fuel to fashionable conversation, this is the only one about which one can discourse at length without danger of being deemed either a muff or a pedant.

The Future of the American Negro. By Booker T. Washington. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1899.

"A single school-house," Mr. Washington tells us, "built this year in a town near Boston to shelter about three hundred pupils, cost more for building alone than is spent yearly for the education, including buildings, apparatus, teachers, for the whole colored school population of Alabama." In the State of Georgia, according to a recent report of the Commissioner of Education, there were 200,000 children who had entered no school during the current year, and 100,000 who were at school but a few days. In that State the average number of school-houses, outside of towns, was sixty to a county, and their aggregate value was less than two thousand dollars. In the Gulf States not more than one black man in twenty owns the land he cultivates. It is believed that the coming census will show a negro population of ten millions; and the future of these poor and ignorant masses well deserves the anxious consideration of the country. It concerns more closely the people of the Southern States, but it will affect the welfare of the whole Union.

What that future shall be, Mr. Washington earnestly contends, will be determined by the degree of education in the industrial arts which the negroes may receive. The ordinary curriculum of the public schools of the North he holds altogether unfitted for the Southern negroes. They have not reached such a stage of development as to enable them to assimilate abstract learning. On the other hand, they are capable of proficiency in dealing with the concrete. Under slavery they were trained by their masters to be masons and carpenters and blacksmiths. Under freedom this training ceased, and the skilled workmen left no successors. The negroes have been the prey of politicians and of usurers. Without capital, and without the capacity to use it, they have enslaved themselves to those who would advance them money, and all that they earn, beyond the bare necessaries of life, goes to their creditors. They need to be taught to desire to better their condition, to deny themselves present gratifications for the sake of the future, and to make use of modern knowledge and methods in agriculture and the mechanic arts. The institution with which Mr. Washington is connected furnishes the desired teaching, and its pupils become independent and prosperous citizens. The higher walks of life are not open to them; but in the ordinary pursuits they are capable of succeeding and of bringing to their race knowledge of the conditions of success.

The Tuskegee Institute is, happily, too well known to require any description here. It may be said to prove Mr. Washington's case, and the simple and touching plea which this book sets forth ought to bring rich results. A greater return in the promotion of human welfare than has been obtained by a very moderate expenditure at Tuskegee is scarcely conceivable. The negroes are, indeed, terribly handicapped; but a race that can produce men having the devotion and the administrative capacity of the author of this book has not a hopeless future. Yet the rapidity of its progress must depend largely on the generosity of the race which so long thought to profit by its degradation.

The American in Holland: Sentimental Rambles in the Eleven Provinces of the Netherlands. By William Elliot Griffis, L.H.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899. Pp. viii+403.

The sentimental journeys of which Dr. Griffis's latest book is a record, number no less than five made at various times to the home-land of the Dutchman. The author's pilgrimages are preëminently historical. His eyes, to be sure, are never closed to the picturesque, which is so much in evidence in every part of Holland, or to what is characteristic in the life of the people, but his primrose (here a red Dutch tulip) is inevitably to him something "more" in the light of its historical background, and particularly as this light reflects upon America.

It is strange that nobody has thought of doing this before. It is true that almost every book on Holland contains, perforce, this or that reference to historical places and events connecting early conditions in America with what, to an extent that we have only just begun to realize, was a mother country. Dr. Griffis's book, however, does this systematically, and, though we may have known as facts the separate details, by their combination we are given the impression of a picture that as a whole we have never before seen.

The moving sentiment, then, in the author's mind is one of piety towards our own beginnings, and his pilgrimages are in very many instances to the places of their origin. He takes us to Haarlem, to Bloemendaal, and to Breukelen, whose namesakes have carried their old names without essential change into the maze of a Greater New New York. In old Amsterdam we are shown the Pilgrim's quarters and the Brownists' alley. At Beverwijk we are reminded of the original Dutch name of Albany on the Hudson. At Franeker and Leeuwarden, in Friesland, we are told how, at a later time, the streets resounded with patriotic songs celebrating American victory, when Paul Jones appeared with his prize, the *Serapis*, in the Texel and the Zuider Zee.

It is astonishing how many and how intimate are these points of contact that appear in the author's peregrinations; and though this is, after all, but a phase of the book, to our mind it is altogether its most valuable part. Holland, in spite of some still comparatively unknown nooks and corners, is a well-travelled land, and it is in the main difficult to retell a story that has so often been told already. There is much in the book, nevertheless, even along beaten tracks, that is both new and suggestive. Particularly timely are the last chapters, vividly describing the recent inauguration of Queen Wilhelmina, of which the author had the great good fortune to be an eye-witness.

The *history* of the book is much surer than its linguistics. In the description of Middelburg, for instance, the statement is made, apropos of the charter granted to the city in 1253 by William of Holland, which the author says is the oldest deed in the Dutch language, that "the Dutch language in literature is fully as old as that of England, for here is a document which is not in Anglo-Saxon or in Latin, but in pure Dutch," as if this document of 1253 could prove anything of the kind. Bearing also upon the history of the English language is the statement, not generally recognized by the books, that "It is from Old Frisian 'wyf' that our word 'wife' comes." In this connection the author himself speaks of "reveries and wool-gathering among the brambly paths of linguistics." Many of the etymologies, like that, for instance, of "William," or "gild-helm," on p. 123, are more daring than those of Archbishop Trench of blessed memory in his most imaginative moments; but a climax of statement is reached on p. 252, where the author says: "Dutch is the vernacular in four of the Belgian provinces, and the burgomaster of Antwerp speaks Platt-Deutsch—the language of Erasmus, Vondel, Rembrant [*sic*], Bilderdijk, Boerhave, and Kuenen." It may be, of course, that the burgomaster of Antwerp has learned Platt-Deutsch as a foreign language, and thus is able to speak it, but to expatriate the rest by depriving them ruthlessly of their mother Dutch is surely not justified by the facts of the case; and the thought especially of Vondel's stately periods in Platt-Deutsch is not at all an edifying one. Linguistic, again, is the slip of the pen which calls the district about Arnhem, in Gelderland, "the Swiss Netherlands," when the Dutch themselves speak of it somewhat jocosely as "the Dutch Switzerland." This latter reminds us of a single corrigendum in a book published not many years ago: "For pithless stem read stemless pith." Of a somewhat different kind is the lapse involved in putting the Anna Paulowna street at The Hague between De Ruyter and Tromp, "like Una among the lions." If we do not stop this sort of thing—of attributing to American orators well-known lines of Milton, and of surrounding Una with lions when Spenser gave her but one—we shall ultimately be accused of not knowing our classics.

As a whole, the book is thoroughly good, and of the sort, moreover, be it said, which is above treaties and diplomatic agreements

between nations, in that it contributes, in no small degree, to the infinitely firmer friendship born of a mutual intelligibility. It is, finally, well illustrated from photographs, and contains a map of the eleven provinces; and there is an index of objects, persons, and places.

L'Inquiet. Par Samuel Cornut. Paris: Perrin & Co. 1900.

M. Samuel Cornut is a young French writer already for some years distinguished for novels which have a stamp of their own, and have awakened in literary circles and among a portion of the public a most sympathetic echo. He was born in French Switzerland, and brought up in the honest and serious-minded little Protestant community of the Canton of Vaud, amidst the beautiful scenery of that picturesque corner of the Alps. To this origin may be ascribed the special character of his books, which reveal both a moralist of high purpose and a poet of exuberant imagination. He has a liking for the study of *cas de conscience*, which he treats with the psychological keenness and the scrupulous severity of a theologian. Moreover, his native land has endowed him with a notable gift for description, which is seen at its very best in his very odd 'Regards vers la Montagne,' a distinctly Swiss book, and in 'Chair et Marbre,' a Parisian novel which contains vivid and poetical pictures of the suburbs of Paris as well as of the Mediterranean coast.

'L'Inquiet' is mostly a psychological and moral study. The hero is a young literary man struggling in the midst of the Bohemian life of the Latin Quartier for position and a living. There is in it not much of the merriness and jollity that Bohemian life usually suggests, and 'L'Inquiet' reminds us of 'Trilby' only by contrast. M. Cornut being of a rather serious bent of mind, and his hero being a most restless fellow, he is inclined to describe to us rather the dreary and desperate side of that life; and his Paris students, boarding-houses, and journalists are, if truly, not always cheerfully, portrayed. But, besides its merits of style, its directness, and its fervid eloquence, its graphic relation, too, of certain interesting events in contemporary history, 'L'Inquiet' commends itself to the reader by an earnestness of purpose and a generosity of inspiration which are contagious and stimulating, and make of it a remarkably humane, feeling, and wholesome novel.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, F. The Essays: Colours of Good and Evil. Advancement of Learning. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bien, Jos. R. Atlas of the State of Pennsylvania. Julius Bien & Co.
Cambridge, A. W. P. Select Fragments of the Greek Comic Poets. Henry Frowde. $1.25.
Candee, Helen C. How Women May Earn a Living. Macmillan. $1.
Davis, Prof. A. E. The Refraction of the Eye, Including a Treatise on Ophthalmometry. Macmillan. $3.
Gestefeld, Ursula N. Reincarnation or Immortality. The Alliance Pub. Co. $1.
Goodrich, A. J. Theory of Interpretation Applied to Artistic Musical Performance. Philadelphia: Th. Presser. $2.
Gray, M. The World's Mercy. Appletons.
Harrison, F. Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill and other Literary Estimates. Macmillan. $2.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Boston: Ginn & Co. Vol. X. $1.50.
Hunt, W. The English Church from its Foundation to the Norman Conquest. Macmillan. $1.50.
Jowett, Prof. B. Thucydides Translated into English. New ed. Henry Frowde. Vols. I. and II.
Judson, H. P., and Bender, Ida C. Graded Literature Readers. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 40c.
Keeler, C. A. Bird Notes Afield. San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard. $1.50.
Landolt, Prof. H. Optical Activity and Chemical Composition. Whittaker & Co. $1.
Lazarus, Josephine. Madame Dreyfus. Brentanos. 50c.
Letters of the Lady —— Travels into Spain. London: Samuel Crouch; New York: Putnams. $1.50.
Lidgey, C. A. Wagner. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Litchfield, F. Pottery and Porcelain; A Guide to Collectors. Truslove, Hanson & Comba. $6.
Macaulay, G. C. The Works of John Gower. Henry Frowde. $4.
Mackay, T. History of the English Poor Law. Putnams. Vol. III.
MacPherson, Dr. J. Mental Affections: An Introduction to the Study of Insanity. Macmillan. $4.
Maguire, T. M. Outlines of Military Geography. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
McIwraith, J. N. Canada: History for Young Readers. Appletons. 60c.
McKim, W. D. Heredity and Human Progress. Putnams. $1.50.
Memorial of St. Mark's Church in the Bowery. Thomas Whittaker. $2.50.
Miles, E. H. Muscle, Brain, and Diet. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Milton, J. Areopagitica. Cassells. 10c.
Moeller, Dr. W. History of the Christian Church. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. 3. $3.75.
Myers, G. L. Aboard "The American Duchess." Putnams. $1.
Olga Nethersole as Sapho. R. H. Russell.
Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Vol. IV. Glass-coach—Graded. Henry Frowde. $1.25.
Page, Lillian L. Forget-Me-Nots. The Whitaker & Ray Co.
Parker, Prof. T. J., and Haswell, Prof. W. A. A Manual of Zoölogy. Macmillan. $1.60.
Perowne, Rev. T. T. The Proverbs. Macmillan. 75c.
Peyre, R. Répertoire Chronologique de l'Histoire Universelle des Beaux-Arts. Paris: Henri Laurens.
Prout, Prof. E. The Orchestra. Vol. I. Technique of the Instruments; Vol. 2, Orchestral Combination. London: Augener & Co.; New York: E. Schuberth. $4.
Purrington, W. A. Christian Science. New York: E. B. Treat & Co. $1.
Ribot, A. La Réforme de l'Enseignement Secondaire. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 f. 50.
Seccombe, T. The Age of Johnson. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Shelden, W. L. An Ethical Sunday-School. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Sheridan, Richard Brinsley. Plays. Macmillan. $1.50.
Sidney, Sir P. A Defence of Poesie. Cassells. 10c.
Sieveking, A. F. Gardens Ancient and Modern. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Smith, Goldwin. Shakespeare: The Man. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Stebbing, W. Sir Walter Ralegh. New ed. Henry Frowde. $1.75.
Stockton, Frank R. Novels and Stories. Uniform ed. Scribners. Vols. V. and VI.
The Franco-German War. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $7.
Thurston, H. W. Economics and Industrial History for Secondary Schools. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 8, 1900.

The Week.

The firm of Destiny & Duty has been dissolved, through the retirement of the junior partner. This firm was organized at the White House, on the outbreak of the Spanish war in 1898, by the McKinley-Hanna Syndicate, with the President as silent partner. Duty was taken in at the latter's suggestion, on account of its high standing with the religious public, although Hanna always insisted that there was no need of "pandering to the better element." The firm did a large and lucrative business from the start, the orders from spread-eagle orators often taxing the full capacity of its works. The dissolution is due to the officiousness of the junior partner, through whose forwardness the President was induced to insert the following passage in his message to Congress last December:

"Our plain Duty is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets."

This disgusted a large number of Republican Senators and Representatives so much that they threatened not only to withdraw their own patronage, but also to institute a boycott against the firm among their constituents unless Duty should be got out of the firm at once. Through the kind offices of Mark Hanna, the withdrawal has been amicably arranged. The terms of settlement are private, but it is known that business will be carried on at the White House as before. It is also given out that the sole authority to wave the Flag, and the copyright upon Loyalty, which constituted the original stock in trade of the firm, are retained by Destiny.

The text of the tariff bill for Porto Rico agreed upon by the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee is much worse than any previous outgiving had made it, since it extends to that island our tariff duties as regards all imports from foreign countries, but does not allow free trade with us. It hands over the inhabitants of Porto Rico to the tender mercies of our tariff-protected Trusts, and then imposes a protective tariff on their exports to the United States. The island is thus put at a disadvantage in trade as compared with Jamaica and all the other West Indies. Jamaica, for example, can buy her manufactured goods from the whole world without any tariff duties whatever, if she chooses, but Porto Rico can buy only after paying Dingley rates. The money actually collected in this way is to be used in defraying the cost of governing the islands; but in cases where the Dingley rates are so high that the goods cannot be imported from Europe, but must be obtained from the United States, the amount collected at the custom-houses will be the smallest part of the tax paid by the consumer. The larger part will be pocketed by the protected classes in the United States, who produce the goods. Thus the poverty-stricken islander will become the victim of a foreign monopoly, and will not have the benefit of the American market. We wonder what the Home Market Club of Boston will think of this treatment. It is exactly what American colonies rebelled against when they threw the tea into Boston harbor. It is taxation without representation. It is the colonial system of the eighteenth century. It makes a laughing-stock of our advocacy of the open door. It is a cool adoption of Imperialism of the Old World type, much worse than that of England, since England scorns to tax her colonies by means of tariff duties or trade monopolies. It seems impossible that such a bill can pass Congress in this age of the world.

The results of the municipal election at San Juan, in Porto Rico, which has just taken place, are very instructive on the question of the political capacity of the people of that island. Under the election laws, it seems, the minority party is entitled to one-third representation in the City Council, which is now composed of ten Republicans and five Federalists. The latter, it is reported, tricked the Republicans in the election by voting on the Republican ticket for inexperienced men, thereby "freezing out" of the Council five of the best Republican candidates. If this does not prove that the Porto Ricans are capable of self-government, according to the standard of our own politicians, what evidence could prove it? With two political parties already formed, having leaders as astute as these Federalists of San Juan, our rulers ought from very sympathy to welcome the Porto Ricans to citizenship. Certainly our fellow-citizens of Kentucky must feel a brotherly yearning toward these people, when they read this item of news:

"On the 24th the Federals were celebrating their victory at Fajardo, when they met a Republican parade. The collision resulted in a riot, in which one man was killed and six were seriously wounded. Fourteen of the town's best citizens are in jail, charged with murder."

The cries of treason which greeted Senator Pettigrew's efforts to have the recently published Aguinaldo statement embodied in the *Congressional Record* on Wednesday week, are all the more remarkable when contrasted with the spirit in which the attacks of the English Opposition in Parliament have been received. There, in what many of us have been pleased to consider a downtrodden monarchy, the right of free criticism and free speech is as clearly recognized as it was in the days when Fox and Burke expressed their indignation at the policy of subduing the American colonies by force. Just as their utterances inflamed the Americans to a more vigorous resistance to the redcoats, so must the recent English criticisms of the cabinet and its poli cy encourage the Boers to fresh efforts against the British armies. Yet there is no effort to suppress any one by demagogic cries of treason or by such utterances as marked the discussion in the Senate. Indeed, there could be no more open confession of the weakness of the American cause in the Philippines than the whole debate furnished, and particularly Senator Hawley's statement that his objection to the publication of the document in the Senate's records was that it might "encourage desertions and discourage enlistments" if it found its way into the hands of our soldiers.

The folly of the Republican opposition must be plain when one considers that the Aguinaldo statement has been published by the Springfield (Mass.) *Republican*, not only in its regular issue a few days ago, but also as a broadside, and is now being widely circulated by the Anti-Imperialist League. Beside this circulation, that which would be given by the *Congressional Record* is small indeed. Aguinaldo's statement professes to be the "Authentic Review of the Philippine Revolution," and to have been issued from Tarlak, Philippine Islands, September 23, 1899. It is one of the many documents bearing upon the origin of the present warfare in the islands which the historian of this period must take into account when the responsibility shall be apportioned. Its most important feature is the claim that American officials, and particularly Admiral Dewey, made promises of independence to the Filipinos, and that the Admiral treated Aguinaldo as an ally, received him with military honors, and saluted the Filipino flag. All these allegations are pronounced by the Admiral "absolutely false," except that he did "make use of him [Aguinaldo] and the soldiers to assist me in my operations against the Spaniards." Much more important than the disputed question as to how far American officials encouraged the idea of independence in the Filipino mind is the utter lack of tact in the treatment of Aguinaldo and other leaders of the natives, which has been thoroughly established. Gen. Charles A. Whittier, for instance, who was for a

time Collector of Customs at Manila, holds that the present war might have been avoided if Aguinaldo had been treated with decency, and he presents reasons for this belief which seem conclusive.

The speech of Senator Caffery, in opposition to the Philippine policy outlined by Senator Beveridge, was a very reasonable and conservative presentation of the view that the Constitution of the United States protects all persons under its jurisdiction. He cited abundant authorities to show that the annexation of the Philippine Islands conferred citizenship on their inhabitants, and that they must be governed by Congress in accordance with the Constitution, or else that Congress must usurp powers of government. Moreover, he contended, the principle that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed ought to apply in the case of inhabited territory ceded to the United States as a war indemnity. Whenever in such territory there was a government, or even a "germ of nationality," he insisted, the United States would have no right to overthrow it. The usual question was asked Mr. Caffery, "What would you do with the Philippines?"—to which he promptly answered, "Let them go." That, he said, would be better for them, and better for us. Such an answer as this is, of course, treated as irrelevant by the Imperialists; but there is no obstacle to letting go, except their determination to hold on. Destiny, we venture to predict, would not interfere if we were to recognize such governments as the Filipinos can organize, and extend the Monroe Doctrine to protect them.

A condition of great tension had been reached in Kentucky before the crime of murder had been added to the combustible matter collected at Frankfort. A thousand armed men had come there from eastern Kentucky, ostensibly to see that justice was done by the Legislature in its decision on the certificates of election for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor awarded by the State Board of Canvassers to the Republican candidates for those offices. Probably these men from the eastern counties really believed that they had a right to overawe the Legislature, or to besiege it with firearms, if the decision should not be in accord with their notions. They come from a region where the services of courts and sheriffs are commonly dispensed with in the administration of justice. They issued an address, giving their ideas of the fundamental principles of liberty, and constituted themselves a fourth department of the State Government. Being armed with Winchester rifles, they were necessarily stronger, for the moment, than the other three departments. It would be very strange if, in a collection of a thousand men possessed of such ideas, there should not be at least one man prepared to take the entire administration of justice into his own hands. Indeed, that is the Kentucky way of deciding important legal questions. A few years ago an assassin waylaid and shot the Chief Justice of the Court of Appeals dead because the latter had decided a case against him. The murderer was tried two or three times, and finally escaped on grounds of insanity, and was confined for a short time in an asylum. In 1895 Mr. Goebel himself, the victim of the crime of January 30, shot and killed the President of a bank in Covington in a public street of that town, in consequence of a quarrel which had its beginning in a political controversy. Mr. Goebel was acquitted by a jury.

Whatever may have been the infractions of justice and decency contemplated by the Legislature, they could not be righted by the threat of turning the legislators out of their seats, *vi et armis*. We have no doubt that the Legislature was perpetrating a fraud on the electors of Kentucky—a kind of fraud, too, which attacks the foundation of free government. The present controversy grew out of the so-called Goebel law, which aims to keep the Governorship of the State in the hands of the party which controls a majority of the Legislature, *i. e.*, in the control of the Democratic party. The Democrats had all this machinery in their own hands, and supposed that they should win by virtue of their control of the election boards. It turned out, however, that these boards did their duty in an impartial and honorable manner. Although Democratic party interests demanded the seating of Goebel in the Governor's chair, they found that the majority of votes had been cast for Taylor, the Republican candidate, and they accordingly awarded him the certificate of election which he now holds. Under the Constitution of the State, however, it rests with the Legislature to say the last word as regards the election of the Governor and the Lieutenant-Governor. Here was one more chance to upset the popular verdict, and it was the evident intention of the Democrats to avail themselves of it when the bullet of an assassin entered into the proceedings.

Upon the death of Goebel his powers, whether more or less, devolved upon Mr. Beckham. The latter has the same title to the office of Lieutenant-Governor that Goebel had to that of Governor. This is indeed irregular, consisting merely of a paper signed by a majority of the members of the General Assembly of the State. The reason why it is not more regular, however, is, that Gov. Taylor prevented the General Assembly from holding its sessions at the State capitol, and adjourned it to London on the ground of an alleged insurrection in Frankfort. On Saturday, Gov. Taylor declared martial law in Frankfort, suspended the writ of habeas corpus, arrested a man named Walker, who tried to serve upon him (Taylor) a writ issued by the county judge, and held him for trial by court-martial. On Sunday Walker was released from arrest. Neither the arrest nor the release has added anything to the dignity of Gov. Taylor. It has rather given him the character of a man of flighty purposes, as indeed some of his other acts had previously done. The Democrats have behaved with more moderation than was expected, and it looks now as though a way would be found out of the difficulty without a resort to force.

Seven Representatives of the Republican party and as many Democrats have reached a unanimous agreement leading to a truce. It is stipulated that Gov Taylor shall not be impeached or proceeded against for treason, usurpation, or contempt of court. In return for this immunity—which includes those who acted under his orders—he is to abstain from interfering with the action of the Legislature, and it is understood that that body is at liberty to pass an act validating its proceedings in deciding the contested elections. It is not clear whether, in case such an act is passed, the submission which the Republican candidates promise will prevent them from testing their claims in court. That would seem an unnecessary concession. But the most important feature of the treaty of peace is the provision that all parties shall unite in an effort to have the election law so modified as to provide for nonpartisan election boards and to insure free and fair elections. If that result can be brought about, it will go far to compensate the State for the distressing scenes which it has witnessed.

The visit of Bryan to New England, and particularly his experience in Boston last week, have furnished convincing evidence that the old financial issue which dominated in the Presidential campaign of 1896, has lost its interest for the public, and that the question which will engage men's minds in the impending national contest is the new one of Imperialism. The most significant fact is not that the last and the next Democratic candidate has paid little attention to silver, and devoted his speeches in the various New England cities chiefly to the situation in our new possessions and the problems growing out of the course pursued by the McKinley Administration. The important thing is, that his hearers—and he has had great audiences—cared little or nothing for discussion of the currency, but

were deeply interested in everything which Bryan said on the question of Imperialism. For instance, at Montpelier, Vt., on Friday, an audience containing many Republicans and Gold Democrats, as well as Bryanites, listened for nearly two hours with eager attention to a speech which said nothing about "16 to 1," and was devoted almost exclusively to the Philippine question.

The propensity of the French to disregard the affairs of all other nations is occasionally a cause for thankfulness. If the French journalists should happen to discover the proceedings by which the Senate of the United States is now endeavoring to ascertain the methods employed by one of its members in securing his election, we fear that they might retort upon us some of the reproaches which we heaped upon them at the time of the Dreyfus trial. Bribery, did we charge? Very well, what do we say now of the use of money in the Montana Legislature? Is it true, our esteemed contemporaries might ask, that Senator Clark paid $568,000 for votes, tendered $200,000 more, and spent enough in addition to bring the sum up to $1,000,000? Was something said of evidences of corruption among French officers? Perhaps the persons who were so painfully shocked at those revelations, or suspicions, will now disclose their feelings when sixteen citizens of Montana and thirty-eight Senators and Representatives of that State have been charged with giving or receiving bribes, and no proceedings have been taken to punish them if they are guilty, or their accusers if the charges are false. There were dramatic episodes in the trial of Dreyfus. Documents of a startling character were produced; but nothing quite so striking as the $30,000 in notes which are now lying before the Senate; $30,000, in the land of the Almighty Dollar, which no one admits ever belonged to him, and no one now ventures to claim! There were witnesses against Dreyfus who were said to have perjured themselves. But there were none who declared that they sold their votes to one man, and then sold their testimony as to their own corruption to his enemy. There were instances in the Dreyfus case where it seemed that witnesses deviated from the truth for the sake of shielding their superior officers, or with the idea of saving the honor of the army. But in the Clark case we have a witness who coolly admits that he found it necessary "to assume a position of falsehood" in order to attain his virtuous ends, and who defines a lie as "an untruth told to a person who has a right to know the truth"; untruth in a good cause being justified.

Sydney Smith's celebrated description of the tax-ridden British citizen, who was finally committed to the grave "to be taxed no more," would not apply in the city of Philadelphia. Nothing is more common in that community than for a man to keep on paying taxes after he is dead and buried. It is provided by law that a citizen may request that his poll-tax be paid, and the Republican city committee has benevolently complied with this request in the case of 30,000 alleged voters. The Receiver of Taxes admits that many of these voters have ceased to exist, if they ever existed, but he maintains that his duty is confined to erasing such names as are written in one handwriting; preventing reform organizations, meanwhile, from inspecting the lists. One of these organizations lately ascertained that in one ward there were hundreds of these disembodied citizens, whose undying patriotism impelled them to keep on paying their poll-taxes and vicariously casting their votes. Exposures of this kind do not seriously disturb the placidity of the mass of the Philadelphians, but some of them manifest impatience at the appropriation of $25,000 by the municipal government for the benefit of the coming Republican convention. Taxpayers not belonging to the Republican party seem inclined to regard this application of public funds to partisan ends as inexpedient; but it must be said that the Republican politicians have done many things worse than this with impunity.

"A situation full of humiliation, and not free from danger." Such was the frank language in which the British Premier last week described the state of things in the British empire upon the assembling of Parliament. The tone of the speeches for the Government was distinctly apologetic. The Duke of Somerset, who moved the address in reply to the Queen's speech in the House of Lords, urged the necessity for reform in the military administration, and said that "hitherto the army seemed to have existed for the benefit of the War Office, and in future the War Office must exist for the benefit of the army." The Premier in turn admitted the deficiencies of the existing system, remarking that "the Treasury had acquired a power which was not to the public benefit," Lord Salisbury also conceded that the Government had lacked the information which it ought to have had as to the importation of arms into the Transvaal and the other preparations of the Boers for war. His only excuse was that other nations spend enormous sums in getting such facts about possible enemies, even the Transvaal Government using £800,000 in a single year, as he had heard on high diplomatic authority, while England has allowed only "small sums" for such purposes, which rendered it impossible for the cabinet to have omniscience. Altogether it was with a most deprecatory air that the Government leaders faced the Opposition.

The attitude of the Opposition showed that the Jingo theory of "standing by the flag" without a murmur of criticism, which the McKinley Administration has tried so hard to enforce in the United States, will not be accepted in Great Britain. Lord Rosebery, believer in advanced imperialism as he has seemed of late years, said frankly that the Premier "made it difficult for the man in the street to support his policy," and insisted that it was "necessary to know what the Government is going to do." In this country the McKinley syndicate have urged that the people ought to be willing to trust everything to the wisdom of the President. In Great Britain the cabinet would like to have the people leave everything to her Majesty's Government. But Lord Rosebery does not hesitate to say that "the country will have to be inspired by a loftier tone and truer patriotism than that shown by the Prime Minister." It is already evident at Washington that the attempt to prevent discussion and criticism, on the ground that they are unpatriotic, will prove equally futile.

At a recent meeting of the Vice-Regal Council of India, it was announced that the expenditure on account of the famine was estimated at between thirty and forty million rupees for the period up to the end of March. Twenty-two million persons were then suffering in British territory, it was computed, and twenty-seven million in the native states. The Viceroy stated that the famine-stricken area had expanded to a degree surpassing the worst fears, and that the country was now face to face with a scarcity of cattle, water, and food terrible in character and intensity. Three and a quarter millions of people were then in receipt of relief, and the Government would do what it could, but, the Viceroy added, ominously: "In 1897, hundreds of thousands of pounds were contributed by England, and the world shared in our sorrow, but now we have to struggle alone, for the whole thoughts of England and of every Englishman in the world are centred in South Africa." A small part of the money already spent on an unnecessary war, and a very small part of what will be spent, would save hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions, of human beings from the miseries of famine. Probably a thousand Hindus could be kept alive for what it costs to kill one Boer. Possibly the starving people of Porto Rico may feel that it would be more humane on our part to divert to their relief a portion of the funds employed in hunting down the Filipinos. But in all wars, the check to public benevolence is one of the elements of "hellishness."

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL.

The reports that England has consented to modify the Clayton-Bulwer treaty turn out to be correct. The problem which Mr. Blaine rushed at in his eager, blundering way, with those ludicrous arguments and that gross garbling which Lord Granville so cruelly exposed, Secretary Hay appears to have solved satisfactorily. It is one diplomatic triumph more to be added to his achievement in securing the open door in China.

And it is not merely a diplomatic triumph; it is a victory of good sense and civilization. It is a negotiation in which both parties to it see their ideas prevail. The great aim of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, so far as it related to an Isthmian canal, looked to the neutralization and perfect freedom of any waterway that might be cut. Secretary Hay now undertakes to guarantee that this chief end of the treaty shall be safeguarded. The canal is to be as open as the high seas to the commerce of the world. If built under "the exclusive control and management" of the United States, it is yet to favor our ships no more than those of any other nation. In peace or war, merchantmen or battleships are to come and go as freely as through the Suez Canal. No military advantage is to accrue to us by possession of the canal or its termini. We even undertake not to fortify its approaches. All is to be open and equal to all. This represents such a distinct and enlightened advance over what American diplomacy has hitherto contended for that Mr. Hay is to be warmly congratulated upon his success.

We could wish, however, that he were well out of the woods with his new treaty, or convention. That it will meet with bitter and unreasoning opposition is clear. All the consistent foes of England in this country—and they are many and vociferous—will soon begin to rage after their manner. They would attack any agreement with Great Britain, even if it gave us everything we asked for. The only way they can get on happily with England is always to be disagreeing with her. And they will be sure to suspect the existence of some hidden *quid pro quo*. Suppose they find that Secretary Hay has made a slight concession in the matter of the Alaskan boundary; will they not tear him to pieces? If all else fails, they will pounce upon the very concession he has made in respect of the military control of the canal. To waive that will be a deadly sin in their eyes. Is Mr. Hay prepared to deny that the canal must be a part of our coast line? Does he make light of the contention of our Congressional strategists that to allow foreign warships the right to pass through it freely in time of war would be equivalent to national suicide? There will be lively times when all these things come up in the secret session of the Senate. We doubt if Senator Morgan can contain himself even in open session. He will see in Mr. Hay's negotiation a direct flouting of his own bill and report referring to a Nicaragua canal. Morgan's bill directs the President in express terms not only to "excavate" a canal, but to "defend" it. What is the use of a canal which you cannot defend—that is, go to war over? Moreover, Senator Morgan would have "fortifications for the defence of the canal." Shall these be basely abandoned at the request of the wily Briton? We have always maintained that a good part of the eagerness among politicians for an Isthmian canal was due to their hope of getting a rousing international quarrel by means of it. Their zeal will rapidly cool if it is to be a tame work of peace, for ever dedicated to peace; and their disappointment may take the form of a savage turning upon the Secretary who has tried to rob them of an ancient feud.

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty extended, and we understand its prospective modification will extend, not simply to the Nicaraguan route, but to any route whatever that may be pitched upon as the best for a canal across the Isthmus. In so far, and pending the report of our investigating commission, the scales are held even as between the Nicaragua and the Panama locations. It should not be forgotten, however, that there are other and serious diplomatic difficulties in the way of the Nicaragua route. These are the treaties still in force between Nicaragua, on the one hand, and Great Britain, France, Spain, Italy, and Belgium, on the other, securing to those nations equal rights in any interoceanic canal that may be constructed through Nicaraguan territory. Of course, if Secretary Hay is prepared to guarantee equal rights to all, it will doubtless be an easy matter to secure the abrogation or modification of the treaties mentioned. But they are still in vigor, and, until got out of the way, constitute an effective diplomatic barrier to our exclusive control of a canal via Lake Nicaragua.

Why, then, are the Nicaragua bills so urgently pressed in Congress? Why is the word quietly passed around that the Administration has set its heart on passing them? Why, above all, is it proposed to adopt the exceedingly awkward and irregular course of going blindly ahead without waiting for the report of our own commission? Well, we gather that Hanna very much desires the beginning of a canal as a political asset in Mr. McKinley's campaign for reëlection. He desires to include that in the gorgeous programme with which the country is to be beguiled. Here was a problem which had troubled our statesmen for more than half a century; but the great McKinley came along, and, lo! he loosed the Gordon knot of it, "familiar as his garter." Hanna also regarded the commission as a mean trick played upon him by Speaker Reed in the last Congress. Worse than simply refusing the money for the canal last year, it shoved the question along till next year. Why wait for the report of the eminent engineers when their appointment was a legacy left by a man now out of politics? Such, we understand, is the present working of the Ohio intellect, which does not see how indecent haste would leave the President in the attitude of eating his own words and repudiating his own appointees, and would be practically a fraud on the country. The legislative part of the business should be done with as decent a regard for the opinion of mankind as Secretary Hay has shown in the diplomatic part, if we are really to get a civilized canal in a civilized way.

OUR CONQUESTS AND OUR CONSTITUTION.

The report of the majority of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, in providing a tariff for Porto Rico different from that which prevails throughout the United States, raises perhaps the most momentous constitutional question which our country has ever faced. It commits the Republican party to the doctrine that Porto Rico is not in or a part of the United States; that the United States may have territory belonging to it to which the Constitution does not apply; and that Congress has power to act as the governing body of such territory without any constitutional limitations whatever. It is not surprising that the Democratic minority of the committee say of this doctrine that the majority submit no opinion or decision of the Supreme Court of the United States to sustain the contention they make. It would be remarkable if a court created by the Constitution for the purpose of pronouncing on the constitutionality of the acts of a Congress created in the same way, should declare that that body is not subject to constitutional limitations.

What that court has heretofore declared, when similar questions have come before it, admits of brief statement. The issue is a great one, but it is simple. The question whether the United States may acquire territory in war, or by treaty, is not now involved; and the power has been exercised so often that it would be unprofitable now to question its constitutionality. But the status of territory so acquired has been several times considered by the court, and its decisions contain language so apt in its application to the present situation, and so conclusive in its repudiation of the doctrine put forth by the party in power in Congress, that we quote it in the hope that it may attract the attention of the country.

The case of Loughborough vs. Black,

reported in 5 Wheaton, arose from the act of Congress imposing a direct tax on the District of Columbia, and it was held that such taxes were constitutional if levied in proportion to the census directed to be taken by the Constitution. The following words were used by Chief Justice Marshall:

"The power, then, to lay and collect duties, imposts, and excises may be exercised, and must be exercised, throughout the United States. Does this term designate the whole, or any particular portion of the American empire? Certainly, this question can admit of but one answer. It is the name given to our great republic, which is composed of States and Territories. The District of Columbia, or the territory west of the Missouri, is not less within the United States than Maryland or Pennsylvania; and it is not less necessary, on the principles of our Constitution, that uniformity in the imposition of imposts, duties, and excises should be observed in the one than in the other."

The foregoing extract may be profitably compared with this declaration of the Republican majority of the Ways and Means Committee:

"(1.) That the term 'United States' in that provision of the Constitution which declares that 'all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States' means and is confined to the States that constitute the Federal Union, and does not cover also the territory belonging to the United States."

The general principle laid down above by Chief Justice Marshall was amplified and made more explicit by Chief Justice Taney in the celebrated Dred Scott case. In view of some of the attempts recently made to maintain that Congress has, during all our history, been administering our Territories in the exercise of a power free from constitutional limitations, the following passages are peculiarly apposite and timely:

"There is certainly no power given by the Constitution to the Federal Government to establish or maintain colonies bordering on the United States or at a distance, to be ruled and governed at its own pleasure. . . . No power is given to acquire a territory to be held and governed permanently in that character. . . . No one, we presume, will contend that Congress can make any law in a territory respecting the establishment of religion or the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the people of the territory peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for the redress of grievances. Nor can Congress deny to the people the right to keep and bear arms, nor the right of trial by jury, nor compel any one to be a witness against himself in a criminal proceeding. . . . A power, therefore, in the general Government to obtain and hold colonies and dependent territories, over which they might legislate without restriction, would be inconsistent with its own existence in its present form."

Such language as this cannot be explained away. It gives a perfectly clear, intelligible, and consistent explanation of the status of territory acquired by the United States. It excludes, as thoroughly and completely as any language can do, the theory which the exigencies of protectionism have forced the Administration to adopt, that Congress, or the President, can exercise powers independently of all constitutional restraints. What decisions the Supreme Court may hereafter render we cannot predict; but it has only to follow established precedents to insure to the people of Hawaii and Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands the most important of those rights which the war of the Revolution was fought to secure to the people of the United States. To abandon these precedents is simply to hold that the men in control of the government of the United States can exercise the same autocratic powers over many millions of human beings that the Czar of Russia and his councillors can employ in ruling their subjects.

YEAR ONE OF THE EMPIRE.

It is now a full year since the treaty with Spain was ratified, and the ignoble and bloody war in the Philippines began —a true *annus horribilis*. Nothing but the gradual induration of heart and conscience could enable Americans to look back upon such a twelvemonth without shame. If they had been told on February 6, 1899, that February 6, 1900, would see the work of devastation and death still going on, they would have shrunk from the prospect with horror. Why should the retrospect seem any less repulsive to them? Shall we add to our disgrace by pretending now to approve what then we should have vehemently reprobated? At any rate, we cannot honestly refrain from reckoning up the bitter humiliations of this year in Cathay. We admit that the moral balance-sheet is not pleasant reading; but to those who take offence at it, we must say, with Swift, that we write for their amendment, not their approbation.

In one respect all are agreed—this Philippine year has been one of illusion succeeding illusion, and hope deferred. The war has dragged on its misery beyond all computation. A pitiful collection of unfulfilled prophecies could be made out of Gen. Otis's dispatches and the official utterances of the Government at Washington. Thus, on March 17, nearly a year ago, the Administration assured the country that hostilities would end "within a very short time." On March 24 we were informed that the insurgent army would have "ceased to exist" after Otis had delivered his next blow. Otis himself telegraphed on April 3 that the insurgent Government was in a "perilous condition." On April 4 the War Department was confident that "the backbone of the insurrection is broken." By April 29 Gen. Otis was positive that the insurgents were "tired of war." On May 18 the "end of the insurrection was at hand." But why go on with the record of promises never kept, and flattering hopes always dashed to the earth? Everybody recalls the general fact. The American people has been fed for a year on official optimism respecting the Philippines. The resisting power of the natives, the number of troops needed to subdue them, the cost of the war, have all been grossly miscalculated, so that we have to look back on a twelvemonth of disappointment and thwarting and humiliation, merely as respects our capacity to make war intelligently.

But on the side of moral and political standards and ideals, the year has brought us a disillusionment still more grievous. Its steps can be conveniently traced in the person of the President. He stands as a general type of the people in this regard—the "homme moyen," if there ever was one; and his own progress from first enduring to pitying and then embracing the Philippine vice is illustrative of the moral decay from which public sentiment at large has suffered. Mr. McKinley began by professing his earnest aim to "win the confidence, respect, and affection of the inhabitants of the Philippines," and to bestow upon them "the blessings of a good and stable government." When the unhappy war broke out, largely in consequence of his illegal and mischievous proclamation, he still was able to say, as he did say at Boston, that "every red drop from the veins of a misguided Filipino is anguish to my heart." But it was not long before he began to threaten the "cruel leaders" under whom the Filipinos fought so heroically, and to assert truculently, like another Arolas or Weyler, that he would tolerate no further "parley" with such miscreants. From that it is only a short step to the proclamation which he is now said to be contemplating, declaring all Filipinos in arms to be bandits, and so liable to be hung without trial. That would be a fitting end of the policy of "benevolent assimilation."

We do not mean to single out the President for special condemnation, except as his official power and responsibility call for special severity of judgment. He only typifies the general decadence which results from the abandonment of principle. The country has sinned with him and suffers with him. From tolerating an alleged necessary evil, we have gone on to defending it and then exulting in it. If the President does issue an order to string up on sight every Filipino taken with arms in his hands, he will be but executing the policy which too many people are advocating with unconscious brutality. Such is the sure acceleration of tyranny when once we adopt its methods. That is the true explanation of the cries of "Treason" heard even in the Senate. It has come to be felt that every objection to what is going on in the Philippines is an affront to the head of the state, an impairment of the reverence and awe due him, and so a lessening of his chances of reëlection. Who could be a more unblushing traitor than one who hoped that Mr. McKinley's Philippine performances would endanger his continuance in office?

To get a proper perspective for the

humiliation which the United States have undergone through this Philippine business, we need to look at the matter from the international point of view. What a disgrace it is for us to encounter on every hand sneers at our good faith, taunts at our incompetence, and cries of disgust at our professed ardor for liberty! Even Spaniards talk condescendingly of our ignorant blundering in the Philippines. You cannot speak with an Englishman or Frenchman or German about the Philippines without seeing how we have, and deserve, their wondering scorn. The Boer war has come as a timely touchstone of what we have lost. One cry of "How about the Filipinos?" is sufficient to check the most eloquent orator in the midst of his appeals for the heroic Dutchmen of South Africa. We have disabled ourselves from expressing sympathy with any oppressed people on earth. Our generous professions of love for liberty stick in our throats (the blood of Danton chokes us) as we think of what we have been doing in this Year One of our new Empire.

If the events of the past twelvemonth have been thus melancholy for ourselves, what have they been to the Filipinos? We are bound to consider their feelings in reckoning up the total result. Even granting that we have the noblest impulses in the world, and the best intentions, we have to take into the account what they think of us. Their sentiment towards us is what we are mainly trying to influence, and what is that sentiment to-day? What would an educated Filipino say had been the chief import of the year past to his people? He would have a terrible array of disasters to specify. He would point to dawning hopes of liberty crushed to earth by the land of liberty; to broken promises; to trenches full of Filipino dead; to smoking heaps where once were happy villages; to desolate fields and ruined industries and starving women and children; to soldiers, with no heart in their task, pursuing the defenders of freedom to their last stronghold in the mountains—and he would say:

"These are the tyrant's trophies of a year."

THE NEW CONSULAR BILL.

The question of a reform in our consular service was, it will be remembered, taken up seriously over a year ago by a number of the chief chambers of commerce throughout the country; the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, through its then President, Harry A. Garfield, being in the lead. Of course, no action was had by the last Congress, as questions growing out of the war with Spain pushed all other measures aside. The matter has now been revived before the present Congress, and at the joint invitation of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York through Mr. Schwab, and of the Cleveland Chamber through Mr. Garfield, a concerted effort is being made by the principal trade organizations to secure consideration of a new bill which has been introduced by Mr. Burton of Ohio in the House and by Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts in the Senate.

This is, we believe, the seventh bill on the subject that has been presented to Congress in the last three years, and it bears about it signs of expert preparation, which its predecessors have lacked. It is announced that ex-Secretary Day has given it his general approval, and that ex-Secretary John W. Foster has endorsed it as the best measure thus far introduced, and earnestly favors its passage. It is understood, also, that the State Department regards it with approval; but on this point there should hardly be room for doubt, as successive Secretaries of State have, for many years past, declared in favor of remodelling our antiquated consular service.

The new bill provides for Consuls-General of three classes, with salaries from $5,000 to $8,000 per annum, and for consuls of six classes, with salaries rising from $1,500 to $5,000 per annum. It requires a reclassification of all the existing consular offices, and permits the abolishing of any that are or shall become superfluous. All the present incumbents are to be assigned to consulates with salaries as nearly as possible the same as those they now receive, after which they are to be gradually recalled and subjected to the same examination as is required for entrance to the service. Those who pass are to be definitively a part of the new system, and those who fail are to be dropped out. The service is to be arranged by classes and not by places, so that the consuls may be shifted from one station to another, according to the needs of the service. All unofficial fees, which now go into the consuls' pockets, and the full amount of which no one can more than guess at, are to be turned into the Treasury, so that the only compensation shall be by fixed salaries. It is probable that this provision would result in making the whole service not far from self-supporting. Vacancies above the lowest class are to be filled from the next lower class, but the President may skip a class in making a nomination, provided he publishes his reasons for doing so.

Entrance to the consular service is to be after public competitive examination by a board composed of the Secretary of State or an official of the State Department acting for him, an officer of the consular service, and the Civil-Service Commissioners. The names of five persons who pass the best examination are to be certified to the President, and from them he is to make his nomination. A new appointee may be dropped at any time during the first year of his service, but after that he cannot be dismissed except for due cause and after trial before a board. A unique feature of the bill permits the assignment, by the President's order, of any consul to special duty in the United States for a period of not more than one year at a time, and permits the nomination to consulates without examination of persons who have been in the classified service of the State Department for at least two years, thus creating an interconvertible service, and making experience in the foreign service available for the home office, and experience in the home office available for the foreign service. The subjects of examination for entrance to the service are left largely to the examining board, but they are required to include a knowledge of French, German, or Spanish, and no one is to be assigned to a consulate in a country where the United States exercises extra-territorial jurisdiction unless he shall have passed an examination in the principles of the common law, the rules of evidence, and the trial of civil and criminal cases.

Such are the chief provisions of the bill. If, in the multitude of measures already before Congress, many of which will have the benefit of greater personal importunity than the consular bill can expect to enlist, the chances appear to be against favorable action at this session, the fact should not discourage the advocates of the reform, which is based upon just principles, and is rapidly gathering strength.

Our consular service has been anything but a source of credit. It is true that from it has emanated an excellent series of printed consular reports, but these come from a small proportion of the consuls, and are, after all, rather a tribute to the system evolved by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce of the State Department than to the consular service as a whole. Every traveller and every person engaged in foreign trade knows the deficiencies of the service. It is largely recruited from a class of small politicians who look upon it as only a temporary refuge, and not as a permanent career offering any opportunity of advancement. From such a class it would be unreasonable to expect good consuls to come; and almost before they have been trained to their new duties, they are recalled to make room for other small politicians of a different political faith. There is thus no stability in the service; it is composed of constantly shifting individuals, who are not wholly responsible for their conduct to the service itself. The consequence is that our foreign trade suffers, that the rights of individual Americans are often put in jeopardy, that our prestige is lessened, and that we are humiliated in the eyes of foreign nations. In the face of this situation, which the passage of the Chambers of Commerce bill would rectify, it would seem to be simply a patriotic duty for Congress to respond to the general demand in favor of the reform.

MOREAU.

PARIS, January 25, 1900.

The life of General Moreau has never been written with the fulness which is found in modern biographies. His end cast a gloom over his beginnings; he remains among the dark figures of history. His great victories are mixed up with the darkest days of the French Revolution; his name, however, will always be connected with the famous Republican armies of the Rhine—armies of volunteers, led by young generals, which astonished the world by their endurance and their audacity, and which paved the way for the brilliant successes of the Empire. The history of Moreau's campaigns belongs chiefly to the period of the Directory; he deserved to be considered as the worthy rival of young General Bonaparte, whose first campaigns in Italy astonished the world and began a new era in the terrible art of war.

The operation of the armies of the Rhine in 1796, after the defeat of Jourdan, ended in Moreau's famous retreat, which was considered as great a feat as a victory. When the Archduke Charles, after having crushed Jourdan's forces, forced him to recross the Rhine, Moreau had already crossed the Danube and the Lech, and was on his way to Munich. When he heard of Jourdan's retreat, he found himself isolated; he immediately began his retreat by the valley of the Danube, having sixty thousand men following him in the rear, and expecting to find sixty thousand Austrians in the passes of the Black Forest. He fought a battle on his way, gained it, went through the Valley of Hell (Val d'Enfer), and reached the Rhine in perfect order after a march of twenty-six days. After a petty engagement with the advance guard of the Archduke, he recrossed the Rhine by the bridges of Breisach and Hüningen. This splendid retreat gave Moreau a high place among the generals of his time, and he was looked upon as a worthy rival of Gen. Bonaparte.

I cannot follow Moreau in his successive campaigns. His reputation grew from year to year, and, after the battle of Hohenlinden, equalled that of Napoleon. The imperial army of the Danube in 1800 was a hundred thousand strong, under the Archduke John. Moreau had a hundred thousand men between the Isar and the Inn. The operations of the armies of the Rhine and of Italy were to be harmonized. The Archduke John suffered a great defeat at Hohenlinden; he lost six thousand men and sixteen thousand prisoners. The Austrians retreated in the greatest disorder; in twenty days they lost forty thousand men and a hundred and fifty guns. Vienna was terrified. The Emperor gave the command to the Archduke Charles I., but it was too late. When the Archduke saw the state of the army, he begged the Emperor to make peace at any price. Moreau, who had arrived at Steyer, consented to an armistice on condition that Austria would treat separately from England, and that the fortresses of Tyrol and Bavaria should be placed in the hands of the French.

From the day of Hohenlinden, Moreau became a formidable rival to Napoleon; he became during the Consulate even a centre of opposition. Many of the generals and officers of the armies of the Rhine were hostile to the heroes of the armies of Italy, who had become richer, more popular; they affected the Republican ways and manners of the first armies of the Revolutionary period, in contrast with the more frivolous manners of the brilliant officers who surrounded Napoleon, and who already formed a sort of court. The Republicans, those whom Napoleon afterwards called the idealogues, thought to find in Moreau the head of a real Republic, of a wise and constitutional government; the royalists imagined that Moreau would be tempted some day to play the part of Monk.

Moreau heard them all, and gave no definite hope to anybody; his chief passion was jealousy of Bonaparte—a jealousy which became a real hatred, and was increased by purely personal considerations. The vanity of his wife and his mother-in-law, Madame Hulot, had been wounded by the First Consul and Madame Bonaparte. The relations between Napoleon and Moreau became such that, in the great trial of 1804 of the royalist George Cadoudal and Pichegru, Moreau was designated by Napoleon as their accomplice and condemned to two years' imprisonment. He was held up as a promoter of civil war, as an agent of foreign Powers. There seems little doubt that Napoleon desired and expected that the judges would condemn Moreau to capital punishment. He found the punishment too lenient, not wishing Moreau to remain in France, even in prison. At Fouché's instigation, Madame Moreau went to Josephine, the new Empress, with a letter in which she asked for her husband permission to go to the United States. Napoleon at once commuted the sentence rendered against Moreau into perpetual exile. Moreau started for the United States the day of the execution of Cadoudal and his friends. His name was struck from the army rolls. His private property was sold; under cover of Fouché's name, Napoleon bought his hôtel in Paris, which he gave to Bernadotte, and the estate of Grosbois, which he gave to Berthier. Moreau was not allowed to start for the United States from England; he received a passport for Cadiz and left Europe from Spain. At Barcelona he was joined by Madame Moreau and their young son; from Barcelona they went to Cadiz, where, a few days afterwards, Madame Moreau was confined and had a daughter. They were obliged to remain several months, and left only in July, 1805, in an American ship.

Talleyrand sent special instructions with regard to General Moreau to the French Minister at Washington, named Turreau. The arrival at Philadelphia was reported by Turreau in these terms:

"Moreau lodged, after landing, with a certain Madame Cottineau, who pretends to be a relation of Madame Moreau. The house was soon filled with all sorts of people, and the General had to receive 'How d' ye do's' till he was deaf, and shake hands till he was lame. The next day a fraction of what is here called the army, two companies of the town militia, came to pay their respects. Moreau, not knowing the language of the country, was reduced to salutations. The ex-General remained only three days in town, and started for Morrisville, an estate which he has taken near Trenton."

Moreau established himself there, on the Delaware River; he spent his time in fishing and hunting, and made long journeys as far as the Mississippi, the Great Lakes, and (in the South) Louisiana. He spent his winters in New York and Philadelphia. Mme. Moreau, who was still young, was fond of society. It would be interesting to have some account of the impression made by Moreau on American society; we know very little on this subject. Mme. Moreau made the acquaintance of a Frenchwoman whose husband, Hyde de Neuville, had been a secret agent of the Bourbons in Paris, under the Consulate, and who had been obliged to leave France. The two ladies met accidentally at a watering-place. Hyde de Neuville arrived in America in 1807, with a letter for Moreau from Mme. de Mouchy, but Moreau was rather shy of making his acquaintance. By degrees the intimacy which sprang up between the two ladies brought the husbands nearer together. Hyde de Neuville succeeded in bringing Moreau over to the idea of a monarchical restoration in France.

Moreau was directly tempted in another way on the side of Russia. He was not willing to serve Austria or England, from fear of offending French feelings; he was not unwilling to form an independent French corps made up of soldiers who had served under him and to use this force, in alliance with Russia and Prussia, against the man whom he considered the scourge of Europe. Such dreams savored of high treason, and it was Moreau's misfortune to have entertained them. His independent force never existed except in his imagination; his coöperation with Russia and Prussia became a reality. In the month of August, 1805, the principal adviser of the Emperor Alexander, Prince Czartoryski, offered Moreau the place of general in the ranks of the allied armies. At that time, Moreau had left for America. He wrote a polite answer to the Emperor, refusing his offer. In 1812, when war broke out between the United States and England, Moreau offered his services to President Madison. His wife fell ill, and left for Europe. Bernadotte, who had become Prince Royal of Sweden and had entered into the coalition against Napoleon, made new offers to Moreau, through Madame de Staël. At the end of 1812, Moreau sent his aide-de-camp, Repatel, with instructions to St. Petersburg and Stockholm. He wrote a letter to Bernadotte, in which he said: "I am ready to enter France at the head of French troops, but I cannot conceal from you my repugnance to reëntering it at the head of foreign troops." He left America with a passport (under the name of John Caro, born in Louisiana) on June 21, 1813. On July 26 he landed at Gothenburg, and the Swedish general who received him said to him: "You bring us in your person an army of a hundred thousand men."

Moreau left Sweden somewhat disgusted with the personal and egoistical views of Bernadotte, and, joining the headquarters of the allied sovereigns, found the Czar at Prague, where he met Jomini. The rest is well known: at the battle of Dresden, Moreau was riding next to the Czar, between too English officers, Cathcart and Wilson; he was struck by a cannon-ball and mortally wounded.

Correspondence.

KENTUCKY AND THE BOSS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: William Goebel, a Senator for the State of Kentucky and contestant for the

office of Governor before the General Assembly, was shot and probably mortally wounded on Tuesday last, while entering the capitol at Frankfort. Kentucky has an unenviable and to some degree a deserved reputation for crimes of blood, but this most shocking episode of our history needs some explanation. I have yet to find a man, Democrat or Republican, of any standing who believes it was the act of any but some irresponsible and over-excited individual acting for himself alone. His escape amid the excitement that immediately followed the crime is regretted by all parties, as his punishment by process of law was certain. The crime itself has been extenuated by no one. Both parties stand appalled at the monstrous conditions that made it possible; both want peace, both are afraid to push their cause to the arbitrament of arms. But one man is responsible for the condition, and that man is the victim lying prone and dying at Frankfort.

Goebel has his example in Quay, in Tammany, and in the bosses of Ohio. These succeed in their respective States, and resistance ceases with an indignant editorial in the opposition paper and then supine submission. I take some pride in the thought that among us civil liberty is not so lightly held, and that resistance to the tyranny of an irresponsible political ring is not so feeble. We will not submit; and though our rougher virtues show at times the savage characteristics that exist unfortunately to some degree, yet we can give assurance to the world that liberty shall not die among us in our own time, that no political tyrant shall rob us of political liberty. Amid all this turmoil, life and property are safe and shall continue so. Kentucky even to-day is not an armed camp. Outside of Frankfort, business proceeds without disturbance. A calm, resolute, and determined people know their rights, and are determined lawfully to preserve them. A DEMOCRAT.

LOUISVILLE, February 2, 1900.

A HARMONY OF ABBOTT GOSPELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you are nearer the Editor of the *Outlook* than many of us who have been trying to comprehend his apologies for Sulu slavery under the American flag, and destined expansion in general, perhaps you can the better reconcile his present arguments with comparatively recent teachings of Lyman Abbott. In 1896 Dr. Abbott published an attractive little book, entitled 'Christianity and Social Problems.' In it are the following words on self-government:

"The birth at Bethlehem sounded the knell of imperial prerogatives and privileged classes throughout the world. What is liberty? 'The true liberty of a man,' said Carlyle, 'you would say consisted in his finding out, or being forced to find out, the right path and to walk therein; to learn, or to be taught, what work he is actually able to do, and then by permission, persuasion, or even compulsion, to be set about doing the same. Oh, if thou really art my senior, my elder, or priest—if thou art in any way wiser—may a beneficent instinct lead and impel thee to conquer and command me! If thou do know better than I what is good and right, I conjure you, in the name of God, force me to do it; were it never by such brass collars, whips, and handcuffs, leave me not to walk over precipices.'"

Dr. Abbott thus quotes Carlyle's idea of liberty, which is a good plea for benevolent assimilation, and then he gives this vigorous answer:

"No, this is not liberty; it is servitude. Servitude may be better than walking over precipices; but it is not liberty. Liberty is ability to do as one pleases. Freedom is the exemption from the power and control of another; this is liberty. It assumes not that every man can safely govern himself, but first that it is safer to leave every man to govern himself than to put any man under the government of another man, or any class of men under the government of any other class; and, secondly, that there is such potentiality of self-governing power in every man, such capacity to learn by his blunders, that he will acquire a wisdom and a self-restraint through the very perils of self-government, which he will never acquire under the protecting government of others wiser and better than himself."

This seems to be sound doctrine, but it does not harmonize with the *Outlook*. This was the doctrine of the Republican party in enfranchising the freedmen of the South. Kentucky, according to the Carlyle idea of self-government, may be in need of brass collars, whips, and handcuffs, but Dr. Abbott believed, four years ago, that it were better policy to allow the Kentuckians to learn through the perils of self-government than to place them under a protecting government better than themselves. Why does not the Filipino possess "potentiality of self-government, and capacity to learn by his blunders, that he may acquire a wisdom and self-restraint through the very perils of self-government, which he never will acquire under the protecting government of others better and wiser than himself"? If you can explain the Lyman Abbott of 1900 in the light of the Lyman Abbott of 1896, you will confer a favor upon a reader of the *Nation* and the *Outlook*. ARTHUR C. LUDLOW.

CLEVELAND, O., January 31, 1900.

THALIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in the "spinning and weaving" of his novel, 'Janice Meredith,' appears to have caught up one small filament of rather doubtful quality. In the fourteenth chapter are some verses, presumably of Mr. Ford's composing, entitled, "To Thalia." The opening stanza is as follows:

"These lines to her my passion tell,
Describe the empire of her spell,
A love which naught will e'er dispel,
That flames for sweetest Thalia."

The scansion of the fourth line shows that the author accents the name Thalia upon the first syllable. In other words, he treats it as if it were a rhyme to "Badalia" (of Gunnison Street), whereas, according to both rule and custom, it is a rhyme to "Obadiah." That it is intended to be pronounced as a trochee is made clear by the remark put into Tibbie Drinker's mouth a little later, that "If thee copies it fair, and puts in 'Delia' or 'Celia,' 'twill do to show to the girls." It may, perhaps, be granted that to Tibbie and the Merediths a popular mispronunciation like Tha'lia would be allowable; but a like concession cannot be made to the hero Charles. He is a man of culture, who, knowing his Pope, would surely recall the lines of the 'Dunciad'—

"There sunk Thalia, nerveless, cold and dead,
Had not her sister Satire held her head."

And Charles is not the man to affront one of the Graces by giving currency to a mispronunciation of the lady's name; he is far too gallant.—Yours truly,

FRED NEWTON SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* appearing to-day, p. 88, on Hindu Proverbs, citing *ne sutor*, I see I have carelessly written *ultra* for *supra* (*crepidam*). I should like to correct the obvious error.—Yours truly,

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

NEW HAVEN, February 1, 1900.

Notes.

'John Ruskin,' by M. H. Spielmann, will be issued directly from the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

A. Wessels Co. of this city, successors to M. F. Mansfield & A. Wessels, announce 'London Souvenirs,' by C. W. Heckethorn; 'The House of Commons,' by Sir Richard Temple; 'The History of the Temple,' by G. Pitt-Lewis, Q. C.; 'Aubrey Beardsley: A Catalogue of his Drawings,' by A. E. Gallatin; 'Ivory Apes and Peacocks,' by "Israfel"; and 'The Search of Ceres,' poems by Sarah Warner Brooks.

"Macmillan's Pocket American Classics" series, set down for the spring, will consist of 18mo volumes derived from Irving, Poe, Franklin, Lowell, and Cooper; "Pocket English Classics" will be continued with selections from Milton, Scott, and Shakspere. The same house has in preparation 'European Travel for Women,' by Mrs. Mary Cadwalader Jones, and 'The Nervous System of the Child,' by Dr. Francis Warner.

Henry Holt & Co. are to publish 'The Practical Study of Languages,' by Prof. Henry Sweet; 'Specimens of Forms of Discourse,' by E. H. Lewis; and an anthology for wayfarers, 'The Open Road,' compiled by Edward Verrall Lucas.

'Trusts and the Public' is the title of Mr. George Gunton's new book, to be published immediately by D. Appleton & Co.

Charles W. Sever & Co., Cambridge, Mass., announce a second edition of Thayer's 'Cases on Evidence,' to be out in August next. It will have considerable changes, remaining, however, of substantially the same size as before.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have in press 'The Anglo-Boer Conflict,' by Alleyne Ireland, and 'Indian Story and Song from North America,' by Miss Alice C. Fletcher.

The American publishers of 'The Expansion of Egypt,' reviewed by us in No. 1804, are the New Amsterdam Book Co. of this city.

Stately reprints at a very low cost are the two volumes of "Macmillan's Library of English Classics" before us, viz., Sheridan's Plays and Bacon's Essays. The series, which will number at least twenty-five volumes, will make its way by handsome typography and careful collation of texts. Mr. A. W. Pollard, in charge of the latter, furnishes for each volume a bibliographical introduction, and no other apparatus is promised. In the case of Sheridan, he has followed Moore's text, with correction of some carelessnesses that have been perpetuated. The text preferred for the Essays is

that of 1675, and the volume is filled out with "The Colors of Good and Evil" and "The Advancement of Learning." The spelling has been modernized, and Mr. Pollard has generously added a glossary and a translation of the Latin quotations. This series, which ranges from Sir John Mandeville's Travels to Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' and from Shelton's 'Don Quixote' to De Quincey's 'Confessions,' must command a widespread popularity.

A still more striking reprint is the small-quarto edition of Gilbert White's 'Natural History of Selborne' (London and New York: John Lane), edited by the late Grant Allen. This is so handsomely printed and bound, so copiously and aptly illustrated, so carefully edited and indexed, as to discourage any near attempt to rival it. Coleridge's annotations upon his own copy—made somewhat apologetically, for fear of "lessening the value of this sweet delightful book"—are now first printed. They are remarkable, not so much as corrections of White's occasional errors, nor even as new evidence of Coleridge's encyclopædic knowledge, but as adding the testimony of so sound a critic to the charm the book possesses for so many and so different people—enduring after a hundred years and into nearly a hundred known editions.

White's influence that was apparent in Mr. Dewar's 'Wild Life in the Hampshire Highlands,' which we recently praised, also appears in Mr. J. Arthur Gibbs's 'A Cotswold Village' (London: John Murray; New York: Scribners). This is a bulky duodecimo, handsomely printed and illustrated. The subtitle, "Country Life and Pursuits in Gloucestershire," is more aptly descriptive of the book, which is a pot-pourri of local history and tradition, fox-hunting, shooting, fishing, cricket, politics, landscape, and architecture. In this last feature Gloucestershire is rich, possessing not only the Roman remains of Cirencester and its environs, but examples of all the periods of English Gothic, from the early Norman churches down to those oak-raftered Elizabethan barns which pass for architectural masterpieces. In describing them, the author is appreciative and not too technical, whereas the lovely Gloucestershire landscape is apt to seduce him into a reckless use of adjectives. His aim throughout is so modest ("to please rather than to instruct") that he is safe from unkind criticism, unless, perhaps, from the unhappy puffins whom he introduces as kin among the hawks (p. 112)!

Those who have enjoyed Mr. Maurice Hewlett's 'Earthwork Out of Tuscany,' first published daintily some four years ago, will extend a welcome to a new (third) edition (Putnams), backed in white and gold, with the illustrations increased by several photogravures. It would appear, then, that the elect who have yielded to his impressions of Italy, and of whom in the second edition he could say, "Not more than two in every hundred who have read me have known what I was at," have increased in numbers. Whether for what he calls the religion of his book, or for the poetry of his style, these fantastically entitled pictures, essays, allegories, and stories are warmly to be commended anew.

Mr. Edwin Emerson, jr., had a brilliant opportunity for satire in bringing back 'Pepys's Ghost' to walk among our own contemporaries (Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co.). The first of his adventures are told divertingly, and are quite in the vein; but dragging the old fellow through Cuba with the Rough Riders was cruel hard, and left him, on his return to Montauk, but the shadow of a shade. Pepys's judgment of men during this incarnation seems, perhaps, less shrewd than of old. It was quite in character, however, that a man corrupted by the loose and convivial ways of Charles's navy should have shrunk before the austere rectitude of Admiral Sampson.

Miss Pamela Coleman Smith, who hails from Jamaica and is vouched for by Thomas Nelson Page, gives us the 'Annancy Stories' (R. H. Russell), a collection of local negro tales on the Uncle Remus order. For Breda Annancy's usurpation of Brer Rabbit's honored position we are prepared, and likewise for the substitution of Breda Paarat and Breda Tiger, with other unfamiliar beasts, in the more humble rôles. It is with some surprise, however, that we fail to find more of the familiar earmarks, that we had been led to believe were in this hemisphere visible in all negro animal stories, denoting their common origin. We discover in this series but two which are even suggestive of those in Mr. Harris's extensive collection. Annancy's adventure with the wasps and as the rider of Breda Tiger remind us of Brer Rabbit and the mosquitoes and his humiliation of Brer Fox before "Miss Meadows en de gals." In other instances Grimm's Fairy Tales seem to have been the source of inspiration. Copious illustrations from the author's pen fill this little volume, which is not unamusing.

'Mexican Vistas,' by Harriott Wight Sherratt (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.), purports, according to its motto, to set forth certain analogies to the land of Edom, in compassing which "the soul of the people was sore discouraged." But Mrs. Sherratt's soul was never discouraged, in spite of the ruggedness of Mount Seir. The analogy might have been pressed judiciously in other directions. In more ways than one, Mexico is the American Edom. We have here, however, no critical study, but a jolly record of travel by a bright, jovial woman, who has presented her experiences in conventional language that will oppose no difficulties to the ordinary Pullman-car reader. The pictures of life are faithful and free from exaggeration, and the comments on customs and racial idiosyncrasies are unusually kind and sympathetic. The illustrations are a help to the text, but the reader should be warned not to follow the author's spelling of Mexican names without verification.

Signor Lanciani's 'Destruction of Ancient Rome' (Macmillan Co.) is a duller book than we had supposed so bright a man could make. But it is obviously a pot-boiler, consisting of little more than a brief catalogue or summary of the destroyers and the things which they destroyed. The general reader will find the treatment too meagre to be of interest, and scholars will wait for the larger work promised by the same author.

Mr. E. S. Shuckburgh may fairly be congratulated upon a piece of good and useful work in his translation of the 'Letters of Cicero' (London: Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co.). Two volumes are already published, and when the whole (in four volumes) has appeared, it will furnish the first English translation of the entire series of letters which passed back and forth between Cicero and his friends, a correspondence not surpassed in interest and importance by any other that is known. The two volumes cover the years 68-49 B. C. To each volume is prefixed an introduction on the principal events in Cicero's private life and on public affairs, and nearly every page is supplied with notes on social, historical, and biographical matters. Mr. Shuckburgh has succeeded in making the letters read like genuine productions, not rhetorical imitations of epistolary correspondence. The colloquial style which he has adopted is free from dulness, and yet seldom degenerates into offensive modern slang. We wish that the printer had left us a little more inside margin, for the books do not open easily; but the paper is good and the ink black.

No. 40 of "The Religion of Science Library" (Chicago: Open Court Co.), entitled 'Kant and Spencer,' by Dr. Paul Carus, being a criticism of Spencer and his agnosticism, and a comparison of his metaphysics with that of its true author, Kant, is well worth attention. In some recent remarks on Kant as an important precursor of modern evolutionism, we were probably influenced unawares by one of the chapters of this brochure which had appeared in the *Monist*. We shall not express approval of the acrid tone of the criticism, which is of a kind obsolescent even in Germany. To say that Herbert Spencer has been a man who "shirks the toil of research" is not to invite philosophical discussion, and is really too much. It is difficult to conceive how such personalities can be to the taste of a philosopher, *i. e.*, of a man intent mainly on supplying the defects of his own knowledge. In this country, they will not even serve the purpose of the man who is only eager to teach. Mr. Spencer has surely put out his talent to usury if ever any man did; and what he has succeeded in accomplishing must, in any fair estimate, be called immense—an epithet that leaves room for an infinite shortcoming, of course.

Prof. Carl Budde of Strassburg has proved himself one of the most fruitful and original of the younger students of Old Testament problems. His Qinâ discovery and his hypothesis of the "Song of Songs" and of the "Song of the Well" have been definite and permanent steps in advance. A full recognition of the comparative method in history, sociology, and literature has characterized his work, and his views, whether accepted or not, have always tended to bring clarity into the subject of them. Yet only with the present little volume on the 'Religion of Israel to the Exile: American Lectures on the History of Religions' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) have we a connected statement from him in Old Testament theology. His attitude on many points, on some of which he differs widely from the dominant school, was already known; but this gives us his reconstruction, as a whole, of the early development of the religion of the Hebrews. In that respect the book has great importance for the specialist; and the non-specialist, to whom it is primarily addressed, will find in it a lucid résumé of the positive results of the newer criticism. It is one of the best, if not absolutely the best, in the series to which it belongs.

It may be of general interest to learn that the Library Company of Philadelphia has just been presented with five large

volumes of newspaper cuttings from foreign papers during our civil war. The London *Morning Star, Daily Post, Daily News, Daily Telegraph, Morning Chronicle,* and Manchester *Examiner* are some of the English papers contributing to these excerpts.

The desert sand-dunes bordering on the Nile Delta, their origin, growth, and structural characteristics, are described in the *Geographical Journal* for January by Mr. V. Cornish. He touches also on the attempts made to check the progress of the sand, which in a stiff breeze amounts to three-quarters of an inch per hour, by plantations mainly of casuarina. The peasants "seem to have an inherited aptitude for the work [of planting], which they do with a will" for a wage of a franc a day. Vice-Admiral Makaroff of the Russian navy contributes an interesting account of the *Yermak* ice-breaker and its cruise last August to the north of Spitsbergen, together with some observations on the movement, temperature, strength, gravity, and salinity of the polar ice. Its maximum thickness it was impossible to determine. An unexpected result of the cruise, which may lead to the use of these ice-breakers in arctic and antarctic explorations, was the discovery of the ease with which polar ice was penetrated in comparison with that of the Baltic. The salt polar ice, fourteen feet thick, "provided there is room to remove the broken parts," cracked more easily, and progress in it was more rapid than in the fresh-water ice in the Baltic "composed of pieces no more than two to three feet thick." The *Belgica's* experience in the cutting of a canal to enable it to escape from the antarctic ice-pack would seem to tally with this. Both articles are fully illustrated.

A specimen number of the *Russian Journal of Financial Statistics,* printed in St. Petersburg, is being distributed gratis, and presents some curious aspects. Announcement is made that a second number will also be distributed free, and the first year of the *Journal* will begin with the issue of September, 1900. No subscriptions will be received before August. Not only is this initial number printed in English, but its 236 pages are devoted to a defence of Russian finance against foreign criticism, notably that of the London *Economist.* It has the flavor, therefore, of a Government or official issue, and of a campaign document. However interesting may be the matter it contains—and many topics are treated—its political features stand foremost. The debt, liquor monopoly, and budget statements, and the account of Russia as a proprietor and capitalist, are all of value, and, with a little suppression of the polemical spirit, will do service in making foreigners better acquainted with the financial concerns of that great empire. The *Journal* is not intended to take the place of the *Bulletin Russe,* but to supplement it, more directly in its financial statements. Russian finance has always been a perplexing matter, for the policy of the Treasury has been subordinated to state policy. The editor, "G. B. V.," makes a good hit at the political statisticians of the United States Treasury, and points out their superficiality.

A striking illustration of the remarkable celerity with which armies can now be transported from one part of the world to another was given in the recent "experimental" movement of Russian troops. On December 24 a force, variously estimated at from one to two battalions or divisions even, left Tiflis in the Caucasus by rail for Baku, crossed the Caspian, and then went by rail to Kushk on the frontier of Afghanistan, a distance of some 1,500 miles, arriving on January 1. While the act is described by the Russian military authorities as an experiment, it may be indicative of the intention of Russia to avail itself of Great Britain's stress to break through to the sea and secure a port.

A plan, first conceived thirty-five years ago, by Richard Wagner, and since then never quite abandoned, is just beginning to take shape in the erection of a new theatre at Munich. The proportions and arrangement of the interior will be those of the Wagner Theatre at Bayreuth, and the building will be constructed in part after the plans drawn by the architect Semper in 1865. It is intended exclusively for the German musical drama and the Shaksperian and other great classical plays, all to be put under one management with the other two royal theatres. The probability, therefore, is, that after March 12, 1901, the day on which it is proposed to open the new house with the representation of the "Meistersinger," devotees of Wagner will direct their pilgrimage to the Bavarian capital rather than to the crowded Franconian town.

The representation, a few weeks ago, of Ibsen's "Nora" in German before an enthusiastic mixed French and German audience in one of the theatres on the Paris boulevards, followed by favorable, even flattering, notices in many of the daily papers, forms a significant contrast to the chauvinistic outbursts of last summer. One ought never to forget that Frenchmen must not be taken too seriously in their manifestations of hatred or of love. The generous reception accorded to this German company, the first that has ventured to appear in the French capital since the great war, is in large measure due to the artistic excellence of the leading actress, Frau Agnes Sorma—a new proof that the highest art transcends the bounds of nationality.

—Prof. Rufus B. Richardson, Director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, writes us under date of January 16 as follows:

"Salomon Reinach, whose judgment weighs as much as that of any archæologist in France, in the *Revue Archéologique* (1899, p. 239), after giving the substance of an article contributed by me to the *Nation* of August 24, 1899, adds the following paragraph: 'The excavations at Corinth have cost about fifteen thousand francs a year; it is very little for excavations of this sort, and the American School with reason complains of not having larger sums at its disposal. Certainly archæological achievements like the recovery of the topography of Corinth ought to suffice to recommend the young and valiant school to the liberality of American Crœsuses.' Prof. Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, who occupies a similar position among the scholars of Germany, in the *Deutsche Literaturzeitung* (May 6, 1899, p. 701), says of the excavation of Peirene: 'By this the cornerstone for the topography of Corinth is found. One can wish nothing better for the young institution [the American School] than success in a great undertaking which of itself will augment its powers and lend steadiness to its aspirations.' These utterances of great foreigners are consoling; but they cannot prevent the enterprise which they praise from lapsing unless haply they help to bring home to some rich American the importance of our work. With this object I wish to give these utterances a wider circulation."

—The current quarterly instalment of the Oxford Dictionary (Henry Frowde) is Mr. Henry Bradley's, and carries the letter G from Glass-coach to Graded. Nearly twenty-one columns are occupied with the monosyllable Go, some American uses of which have naturalized themselves in England or (as "go ahead," "go back on") are in a fair way to do so. "Go in for" is cited, through Bartlett, from the *Tribune* of December 25, 1849; in 1862 *Temple Bar* tried it tentatively between quotation marks, in 1863, Kingsley boldly (in 'Water Babies'), and now it is any Englishman's property. Gen. Perronet Thompson, whose sympathy with our abolitionists made him an interested student of American affairs, in 1840 wrote of "the active, the wide-awake, or, as the Americans would call it, the 'go-ahead' portion of the Established Sect," and in 1859 Mill asks, "Do we find in Canada that go-ahead spirit?" while Kingsley in 1864 exclaims, "What a go-ahead place France is!" The Gallicism "goes without saying" is first traced to *Scribner's Magazine* in 1878, but it is, of course, much older. Gown, whose Celtic derivation is here disputed, has undergone fluctuations in English usage, after being the ordinary word for a woman's garment in the eighteenth century. We have been more conservative than John Bull, and "in the United States it has always been the current word." Grab, employed intransitively, takes only *at* in England, while we feel free to use *for* also. A little dry humor lights up the record of the expression "good time," which Pepys found handy in 1666, and Carlyle, Trollope, and Stevenson did not disdain. "Now regarded as an Americanism," notes the editor. Good is another of the major articles of this number. "To the good," or with the balance on the right side, crops up in the *Spectator* in 1882. Goody-goody is referred to Samuel Smiles in 1871. The formal development of Good-by out of "God be with you" is very curious. God is another voluminous rubric; and the fact that in Gothic and Old Norse it always follows the neuter declension, leads to the remark that "the neuter substantive, in its original heathen use, would answer rather to Latin *numen* than to Latin *deus.*" Gloat, though common in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, was unknown to Dr. Johnson; and in 1755, Glee, meaning 'merriment,' was to him a purely comic word. Milton's use of Gloom nine times for 'darkness' seems to have extinguished the sense for a time; it is next seized in 1717. The poets, by the way, let slip a sonorous word in the obsolete Governail, whether for 'rudder,' 'government,' 'reign,' 'state,' or 'behavior.' Golf, which most Americans sound with the *l,* the Scotch pronounce *gowf;* and *goff,* "somewhat fashionable in England, is an attempt to imitate this." Finally, as Shaksperian has got the better of Shaksperean, Goethian is here preferred to Goethean.

—Volume xxiv. of the Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College consists of Samuel Garman's report on the deep-sea fishes obtained by the *Albatross* expedition under Alexander Agassiz in 1891 in the equatorial Pacific. The area dredged lay east of the Galapagos Archipelago and on a line from it to the peninsula of Lower California. The greatest

depth that rewarded the dredge was 2,232 fathoms, and 900 out of more than 1,200 specimens of fishes secured were bathybial, representing 180 species, of which 85 per cent. were undescribed, as equatorial deep-sea collecting had hardly been attempted before 1891. The result disproves a theory of bipolar distribution, with absence of deep-sea fish from the torrid zone. The forms least capable of migration exhibit the greatest divergences in specific characters. In vertical distribution, temperature counts for much more than pressure, and the bottom having a light of its own (so that blind fish are rare), while the light from the surface reaches to 200 fathoms, the dark intermediate zone is one of passage, not of habitat. There appears to be evidence of a gradual upheaval of the Isthmus of Panama, permitting a commingling of shoal-water fish, while obstructing bathybial interchange. Such are some of Mr. Garman's interesting conclusions in his general introduction to the specific description of the collection. There follow essays on the lateral-canal system and on the distribution of genera (in detail; a valuable list of the known species of deep-sea fishes, showing range and locality; a bibliography, etc. The ninety-seven plates, beautifully executed and curious in a high degree, form a separate volume (xxvi.). The whole work is a model of its kind.

—The second volume of the 'Letters to Washington,' published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. for the Colonial Dames, opens with Washington on the frontiers of Virginia, in command of a force insufficient in numbers for the purpose of defence, and rendered less efficient by the want of pay, clothing, proper food, and a definite plan of operations. The Earl of Loudoun was echoing the complaints of Dinwiddie, and the latter was restive under the apparent obstinacy of the Virginian Colonel. Washington's position was thus a difficult one, for he was obliged to ward off criticism, to temper impracticable orders, and to feed and discipline his troops with little encouragement from his superiors. It was a wholesome training for future service, and taught him that patience and regard for his men which were to be exercised to the full in the wider sphere of the Revolution. These letters of complaint, of correction, and advice point to his wide interests and connections, but leave an impression of thankless labor, until Col. Bouquet came forward, and some design and energy was infused into the campaign. Washington had broken down in health under the pressure of responsibility thrown upon him, but he was again able to bear his share when a military leader was substituted for the good-intentioned but inept and ambitious Dinwiddie. The advice of his friends, to endure all, bore fruit, and he was counted among the advisers of the campaign. This volume closes with Washington's election to the House of Burgesses.

—Although the labor of the editor has been better bestowed and shows an improvement in accuracy over the first volume, some vagaries point to an absence of real appreciation of the responsibility of editorship. There is the same curious introduction of dashes, lines, and interlined words, meaningless in themselves and not illustrating the character of the writing. A half-dozen facsimiles of the letters, scattered through the volumes, would have cost less and been infinitely more suggestive and valuable. Not content with this minute following of the unessential form of the text, Mr. Hamilton adds (*sic*) or a note, assuring the reader of his accuracy. In the face of such parade, what is to be said of the use of Botomworth for Bosomworth, wherever the name is found, although a mere reference to the army list would have prevented such an error? Mr. Hamilton gives no good reason for omitting entire phrases from Dinwiddie's letters. The manuscript may be mutilated, but the letters have been printed by the Virginia Historical Society, and it would have been a simple matter to insert the missing words, thus saving the necessity of consulting both printings to obtain the sense. Where the writers of the letters have exercised so much freedom in spelling, it is somewhat rash to suggest error in the printing, but a few doubts are awakened. As examples may be named *county* on p. 182, which should probably be *country*; "*attain* to influence" on p. 346 is a misprint for *attend*; and a "sure and settled affair" on p. 140 is sometimes read as "*done*," etc. The instances of actual misprints could be multiplied, but the following may serve to show carelessness: Hackett for Halket; Atkins (more than once) for Atkin; Massapipi for Massassipi; and Tulither for Tuliken. Mr. Hamilton will still find occasion for greater care in his readings.

—'The Birds of Rhode Island,' by Reginald Heber Howe, jr., and Edward Sturtevant (Newport), is a privately printed book of about 100 pages, comprising a carefully annotated list of 291 species, with a review of previous works on the same subject, a full bibliography, and a chapter on the migration of birds in Rhode Island. It has been prepared with great care and thoroughness, and is in every way a credit to the authors. It is, moreover, the first attempt at a complete enumeration of the birds of this State. It is neatly printed on excellent paper, is very free from typographical errors, and, with its six half-tone plates, forms a very attractive and authoritative little volume. In the case of the rarer species, the authority for their occurrence is duly stated, each instance of capture being enumerated and duly accredited. As a rule, the annotations relate to the manner of occurrence of the species within the State, and give, in a general way, the dates of arrival and departure of the migratory birds. Three species, formerly more or less abundant, are recorded as extirpated, namely, the Heath Hen, the Wild Turkey, and the Passenger Pigeon. Ten species, most of which have been attributed to the State, have been excluded from the main list on the ground that there is not as yet conclusive evidence of their occurrence. This evinces a spirit of proper discrimination that cannot be too highly commended in the compilation of all similar lists, the value of which so largely depends upon the just separation of the known from the unknown.

—One of the most interesting of modern languages is Hindustani. Formed artificially in Akbar's camp, by the union of two radically different races, it has long lived as the tongue of soldier, bazaar-peddler, and servant, the *lingua franca* of Northern India, adopted perforce by the conquerors much as Saxon was contemptuously employed by the Normans. It has been a language changing from day to day, without literature of any kind to fix it, lasting as a whole but of ephemeral form. It is not only satisfactory to have caught at last this floating composite; the language and literature, such as it is beginning to be, furnish to the student a valuable parallel to the origin of other languages and literatures—for example, English and Albanian. Of the scanty literature that has arisen in the last few decades, very little has hitherto been available without a knowledge of Persian script, and even then what has been written has been difficult of access to those outside of India. A praiseworthy effort on the part of Mr. G. E. Ward goes far to relieve the embarrassment of such as have sought help in this regard. The number of "English ladies who desire to study Hindustani," for whom 'The Bride's Mirror' of Nazir Ahmad has been edited in Roman character with a full vocabulary and copious notes (Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Henry Frowde), will probably be confined to those whom fate has taken to India, but the book will prove useful to the student of language everywhere. For the tale itself as literature (it is a novelette), not much can be said except that it is placid. Its beauty lies in the fact of its being literature, *terra firma*, one of the few islands in the ocean of this shifting speech. Mr. Ward has unfortunately thought out some original ideas on the subject of language in general, and embodied them in an Introduction remarkable for its daring ignorance, as an example of which may serve "Hindustani *êk* (one) derived from Persian *yak*," in evidence of the "fact" that all words must originally have begun with consonants. But we forgive Mr. Ward his Introduction in view of the excellent service he has done in providing a good primer for the study of Hindustani.

GOSSE'S LIFE OF DONNE.—I.

The Life and Letters of John Donne, Dean of St. Paul's. Now for the first time revised and collected by Edmund Gosse, Hon. M.A. of Trinity College, Cambridge, Hon. LL.D. of the University of St. Andrews. 2 vols., 8vo. London: Heinemann; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1899.

No trustworthy account of Donne's life existed before the Rev. Dr. Jessopp contributed a memoir of him to the Dictionary of National Biography. This, though brief, showed such acquaintance with the subject, and such appreciation of Donne's character, as to lead to the expectation that the volume entitled 'John Donne, sometime Dean of St. Paul's,' which Dr. Jessopp published in 1897, would fill the long existing want of a satisfactory biography of the famous poet and preacher. The expectation was only in part fulfilled, for the work was but a sketch, in which the author "dealt with Donne as one of the great leaders of religion in his time," leaving the other sides of his activity comparatively disregarded; and in his preface he resigned the hope "of issuing the life and letters of the great Dean" to Mr. Edmund Gosse, as the man in England best fitted to accomplish the task because of "his subtile sympathy with Donne's poetic genius." "It is from him," said Dr. Jessopp, "that any adequate and elaborate biography is to be looked for." It was consequently with

great interest that the students of Donne anticipated the work of Mr. Gosse and welcomed its appearance.

The material which Dr. Jessopp had been collecting for fifty years he generously placed at Mr. Gosse's disposal. Other material was not wanting. There was, first, the delightful so-called "Life" by Walton, one of the most exquisite pieces of biography in the language, inspired with the enthusiasm of admiring devotion, but as inaccurate and insufficient in its account of Donne's career as it is tender in feeling and delightful in expression. Besides this, there was the confused collection of Donne's letters published by his son in 1651, while other letters were to be found in the 'Cabala' (1651), and in Sir Tobie Matthews's Collection, printed in 1660, and yet other letters and documents, published and unpublished, were to be gathered from various sources, and to be used in what Mr. Gosse calls "perhaps the most imposing task left to the student of Elizabethan and Jacobean literature," and the one "above all others dealing with this literature now required to be performed." While Dr. Jessopp's interest in Donne was mainly in him as a divine, Mr. Gosse declared his to be mainly in him as a poet, for "to me," he says, "Donne is quintessentially a poet." With Dr. Jessopp's aid and promised revision, there was reason for hoping that Mr. Gosse's work would afford an adequate and satisfactory Life of the poet and preacher.

The book has been received in England with a chorus of commendatory notices. The *Athenæum* of November 11, 1899, declared that

"Mr. Gosse's subtle and solid study of John Donne justifies expectation. It will take rank at once, not merely among its author's happiest contributions to the finer understanding of English letters, but also among the all too few masterly biographies of subjects worthy to receive masterly treatment. . . . That anything written by Mr. Gosse upon this particular poet would be full of sympathy, the world knew well; but let it be said at once that the book has other qualities, the possible absence of which did, when it was first announced, fill us with some trepidation. It is a brilliant portrait; it is also a laborious and exact work of literary history. The complicated and disorderly material out of which it was necessarily constructed is full of pitfalls; and the little demon of inaccuracy, who occasionally takes his stand at Mr. Gosse's elbow, has before now tripped him up on this very topic. It would be too much to say that there are no slips and errors of fact in these two bulky volumes; but, after making a careful and detailed examination, we are convinced that, in proportion to the difficulty and minuteness of the work, the total number of desirable corrections is infinitesimally small."

The final words of the *Athenæum's* notice are: "We can only conclude by once more expressing our sense of the debt which English letters owes to Mr. Gosse for his faithful presentment of one of its most unparalleled and fascinating personalities." The *Spectator* of the same date, while finding some points of question in parts of Mr. Gosse's work, asserts that he has laid his readers "under an immense debt of gratitude," and "has rendered a permanent service to literature."

A large part, somewhat more than two hundred pages, of Mr. Gosse's volumes is taken up with a reprint of all the accessible letters of Donne. Few of the one hundred and twenty-nine published by Donne's son are dated, and they are printed in the original and hitherto only edition of them in almost inextricable confusion. Mr. Gosse has rendered good service in doing his best to present them in their due chronological order. Another large part of the volumes is occupied with an account and analysis of Donne's poems and other writings, and the student or lover of the poet is likely to turn to this portion of Mr. Gosse's work with especial interest, because much of Donne's poetry, while it serves to illustrate his strange career and stranger character, presents such difficulties as to require intelligent and appreciative exposition in order that its true merits may be understood—merits which led Ben Jonson, one of the most capable of critics, "to esteem John Donne the first poet in the world in some things."

In his second chapter Mr. Gosse deals with the earliest of Donne's poems, his Satires, of which the first four were probably written when Donne, born in 1573, was hardly more than twenty years old. They are extraordinary performances for a youth. Though rugged in versification, they show as a whole remarkable breadth and keenness of observation and maturity of thought. Mr. Gosse introduces what he has to say of them with an account of the contemporaneous prevalence of this species of poetry in several countries of Europe. He attributes it largely to the influence of Casaubon's lectures at Geneva on Persius, and declares that "it is probably not too much to say that the criticisms of Casaubon created satire, in its exact sense, as a poetic form both in England and France." But though Casaubon lectured upon Persius at some time between 1590 and 1600 at Geneva, his edition of Persius did not appear till 1605, and Mr. Gosse seems to believe that the report of his lectures was so effective in England as to induce not only Donne, but Hall and Marston, who also wrote their satires before 1600, to adopt this poetic form, and so effective in France as to determine the direction of the genius of Régnier, who, born in the same year with Donne, 1573, "tout jeune encore," says his biographer, "songeait à des satires." Such influence of a work of pure scholarship, like Casaubon's notes on Persius, previous to its publication, would be, if well certified, an unexampled fact in literary history. But Mr. Gosse attributes to Casaubon a still more remarkable effect upon European literature. He says: "The edition of Theophrastus which Casaubon was to revolutionize European belles-lettres by publishing in 1598, was still unknown." Casaubon's edition of Theophrastus was indeed a remarkable work, and its notes still remain of value to the student of Greek literature. It was not published in 1598, as Mr. Gosse says, but in 1592, and must then have begun to exert that marvellous revolutionary influence, which, so far as we are aware, has not hitherto been noted by any historian of literature, and is not referred to by Casaubon's most learned and sagacious biographer, the late Mark Pattison.

After general discourse on the Satires of the time, Mr. Gosse proceeds to speak more particularly of those of Donne. In giving an account of the first of them he says: "Incautiously leaving his chamber for the streets of London, Donne is pounced upon by a 'fine, silken, painted fool,' the typical society man, who attaches himself to his arm and sails along with his morose companion." This sentence is not correct. The Satire begins with Donne's bidding a "wild, uncertain" fellow of "refined manners, but ceremonious man," who has sought him in his chamber, to leave him with his books, and not urge him to go out. But finally yielding, he says:

"Io!
I shut my chamber door; and come, let's go."

Now they are in the street, and among the persons whom they meet are "fine, silken, painted fools." Mr. Gosse's inaccuracy in this special instance is of slight moment, but its significance will shortly become apparent.

There is no one of Donne's earlier poems which is of more interest as an illustration of his character than his third Satire. It is an impassioned discourse, addressed to an unknown person, on the need of getting and holding to religion.

"Is not our mistress, fair Religion,
As worthy of all our soul's devotion
As virtue was in the first blinded age?"

Canst thou dare all dangers of sea and earth for mere repute of courage or for sake of gain, and yet, overcome by temptations of the devil, the world, and the flesh, wilt thou, O desperate coward, to thy real foes and His,

"who made thee to stand
Sentinel in His world's garrison, thus yield,
And for forbid wars leave th' appointed field?"

Seek true religion.

But at this injunction the question arises, Where shall true religion be found? One seeks her at Rome, another at Geneva; another accepts her whom he finds at home; another abhors all because all cannot be good; another loves all as one. But thou must allow but one, and that one the right. Distinguish between Truth and Falsehood.

"Believe me this,
He's not of none nor worst, that seeks the best."
"Doubt wisely; in strange way,
To stand inquiring right is not to stray;
To sleep or run wrong, is."

Strive, do hard deeds; seek hard knowledge; keep the truth which thou hast found; accept not thy religion at the command of Pope or King, for souls perish which rather trust the ordinances of men, though claimed to be of God, than God himself.

The whole satire is the utterance of intimate personal conviction; it is full of vigor of thought, no less than of expression, and it is of the more interest because its main conception, that religious truth was not to be found complete in the creed of any one church, was one of Donne's abiding convictions, as appears alike in certain of his letters and of his sermons.

Now concerning this important and significant poem, the general meaning of which is perfectly clear, Mr. Gosse makes the statement: "This is a diatribe against the extravagance and hypocrisy of the Religious Man!" and he further declares that it "is conducted in a darkness unusual even in the writings of Donne." He gives to it more than two pages, in which there is little but what, in the work of a writer of different reputation from that of Mr. Gosse, would be rightly called strange confusion and error.

The best known poems of Donne are his Lyrics. Like his Satires, they mostly belong to his earlier years—years before his marriage in 1601, when he was twenty-eight years old. They are full of the buoyancy, the fancy, the passionateness, the reckless-

ness and insolence of youth. They have a general autobiographical worth, exhibiting Donne as an inconstant but ardent lover of more than one mistress, leading a life in which religion and morality had little share; cynical, of poetic temperament capable of high exaltations and deep depressions, of exquisite delicacy of sentiment and extreme coarseness of mind, according as the spiritual or the sensual elements of his passionate and unbalanced nature had temporary supremacy in the mood of the moment. A few of these lyrics are among the most admirable in the language. No other poet has surpassed Donne in giving exquisite expression to refined and, at the instant, sincere sentiment; but also, no other poet of rank has surpassed him in preference for conceits to simplicity, and of obscure subtilities to limpid clearness of expression, and none has sunk lower in grossness. At his best, Donne is one of the most delightful of poets; at his worst he is detestable.

Mr. Gosse devotes his third chapter to these lyrics, and the reader, recalling that to Mr. Gosse "Donne is quintessentially a poet," is interested to learn what he has to say of these, the completest expression of Donne's poetic faculty. But before many pages are read the discovery is made that, in dealing with these poems, Mr. Gosse would seem, so absolutely unfounded are many of his statements concerning their contents and meaning, not to have read them with even ordinary attention or intelligence. For instance, speaking of a little poem entitled "A Fever," Mr. Gosse says: "In 'A Fever' the mistress of the moment is ill, but it only amuses the lover. The malady is an excuse for a *feu de joie* of conceits; she may die of it for all he really cares." The first stanza is perhaps a sufficient refutation of the charge that his mistress's illness only amuses the lover:

> "Oh, do not die! for I shall hate
> All women so, when thou art gone,
> That thee I shall not celebrate
> When I remember thou wast one."

And the poem closes with the words,

> "For I had rather owner be
> Of thee one hour than all else ever,"

which hardly indicates that she might die for all he really cared.

Again, speaking of another of these lyrics, Mr. Gosse says:

"His sensitive heart is ingenious in self-torture, and to what extremities it still can fling him [*sic*] we read in 'The Blossom.' The lady of the moment has left him a week ago, and in three weeks more he is to meet her in London. In subtle, modulated verse his heart taunts and plagues him, for he no longer knows what he desires nor what he is. His previous adventures have made him cautious, even sceptical, and he will not frankly give way to this sweet, insidious hope. He apostrophizes his own trembling heart, which knows not whether to bide with him or to follow the new and desired mistress" (i. 75).

From this version of the poem let us turn to the poem itself. It begins with one of Donne's loveliest stanzas, in which, addressing the flower, he sets forth its ignorance of its own brief life, and says, "little think'st thou that I shall to-morrow find thee fallen or not at all." In the second stanza he addresses his own heart, that little thinks that to-morrow it must go on a journey with him, leaving her whom he loves. But in the third stanza the heart replies: "If you must go, what's that to me? Here I will stay. You go to friends, and, if your body go, what need your heart?" "Well, then," replies the poet, "stay here, but know

> "'A naked, thinking heart, that makes no show,
> Is to a woman but a kind of ghost.
> How shall she know my heart, or, having none,
> Know thee for one?'"

And the poem closes with the direction of the poet to his heart: "Meet me at London, then, twenty days hence; I will give you there to another friend."

If the reader will now turn back to Mr. Gosse's words, he will see that what we called Mr. Gosse's version of this little poem should rather be called a perversion of it. It is inconceivable how, with the poem before him, he could thus misrepresent it. This is not carelessness, it is a procedure for which there are no words; nor is this a single instance of such procedure. One more must suffice. Mr. Gosse says of "The Apparition" that the "horror of his situation" overwhelms the poet "as he tosses between sleeping and waking." This is pure invention; the poem is a threat to his mistress that, when by her scorn he is dead, his ghost shall visit her and terrify her. The strangest part of Mr. Gosse's dealing with these poems is that he appears entirely unconscious of its nature, so that, after giving his false account of "The Apparition," he actually prints the poem itself, as if he fancied that it justified his statement concerning it.

Mr. Gosse has framed out of some of Donne's lyrics and elegies an ugly elaborate story of what he calls "a deplorable but eventful liaison" with a married woman of some social position. He declares that "we can reconstruct the story almost without danger of a mistake." But the reader will now not be surprised to learn that the narrative, as woven by Mr. Gosse, is a pure chimera, the result simply of his method of misreading the contents of the poems. The poems justify any ill conclusion in regard to Donne's illicit loves, but afford no material for a connected narrative of the course of any one of his love adventures.

THE ABORIGINES OF CENTRAL AUSTRALIA.

The Native Races of Central Australia. By Baldwin Spencer, M.A., and F. J. Gillen, Special Magistrate and Sub-Protector of the Aborigines, Alice Springs, South Australia. The Macmillan Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 671.

Regarded from an ethnological point of view, this is one of the most satisfactory works recently published. In fact, so thoroughly is it done that it is probably within bounds to assert that a careful study of its pages will make us as well acquainted with the natives of Central Australia—their social and political organization, manners and customs, arts and industries, traditions, myths, rites, and ceremonies—as we are with tribes that are nearer home, and with whose institutions we are supposed to be more familiar.

Important as such thorough investigations are at all times, they have, in this case, an added interest for us in so far as they necessitate a radical change in the opinion we have hitherto held of the Australian's position in the scale of progress. Instead of grovelling in the lowest depths of savagery, as we have been accustomed to picture him, it is now in order to assign him a place which (except, perhaps, in the development of a few industries) is but little if any inferior to that occupied by our own Indians. Certainly, in the capacity he has shown for social and political organization, he has nothing to fear from a comparison with his savage compeers here or elsewhere; and in everything that relates to his intercourse with his neighbors (p. 32), and with other tribes, to say nothing of the consideration with which he treats his women and children (pp. 50 *et seq.*), and especially the old and infirm, he is not behind, if, indeed, he is not, mentally and morally, somewhat in advance of the standard by which we assume to measure his progress.

Of course, this is but another way of saying that these tribes, like savages everywhere, have the virtues and vices of their condition, and, consequently, that resemblances more or less striking are to be expected in their customs, institutions, and mode of life generally. This, we need not add, is apparent even to the most casual reader; and yet, in spite of the uniformity that is to be found at the base of most of their institutions, there are differences existing, not only between tribes that are far apart, but among those in close proximity to each other, so numerous and so pronounced in character as to call for an explanation. Take, for example, the question of descent (pp. 34, 60, 70, etc.), and we find that in some of these tribes it is in the paternal, and in others in the maternal, line, and that "it is not yet possible to say which of the two methods is the more widely practised" or the more primitive. So, too, in regard to the system of organization known as the totemic, and to some of the obligations and limitations to which it gives rise. Among the Urabunna, for instance, totems (p. 114) govern marriage, and children belong to the mother's totem; while among their next neighbors—the Arunta—totems (pp. 116, 121, etc.) have nothing to do with marriage, though the tribe, like all central Australians, is divided (p. 55) into two exogamous intermarrying groups; and a child's totem, owing to a belief (pp. 127, 202, 512, 523, etc.) in what may be termed the theory of reincarnation, "will sometimes (p. 115) be found to be the same as that of the father, sometimes the same as that of the mother, and not infrequently it will be different from that of either parent." Other differences there are (pp. 73, 167, 467) in the privileges and restrictions that belong to this particular system of organization, just as there are (pp. 35, 151, 228, 305) in some of the ceremonies connected with the rite of initiation, and in a few of their arts (pp. 596, 611, etc.) and industries. It is unnecessary, however, to refer to them in detail, as they are one and all believed to be of degree and not of kind, and hence do not indicate a difference in race. On this point our authors hold very decided opinions, for, after telling us (pp. 54, 117, etc.), that "this great continent was most probably peopled by men who entered from the north," they add that

"The most striking fact in regard to them at the present day is, that, over the whole continent, so far as is known, we can detect a community of customs and social organizations sufficient to show that all the tribes inhabiting various parts are the offspring of ancestors who, prior to their migrating in various directions across the continent, and thus giving rise to groups separated to a great extent from one another by physical barriers, already practised certain customs and had the germs of an organization which

has been developed along different lines in different localities."

In other words, they hold, and, as we think, justly, that the fact of the existence of a custom, or of a form of organization, among two or more tribes is a proof of uniformity that cannot be gainsaid by differences that may have supervened in the way such a custom or system is observed and followed.

Among the other questions that are here discussed and have for us a special interest, may be mentioned the fact that, in declaring their belief (pp. 56, 59, 108) in the former existence of group marriage among these people, our authors bear out Morgan's theory on this point, though the contrary opinion, as held by McLennan, Curr, and others, has, of late, been much in vogue. We are also told, somewhat to our surprise, that "marriage by capture [pp. 103 and 554], which has been so frequently described as characteristic of Australian tribes, is the very rarest way in which a Central Australian secures a wife," thus, of course, doing away with the account, once familiar to most of us, of a band of savages lying in wait by a waterhole against the coming of the lubras for water, when such of them as were required were seized, "and, if they attempted to make any resistance, they were struck down insensible and dragged off." So, too, contrary to what we have hitherto been taught, we are now to learn that the practice of sub-incision could not have been instituted for the purpose of preventing or even checking procreation, for the simple reason (p. 264) that it does nothing of the kind. This is proved by the fact that "every man without exception throughout the central area, in all tribes in which the rite is practised, is sub-incised. . . . He must be before he is allowed to take a wife, and infringement of this rule would simply mean death to him if found out." Infanticide, not sub-incision, is said to be the explanation of the small size of the average family, and it is resorted to "not with any idea at all of regulating the food supply, so far as the adults are concerned, but simply from the point of view that, if the mother is suckling one child, she cannot properly provide food for another, quite apart from the question of carrying two children about." Powerful as this practice must have been in keeping down the population, it was probably not as destructive in its effects as was the belief in sorcery. Among them, for instance (and the same thing will apply to our Indians), "there is no such thing as belief in natural death; however old or decrepit a man or woman may be when this takes place, it is at once supposed that it has been brought about by the magic influence of some enemy, and in the normal condition of the tribe the death of one individual is followed by the murder of some one else [pp. 48, 476], who is supposed to be guilty of having caused the death."

In an appendix (C) we have a table of the bodily measurements of twenty men and ten women, the majority of whom belonged to the Arunta tribe. Limiting ourselves to the men and to what is termed the cephalic index, we find (p. 44) that it ranges from 68.8, the extreme of dolichocephalism, through all the different degrees of mesaticephalism to 80.55, which is just within the limit of subbrachycephalism. As the group of which this tribe forms one has been, for "long ages" (p. 54), "locally isolated" and "shut off from contact with other peoples," the variation here noted would seem to show that there is practically no limit to the differences that may be found in the head-form of a people of relatively pure breed, and, consequently, that the cephalic index is of little or no value as an indication of race.

In conclusion it may not be out of place to call attention to the fact that, rude as is the Australians' code of morals, "their conduct is governed by it [pp. 8, 12, 46], and any known breaches are dealt with both surely and severely." Especially is this true of the infractions of any regulation governing the intercourse between the sexes. These are punished by death (p. 110) or in some other severe manner, and, curiously enough, the reason assigned for such severity is (pp. 99, 100, etc.) that the offence is against the tribe, and "has no relation to the feelings of the individual." In thus transferring (p. 15) the duty of punishment from the individual to the tribe, these people may be said to have reached a level of development not yet attained by some of us who are rated much higher in the scale of progress. Generosity, we may add, is one of their leading features (p. 48), as it is always their custom to give a share of their food, or of what they may possess, to their fellows, and particularly (p. 51) to the children and to the aged and infirm, who are unable to provide for themselves. Of course, there were times of scarcity, and possibly they were frequent here, owing to the inhospitable nature of the soil. But when times are favorable the "black fellow," so we are told (p. 53, 54), is light-hearted, lives in the present, and gives no thought as to what the morrow may bring forth.

"At night time men, women, and children gather round the common camp-fires, talking and singing their monotonous chants hour after hour, until one after the other they drop out of the circle, going off to their different camps, and then at length all will be quiet, except for the occasional cry of a child who, as not seldom happens, rolls over into the fire and has to be comforted or scolded into quietness. . . . Granted always that his food supply is abundant, it may be said that the life of the Australian native is, for the most part, a pleasant one."

LYON PLAYFAIR.

Memoirs and Correspondence of Lyon Playfair, First Baron Playfair of St. Andrews. By Wemyss Reid. Harper & Bros. 1899. 8vo, pp. 487.

The ambition of Lyon Playfair was at first directed towards scientific eminence. A pupil of two of the greatest chemists that a man born in 1818 could have for masters, Graham and Liebig, he made several discoveries, as all chemists do. The chief of these was that of the nitroprussides. A coffee-colored solution is formed by adding nitric acid to ferrocyanide of potassium, and something peculiar and interesting was known to be contained in it. To neutralize the acid and isolate the resulting salts was no great feat, especially since they yield magnificent crystals. Had Playfair gone on to elucidate the constitution of their acid, he would have taken a considerable step; but this he failed to do. Apart from this, his two chief researches were carried on in collaboration, the one with Bunsen, the other with Joule—men of such fertility that one naturally attributes the main ideas of the work to them. One at least of Playfair's own theories—that the specific gravities of the elements are proportional to different powers of their atomic weights—is downright absurd. On the whole, the evidence is that his purely scientific genius was not extraordinary. That this was the opinion of Faraday is indicated by a letter in which, wishing to recommend Playfair, he limits himself to testifying that "you are able to expound the truths of experimental science in a clear, logical, audible, and to me satisfactory manner."

On the other hand, statesmen like Sir Robert Peel and Prince Albert were struck at their first interviews with him by the evidences of his practical resource, tact, *coup d'œil*, power of elaborating a workable plan, and energy; and, having once tried him in those tasks where physical science and the art of government overlap, would never thereafter allow him leisure for the pursuit of pure science. Thus he was carried in spite of himself into the business for which he seemed born. The ease with which he surmounted difficulties, both on great occasions and on little ones, was pretty to see. "I arrived," he says, in the fragmentary autobiography upon which Mr. Reid builds, "at Kranichstein on Sunday morning. The Prince and his visitors having gone to chapel, and also the servants, Princess Alice kindly remained behind, in order to welcome me on my arrival. While we were conversing, a note came from Prince Louis to say that he would bring the Lutheran minister to the midday dinner. This seemed to disturb the Princess, who told me that her table was small, and that there was absolutely no room for an additional guest, and as all the servants were at church, the table could not be relaid." What could the Princess expect Playfair to do about that? But people had learned to feel that there was no kind of difficulty which this politico-scientist was not fit to cope with. "I reminded her that she used to entertain me at the Swiss Cottage at Osborne when she was a child, and that I knew she could lay a table better than servants. She was pleased with the suggestion, and we went to the dining-room, took all the things from the table, put in a new leaf, and rearranged everything before the party returned to the house." A man of such American efficiency could not but be liked in palaces; and a little incident is as good evidence as a great one of his practical resource.

Feats of nice tact are not to be explained to all sorts of readers in a few words. Suffice it to say that functions were continually devolving upon Playfair to exercise which, without disastrous friction, was a task harder than ever the guardian of a fairy princess set to semi-miraculous suitor. But Playfair had the art of applying a little drop of lubricant good sense just where it would insinuate itself into the closest bearing. He usually went straight to the persons from whom antagonism was likely to develop. When the Great Exhibition of 1851 was preparing, an executive committee was first appointed by the Society of Arts, and as this did not succeed in executing much, it was supplemented by a Royal Commission of politicians. Still the manufacturers hung back, and at last Playfair was appointed "Special Commissioner," with powers just large enough to insure perpetual jealousies, but not large enough to make these jealousies unimportant. Sir Henry Cole had been the

mainspring of the Exhibition from first to last. The reminiscences contain the following narrative:

"When I joined the Executive of the Exhibition, Sir Henry Cole scarcely knew me, and, like the other members, was naturally displeased that I was placed in a position of confidence superior to theirs. On the second day after my appointment I met Sir Henry Cole in Whitehall, at the door of the Home Office. He told me frankly that he was going to see the Secretary of State to resign his connection with the Exhibition, and that his letter of resignation was then in his pocket. I took his arm and walked up and down Whitehall. On asking him whether he believed the ship was sinking, and that the Exhibition would be a total failure, he frankly admitted that he did, as the state of indifference of the manufacturing districts rendered failure almost certain. I then urged that, as he was the real pilot of the vessel, it was a wrong act to desert the sinking ship. The country could be aroused to the importance of the undertaking, and my work could be well separated from his, for I intended to visit the chief manufacturing centres in order to create a public sentiment in its support. Our conversation was mutually satisfactory, and we walked to the Exhibition office together, and his letter of resignation was destroyed. Had the accidental meeting not taken place, the Great Exhibition would never have been held, for its mainspring would have been broken. After this interview, if jealousies still continued, none were ever shown, for all the members of the Executive worked loyally to bring the undertaking to a successful issue."

The excellence of Playfair's *coup d'œil* was shown in this same business. That he should go straight to the manufacturers was only what his invariable habit dictated. But that he should have seen, in the midst of a confused state of affairs, that what was requisite to bring the manufacturers into hearty coöperation was simply to present to them a new classification of the objects of the Exhibition, such that each of them should clearly comprehend the parts that concerned him—this was what nobody else but Playfair had had the perspicacity to see, or was even able to see after it was pointed out, until the result proved his insight. The same affair illustrated also Playfair's capacity for elaborating a feasible plan. For he had not only to construct a detailed classification in which everything offered for exhibition should find a suitable section that seemed to ask particularly for that very thing, but he had so to construct it that the manufacturers would approve of it; that the Prince, who was wedded to a highly German classification of his own (in which most things either had no place or several places), would yield to it; and, most difficult of all, such that French and other foreign commissioners would surrender their own prepossessions, and cordially accept the new arrangement. But Playfair had all the elements of his problem so thoroughly studied and well in hand that, when it came to the execution, there was not a serious hitch.

As for his energy, we can compare it to nothing but that of a terrier in a room full of rats, with such incredible swiftness did the wickedest difficulties get their quietus under his action. It cannot be better evidenced than by enumerating say a dozen of the main achievements of his life. First, he greatly stimulated scientific agriculture in England by translating Liebig's books and conducting Liebig himself through the country; second, he considerably reduced the death-rate in England by his activity upon the Commission on the Health of Towns; third, if it had not been for him, the Great Exhibition of 1851 would certainly have been a failure, and probably no great international exposition would have been held—to the immense loss of material civilization; fourth, the whole science department, at least, of the establishments at South Kensington is entirely due to his management, together with the School of Science; fifth, he gave the initial impetus to technical education in England; sixth, the regulations of 1874 for filling places in the British Civil Service are due to him; seventh, he invented post-cards in 1870, and caused them to be brought into use; eighth, he considerably furthered first steps towards realization of the great ideal of general international arbitration; ninth, he was instrumental in bringing the Venezuelan imbroglio to a peaceful termination, which was finally effected by the adoption of his suggestions; tenth, he determined the choice of coal used by British steamers; eleventh, he saved the causes of vaccination and vivisection; twelfth, he stopped the cattle plague in England by severe measures. This is not all he did, but we stop the list at a dozen achievements.

At the close of the Exhibition, Playfair received a gold medal, the companionship of the Bath, and the office of Gentleman Usher in the household of the Prince Consort. The Exhibition produced a profit of £190,000, and the question arose what should be done with this money and with the building. It was the Prince's idea that an institution should be founded. The House of Commons granted £150,000 additional, and the South Kensington estates were purchased. Playfair now made a tour of Northern Europe and Austria in order to study their educational systems, with special reference to science and technology. Coming home, he made a crusade in favor of what is called in England "technical education." This he did for the sake of its effect on British industry and civilization rather than for the young men to be educated; and the benefit near and remote to Great Britain at large has been immense. In 1858 he was appointed Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh, but he was so weighed down with duties imposed upon him by Government that he accomplished little purely scientific work. He did a great deal for educational methods there. In 1868 he was elected member of Parliament for the University of Edinburgh, being a Liberal representing a Conservative constituency; and he gave up his professorship. In 1873 he was made Postmaster-General. In 1874 the Gladstone Ministry went out, and Disraeli appointed Playfair Chairman of the Civil-Service Commission, which established the new system called the "Playfair Scheme." In 1875 he was influential in the selection of Hartington as leader of the Opposition, though he would have preferred Forster. In 1877 he first visited the United States, and the next year married a young lady of Boston. In 1880 he was tendered the post of first whip, but declined it, unwisely. He was appointed Chairman of the Committee of the Whole, as we should call it, and was obliged to bear the brunt of the *clôture* odium. In 1883 he resigned and was made Knight Commander of the Bath, or rather he supposed he had been, for he neglected the formality of receiving the accolade, so that he never was legally Sir Lyon Playfair. In 1885 he was elected to Parliament from South Leeds. In 1886 he was appointed Vice-President of the Council, practically Minister of Education in the House of Commons. In 1887 he headed a deputation who presented a memorial in favor of general arbitration to President Cleveland. In 1892 he was raised to the peerage, and made Lord-in-Waiting. In 1895 he received the honor of the Grand Cross of the Bath. He died in May, 1898.

It is delightful to read the biography of a man to whom life must have afforded a constant series of surprises to find himself so much cleverer than he had supposed. No wonder he was gay, sunny, sociable, entertaining, and affectionate. It is to be remarked that his peculiar good fortune never corrupted him in any way; for certainly a little healthy conceit is no fault, but a necessary quality. Without something like this, Playfair could not have passed through two periods of extreme unpopularity with such perfect equanimity as he did. The Life by Mr. Wemyss Reid brings out Playfair's character quite thoroughly, considering that it is one of those biographies which are prepared with the coöperation of intimate relatives of the subject. No little skill in the art of bookmaking has been put forth upon it. It is crammed with Playfair's amusing anecdotes, and is altogether a difficult book to drop. The index is thoroughly well executed.

The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Collected and edited by Paul Leicester Ford. Vol. X. and last. 1816-1826. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Mr. Ford himself will, we believe, be the last person to reproach us with delay in noticing the completion of his severe, yearlong task, which he has already well forgotten, seeking pastures new wherein to frolic with his historic imagination, and winning a multitude of readers who will never resort to his precious Jefferson volumes.

In this final instalment the veteran statesman links himself with the next generation, now gone from the stage, by his panicky reprobation (January, 1816) of the Rev. Lyman Beecher for his "plan to establish '*a qualified religious instructor* over every thousand souls in the United States,'" the South not excepted. This he calls "the most bold and impudent stride New England has ever made in arrogating an ascendancy over the rest of the Union." But Jefferson could neither foresee Dr. Beecher's futile endeavor to suppress anti-slavery discussion at Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, nor his daughter's great tract of 'Uncle Tom.' In 1825 he professes to Fanny Wright his interest in her dreams for the abolition of slavery, but his views on gradual emancipation with colonization, elsewhere expressed, show him (like Henry Clay subsequently) unwilling to abate one jot of the slave-owner's pecuniary title to his property in human beings. There is also a single mention of Webster (December, 1824), whose visit to Monticello is recorded in his 'Private Correspondence,' which Mr. Ford fitly reproduces. Jefferson correctly thought Webster "likely to become of great weight in our government."

It is, however, the Spanish question which gives the more striking modernity to these letters. Jefferson had no doubt, in February, 1816, considering our sympathy with the revolted South American colonies, "that a war is brewing between us and Spain."

But when the bloody struggle had gone on five years longer he thought it demonstrated that "these people were not yet sufficiently enlightened for self-government," and had better patch up an accommodation with the mother country "until they shall be sufficiently trained, by education and habits of freedom, to walk safely by themselves." But he adds, with a momentary glimpse of the *fin de siècle* Jingo, "You see, my dear sir, how easily we prescribe for others a cure for their difficulties, while we cannot cure our own."

Meanwhile (1823) Cuba looms up as "a speck of war to us," and Jefferson anticipates with complacency the spectacle of England and the United States exercising a joint protectorate over the island. "She joins us too in a guarantee of the independence of Cuba, with the consent of Spain, and removes thus this bone of contention between us." Cuba would then be "nearly as valuable to us as if it were our own." However, on learning that England's interests there are not "quite as strong as those of the United States," he "must retract an opinion founded on an error of fact," and his standing dread of England returns in force. He has "ever looked on Cuba as the most interesting addition which could ever be made to our system of states," yet would accept its independence "with peace and the friendship of England, rather than its association at the expense of war and her enmity."

The numerous references to slavery are the most suggestive (and melancholy) portions of this correspondence. Jefferson is too old to take an active part in removing the evil, and in 1817 has "not perceived the growth of this disposition in the rising generation, of which [he] once had sanguine hopes." When the Missouri agitation arose, he saw only the Southern side, considering the issue sectional and partisan; "not a moral question, but one merely of power." "All know that permitting the slaves of the South to spread into the West will not add one being to that unfortunate condition, . . . will dilute the evil everywhere, and facilitate the means of getting finally rid of it" —with a fling at "the noisy pretenders to exclusive humanity." His scheme of emancipation and forcible expatriation (why is it that the follies of pro-slavery philanthropists are forgotten in decrying the immediatism of Northern abolitionists?), he was aware, involved "some constitutional scruples" such as he was an adept in swallowing. "The separation of infants from their mothers, too, would produce some scruples of humanity. But this would be straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel." Never did it enter his thoughts to ask consent of the freedmen to deport them. While the slaves numbered (in 1824) a million and a half, he thought them within control for colonization. "But six million (which a majority of those now living will see them attain), and one million of these fighting men, will say, 'We will not go.' "

The World's Orators. Vol. I.: Orators of Ancient Greece. Edited by G. C. Lee. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

This is the first of a series of ten volumes designed to present to English readers such masterpieces of oratory, in chronological order, as shall "indicate the development of the different schools of oratory from the classic periods down to the present day." That this is as a whole a very ambitious undertaking its promoters appear to be entirely conscious. Whether a series that devotes three volumes to the Orators of America, two to the Orators of England, and one to the Orators of Greece can be said to demonstrate their sense of proportion, is quite another question. Meanwhile we are concerned only with their conception of representative Greek oratory, and the use to which it may be put in the form in which they offer it to the reader. The selection of Greek masterpieces of rhetoric from Homer to Deinarchus has been, we should say, wisely made. Where fresh translations were called for, as in the case of Gorgias and Antiphon, Mr. Mitchell Carroll has supplied an adequate version. Where standard translations existed they have been used. The introductory essay, by Mr. Carroll, gives a clear account of the chief characteristics and tendencies of Greek oratory. The notes affixed to the several orations provide the essential facts about their authors.

Naturally there is, in all this, very little room for comment. Granted the need for such a work, it was hardly possible to go wrong in putting together standard English translations of Greek orators, and introducing the collection with a few well-chosen words. But before one is committed to applaud the appearance of nine more volumes of the same size, one may fairly stop to ask who will read them, and why. It will be recognized that the interest of the present volume, at any rate, is purely academic. A modern orator trains his natural gift by contact with men, not books; or, if he seeks to improve his style by the study of oratorical masterpieces, he will turn to Burke, or, more probably, to some orator of his own generation. We cannot imagine a politician about to speak on the navy estimates looking up Demosthenes "On the Navy Boards" for a tip, nor Krüger diving into the "Philippics" for invectives against the British Government. On the other hand, the student of literary form knows well enough that he cannot get anything more than the merest adumbration of the style of Demosthenes from the best possible translation. The ideas may be faithfully represented, the rhythm of the periods retained, but one might as well try to illustrate on a piano the technique of a great violinist as attempt to convey in English the effects gained for the Greek ear by the finest Greek prose. As for such a writer as the Sophist Gorgias, whose thoughts are all in pairs, who balances his ideas in carefully planned antitheses, it is quite as impossible to reproduce his ingenuity by the instrument of another language. It is, then, the historical interest that will be served by such a series. To historical students, or to students who wish to observe the development of rhetoric and the subject-matter of oratory throughout the ages, such a series should prove most useful. Of course, a thorough student would have to supplement by deeper researches such a view of Greek oratory as he obtains in this volume, which cannot pretend to be exhaustive.

The general get-up of the book is excellent. The type, which at first bewilders the eye, wins favor as one grows used to it. The proof-reading has been well done. On p. 80, for Shuckburg read Shuckburgh. The Latinized "Hercules" is out of place in a translation from the Greek, now that "Heracles" is well established in English.

Darwinism and Lamarckism, Old and New. Four Lectures by Frederick Wollaston Hutton, F.R.S., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899. 12mo, pp. 226.

To improve the prevailing estimate of Darwinism appears to be the aim of this essay. From the matter as taught by Darwin it puts aside some portions, modifies others, and in various ways attempts reduction of the general confusion enveloping it. The purpose is a firmer establishment; the result falls short of what is worked for with such zeal and energy, and is negative. The author concedes that Darwinism and the modern theory of evolution are two very different things, but protests the statement that Darwin's "flock has scattered, and that the great theory he so successfully reared is in danger of falling to pieces." The doctrine in this book varies from that of either Darwin or Wallace; it is less complex and more consistent. Pangenesis is dropped entirely, part of sexual selection is cut away, and artificial selection is thrown out as radically different, regardless of the fact that with it goes much of the so-called proof of natural selection. The following summary is made up of definitions by the author:

The new Darwinism is natural selection, to which methods of isolation have been added. Natural selection is at present the only known efficient cause of progress; it is a theory of the origin of species and higher groups by the preservation of variations; it is merely a process of picking out useful variations, no matter how they have arisen; it is also a method for the evolution of adaptive characters only, because the elimination is for the benefit of those who remain—that is, for the benefit of the selected; it is a selection taking place, as it were, by and among the individuals themselves. It is an internal principle, and may be called intrinsic selection; in all cases it must be a struggle with death as the penalty of being vanquished, because, without elimination by death, there can be no selection and no isolation. It is a powerful cause of divergence between different species and genera, but cannot by itself originate divergent evolution; it is not so much natural selection as natural elimination, for it works not by the survival of the fittest, but by the destruction of the least fit. It can propel a species only in one direction unless isolation steps in and divides it into smaller groups. In combination with inheritance and variation, it is cumulative, but (and this is important to notice) it is cumulative only by selecting the best varieties of each generation. It cannot make one species divide into two, but actually prevents such a thing from coming about. It can hardly come into play in the early stages of a variation, or when competition is checked by physical isolation; it isolates beneficial variations by killing off the others. The principle of selection does not necessarily lead to improvement—it cannot by itself originate or improve; if, however, an improved variety appears, the improvement is at once made permanent and diffused through the species by the action of selection. It has no power if the individuals are not competing, and it is in no way con-

cerned with the origin of the differences—the differences must be there before selection can act. Finally, it does not explain all the changes that have taken place, but only a certain number of them.

The arguments in support of this doctrine are suppositive, assumptive, and prophetic. Their style is familiar:

"Take the evolution of the eye. Suppose that, in a number of eyeless individuals, the nerve of some portion of the skin of one of them was slightly sensitive to light. This one, being able to distinguish day from night, would have an advantage over other individuals in escaping its enemies, and thereby it will be one of those that survive, on the principle of selection; and in the next generation there will be, by the law of inheritance, several individuals endowed with this same power of distinguishing day from night. These, in their turn, will survive; and at last all the individuals of the species will have the same faculty. This will be the result of selection; but selection did not make the nerves of the first individuals sensitive to light, and it is powerless to improve the nerves of the offspring; what it can do is to bring all the individuals up to the level of the best."

"The individuals that die will usually be those that are least adapted for living—either for procuring food or for escaping enemies."

The individuals upon which, in times of severe competition, death from starvation, enemies, diseases, or accidents, will fall heaviest are the young, the laden females, and the old. The competing individual in the foregoing is supposed to be superior to all competitors at all periods of his existence; infancy, temporary weakness, age are all supposed away. The field has been considerably narrowed, but the theory is still "in the air"; the absolute essentials in the origin of species still appear to be variation, use, heredity, and some form of isolation. It is not yet satisfactorily proved that selection is a necessity, or that, when existing, it is other than a result of accidental conditions. Useful and beneficial in the employ of Darwinians are synonymous. Had Darwinism originally appeared as now, it would have been recognized as only a modification of Lamarck's theory.

Lamarckism is given equal space in the title; it occupies about a fifth of the discussion, and is not handled at all as if the author loved it. He is making a case against it, and it is to be expected that the mention of facts favoring the Lamarckian contention may be followed by something like this: "But many of these, perhaps all, can be also explained by natural selection, and furnish, therefore, unsatisfactory evidence"; or, "As it is useful, we cannot doubt that it has been developed by natural selection." From the text we do not get a very clear idea of Lamarck's theory, either as left by its founder, or as accepted by most Americans. Approximately, the theory of variation and of the origin of varieties, species, and higher groups preferred in this country may be stated thus: Change in the condition of animals and plants brings about changes in their needs, which, in turn, compel changes in the efforts to satisfy them; persisted in, these changed efforts become habitual, and induce individual variations to harmonize with effort and use in the organs affected; a tendency to such variation, and in time to some extent the variations, are transmitted by heredity; and thus, the variations accumulating from generation to generation, varieties are formed which ultimately become species or higher groups with or without the aid of isolation. How this agrees with the teachings of Lamarck may be seen by the following from his statements:

"Tout changement un peu considérable et ensuite maintenu dans les circonstances où se trouve chaque race d'animaux, opère en elle un changement réel dans leurs besoins; tout changement dans les besoins des animaux nécessite pour eux d'autres actions pour satisfaire aux nouveaux besoins et, par suite, d'autres habitudes; tout nouveau besoin nécessitant de nouvelles actions pour y satisfaire, exige de l'animal qui l'éprouve, soit l'emploi plus fréquent de telle de ses parties dont auparavant il faisoit moins d'usage, ce qui la développe et l'agrandit considérablement, soit l'emploi de nouvelles parties que les besoins font naître insensiblement en lui, par des efforts de son sentiment intérieur."

"Or, tout changement acquis dans un organe par une habitude d'emploi suffisante pour l'avoir opéré, se conserve ensuite par la génération, s'il est commun aux individus qui, dans la fécondation, concourent ensemble à la reproduction de leur espèce. Enfin, ce changement se propage, et passe ainsi dans tous les individus qui se succèdent et qui sont soumis aux mêmes circonstances, sans qu'ils aient été obligés de l'acquérir par la voie qui l'a réellement créé."

"Les besoins, toujours occasionnés par les circonstances, et ensuite les efforts soutenus pour y satisfaire, ne sont pas bornés dans leurs résultats, à modifier, c'est-à-dire, à augmenter ou diminuer l'étendue et les facultés des organes; mais ils parviennent aussi à déplacer ces mêmes organes, lorsque certains de ces besoins en font une nécessité."

Because adherents have usually kept propositions of their own in the foreground, and because opponents, to secure standing for their theories, have found it necessary to detract from it as much as possible, Lamarckism has not received the attention to which it is entitled.

Cambridge Compositions. Edited by R. D. Archer-Hind and R. D. Hicks. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

Nova Anthologia Oxoniensis. Edited by Robinson Ellis and A. D. Godley. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

Florilegium Latinum. Edited by F. St. J. Thackeray and E. D. Stone. London and New York: John Lane. 1899.

In the face of all that we hear about the passing of Greek and Latin verse-making, these three volumes are good evidence that men are still left in England who are masters of that art of graceful expression and correctness of style. If the art is really to become a lost one, here are permanent records of the proficiency which the end of the nineteenth century has reached in it. As one turns these pages and notes everywhere extraordinary felicities of language and evidences of perfect familiarity with classic idiom, the wonder grows that a school capable of such sympathy with the style and form of the Greek and Roman poets should do so little, comparatively speaking, that is convincing in the emendation and elucidation of their texts. Perhaps this is because the English have made verse-composition too much of a fetish, stopping to worship it as something adorable in itself instead of proceeding to use its lessons as part of the equipment of the philologian.

To the student the principal interest in these volumes lies, we think, in the opportunity they offer for comparisons between the treatment, by different scholars, of the same English originals. Thus, for Greek verse, with the Oxford volume, pages 22 and 254, compare Cambridge, pages 336 and 246; for Latin verse, with 'Florilegium,' pages 108 and 160, compare Cambridge, pages 90 and 108. Again, it is interesting to see how Prof. Butcher's Latin version of Wordsworth's "Ode on Intimations of Immortality" in the 'Florilegium' (page 200) differs from his version of the same poem in Cambridge (page 18), and again to compare with these two the version of the Provost of Oriel, in Oxford (page 7). Thus, for

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy.
Shades of the prison-house begin to close
Upon the growing Boy:
But he beholds the light, and whence it flows,
He sees it in his joy."

Butcher writes:

Caeli circumvolat annos
lux teneros; puero mox carceris ingruit horror
crescenti, tamen is lucemque agnoscit et unde
derivatur, ovans.

And Monro:

Vivimus infantes haud parvo lumine divum:
paullatim urgeri tenebris et carcere caeco
incipiunt pueri; tamen illi luminis oras
dispiciunt, fontemque ipsum, gaudentque tuendo.

Then Prof. Campbell's Greek iambics (Oxford, page 20) and Mr. Greene's Latin elegiacs ('Flor.,' page 19) from Sir Henry Wotton's "Happy Life" afford another fruitful opportunity for comparative study of the two types. Of a different sort is Prof. Hardie's version, in the style of Horace's satires, of Thackeray on "Literary Snobs" (Oxford, page 51); we wish we had space for this, since it reads more like real Latin than almost any other attempt in the whole collection. For, as a rule, the chief value of a "copy of verses" (to any but the writer thereof) lies in the warning it conveys against the utter inadequacy of translation (whether from English to a foreign tongue or vice versa) to preserve the life and essence of the work which it strives to represent. We gayly translate from the ancient languages into English, but when a man meets with one of his favorite English poems made over into Greek or Latin (even by a master hand), the tables are turned, and he begins to understand how unsatisfactory even the best translation from the classics into English must always be. Plenty of proof of this may be found in these collections. For instance, here are Sapphics by Prof. Postgate (Cambridge, page 41):

Sole qua fulgent propriore terrae
alta desertae, digitis reduncis
haeret ad rupem, mediumque cingunt
caerula caeli.
Desuper rugas simulante lapsu
ire Neptunum specula superbus
respicit summa; ruit inde praeceps
fulminis instar.

What was the English for them?

A Manual of Coaching. By Fairman Rogers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

This elaborate work of Mr. Rogers's is a valuable addition to the sporting library, and will appeal particularly to lovers of four-in-hand driving. It is profusely and one may say practically illustrated, showing that the author has been a very close student of his subject and a keen enthusiast as well. Coaching history has been treated at length, and while Mr. Rogers quotes freely from the older authorities on the subject, he nevertheless has introduced an element of completeness, as it were, which

is most agreeable. Beginning at the bottom, the construction of roads is intelligently discussed; and so on, from the tires of the wheels to the splicing of the whipthong, the minutest detail is given close attention and a clean exposition. A number of interesting charts and tables are introduced, showing the draught of vehicles under varying conditions, the angles at which a coach loaded or light will upset, together with quite a scientific treatise on centrifugal force as applied to a coach driven at various speeds around a curve.

All these points are interesting and instructive in the abstract, and should serve to make the intelligent coachman a closer observer of the numerous details which go to make up absolute proficiency in the "art." The chapter on driving is explicit, the various cuts indicating clearly the position of the hands, while the text conveys even to the tyro the object of the movements and the manner of their execution. While there may be a few points on which competent critics might take issue with Mr. Rogers, the work is singularly free from disagreeable egotism, and has an atmosphere of common sense about it which confirms its authority.

The "driving apparatus" shown in figure 154 is a very useful device for one who would be a coachman, or, being one, is out of practice. The scheme of weights attached to reins which run over pulleys enables one to train his fingers and arms, as well as to acquire the necessary skill in execution; for, however light-handed a coachman may be, the proper driving of four horses requires a strong arm and a "wrist of steel." The tired arm will invariably make a heavy hand, and in consequence an increased exertion of force is requisite. The systematic use of an apparatus such as Mr. Rogers has devised should therefore be of great service.

It is quite possible that the layman, who has not the love of coaching grafted in his heart, might criticise this work as being too serious in its treatment of a light subject, but it is certain that the craftsman will appreciate the enormous amount of labor and close attention which its production must have entailed. 'A Manual of Coaching' is in every sense well done. In addition to a complete system of indices, the introduction of a list of books which treat the subject of the horse either directly or indirectly is useful, as is also the translation of the various equipment and coaching expressions into French. The book is written purely for the man who loves coaching for itself, and is sure to take a prominent place in every coachman's library.

Surgery: A Treatise for Students and Practitioners. By Thomas Pickering Pick. Longmans. 8vo, pp. xix, 1,176.

The lectures on surgery which form the basis of this volume were delivered at St. George's Hospital, London, and are published chiefly for the use of beginners, though the author hopes the book will prove of value to practitioners. Mr. Pick's position is too well known for comment. His book bears witness to his thirty years of hospital experience. It should, despite obvious limitations, find favor with practitioners, but it is more particularly adapted to the time-pressed student, who is best served by concise tone and positive statement. The style is direct; occasional slipshod English not interfering with clear exposition. The topics are, as a rule, treated comprehensively, and inaccuracies are not common. The volume, in its unusual compactness, is especially adapted for easy reference. It is well indexed, illustrated, and arranged.

In section i., Inflammation is discussed entirely in the modern spirit. Section ii. deals with General Injuries. Careful mention is made of the details of surgical cleanliness, that factor which has so profoundly changed the aspect of surgery, almost in the last decade, by the immense enlargement of its scope and the furtherance of safety in operating. In section iii., devoted to General Diseases, cancer is, perhaps, of most interest; it is noteworthy that its cause is still unknown, that belief in its hereditary nature has materially lessened, and that, in England at least, it is apparently largely on the increase, although, on the other hand, it is stated that better diagnosis may in part account for this. Section iv. treats of Injuries and Diseases of Special Organs and Tissues, and we find that recent methods have much shortened the time formerly consumed in the care of certain fractures, and that Roentgen's discovery has been of the greatest value in this connection. Far less satisfactory has been the treatment of cerebral tumors, which, however, though its progress is not commensurate with that of localization of brain function, is a matter of infinite interest and perhaps of great possibilities. The therapy of nose-bleed as outlined in this book seems incomplete. The work is concluded by a chapter on deformities, and an appendix describing amputations.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, E. F. A New French Course. American Book Co. $1.
Baker, Th. A Biographical Dictionary of Musicians. G. Schirmer.
Brown, Rev. J. Puritan Preaching in England: A Study of Past and Present. Scribners. $1.50.
Carpenter, F. G. South America. American Book Co. 60c.
Chalmers, Rev. T. The Christian and Civic Economy of Large Towns. Scribners. $1.25.
Claxton, Adelaide. Brainy Odds and Ends. London: The Author. 1s.
Fitchett, W. H. How England Saved Europe. Scribners. Vols. II. and III. $2 each.
Freytag, G. Die Journalisten. Boston: C. A. Koehler & Co.
Gollancz, I. The Works of Shakespeare. [The Larger Temple Shakespeare.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vols. 3 and 4. $1.50 each.
Hall, Rev. T. C. The Social Meaning of Modern Religious Movements in England. Scribners. $1.50.
Hovey, T. Taliesin: A Masque. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
King, L. W. Babylonian Religion and Mythology. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Lapsley, G. T. The County Palatine of Durham: A Study in Constitutional History. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green, & Co. $2.
Lavisse, E. Album Historique. Tome III. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Lee, A. The Gentleman Pensioner. Appletons. $1.
Lee, Sidney, Dictionary of National Biography. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. XLI. $3.75.
Lindsey, W. At Start and Finish. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Littell, Mary V. From Pot-Closet to Palais Royal. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. 25c.
Lodge, T. Rosalind. Cassells. 10c.
MacDougal, D. T. The Nature and Work of Plants. Macmillan. 80c.
Markham, E. The Man with the Hoe. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Maspero, Prof. G. The Passing of the Empires. 850 B. C. to 330 B. C. Appletons. $7.50.
Norris, F. A Man's Woman. Doubleday & McClure. $1.50.
Paddock, Mrs. A. G. The Fate of Madame La Tour: A Tale of Great Salt Lake. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Prentiss, G. L. The Union Theological Seminary in the City of New York. Asbury Park, N. J.: M., W. & C. Pennypacker.
Pyle, Katherine. Prose and Verse for Children. American Book Co. 40c.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. Historical Tales from Shakespeare. Scribners. $1.50.
Roberts, Prof. C. G. D. By the Marshes of Minas. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Sedgwick, E. Thomas Paine [The Beacon Biographies]. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Seidel, H. Der Tausendmark Schein, und Andere Erzählungen. Boston: C. A. Koehler & Co.
Smith, Minna C. Mary Paget: A Romance of Bermuda. Macmillan. $1.50.
Spencer, H. The Principles of Biology. Appletons. Vol. II. $2.
Swift, L. Brook Farm. Macmillan. $1.25.
Tarbell, Ida M. The Life of Abraham Lincoln. 2 vols. Doubleday & McClure.
Torrence, F. R. The House of a Hundred Lights. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
Trist, N. B. Whist: American Leads and Their History. Harpers. $1.
Ward, J. Pyramids and Progress: Sketches from Egypt. Eyre & Spottiswoode. $4.
Warner, F. The Nervous System of the Child. Macmillan. $1.
Whates, H. The Politician's Handbook: A Review and Digest of the State Papers, Diplomatic Correspondence, Reports of Royal Commissions, Select Committees, Treaties, Consular Reports, etc. Session 1900. London: Vacher & Sons.
Wilson, Mrs. L. L. W. Picture Study in Elementary Schools. 3 books. Macmillan. 35c. each.
Wilson, Mrs. L. L. W. Picture Study in Elementary Schools: A Manual for Teachers. 2 parts. Macmillan. 90c. each.
Wilson, L. L. W. Handbook of Domestic Science and Household Arts: For Use in Elementary Schools. Macmillan. $1.
Zile, E. S. van. With Sword and Crucifix. Harpers. $1.50.

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PUBLISH SATURDAY

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 15, 1900.

The Week.

It is a pleasure to be able to say of an important appointment by the President, namely, of Judge Taft, of the United States Circuit Court, for head of the new Philippine Commission, that Mr. McKinley's choice is a man of high character, excellent ability, and judicial mind. But this is a very different thing from expressing any assurance that a commission entirely composed of equally good men will accomplish satisfactory results. We need only recall the disappointing outcome of the old Commission's work, made up though that body was of men who seemed well chosen for the task set them. It is a very different thing, too, from endorsing the policy under which the President, not acting as Commander-in-Chief to name a Military Governor, assumes the dictatorial power of sending men to establish such civil government as may seem good to them and him, without the slightest authorization from Congress.

The treaty concerning the Isthmian canal so occupies the mind of the public that the ratification of the treaty of The Hague has passed almost unnoticed. There is nothing in this treaty to inflame our "patriotism," or cause us to exult in our ability to hold our own with a strong hand. In fact, the treaty was in danger of rejection because it was feared that it might somehow hinder our Government from going to war whenever it was so disposed. There is nothing in the treaty, however, that will prevent us from fighting whenever we have a just cause, while it will operate to prevent hasty and passionate declarations of war. Its ratification is one of those silent advances which civilization from time to time makes, and which place future generations on higher ground than our own. Gradually the idea that arbitration is the proper and natural method of settling disputes will become a part of the mental constitution of our citizens, and even of our Congressmen. If for no other reason, the fact that it encourages the growth of this idea is enough to make us rejoice over the ratification of this treaty. While there may be nothing in the report that, under its terms, our Government will presently extend its good offices in bringing about a termination of the South African war, the very fact that such a report is heard is significant. Without the support of this treaty the idea of extending our good offices could hardly have been entertained, while with its countenance there is nothing in it intrinsically improbable.

The report of the Republican majority of the ways and means committee makes a needless concession to scruples about the Constitution. It says that Congress has absolute and exclusive power over conquests, "except in so far as it is limited by the XIIIth Amendment to the Constitution, which prohibits the existence of slavery in any place over which the United States has jurisdiction." But there is abundant contemporary authority for holding that the term "United States" is very ambiguous. In fact, we believe no less than four senses of the title have been pointed out. In the phrase "throughout the United States," where imposts and duties are spoken of, some hold that the States alone are meant, not the Territories. Others concede that the older Territories are included, but are not sure about Alaska; and they are clear that Porto Rico and the Philippines are not covered. Another view would seem to be that only the original thirteen States are meant, and that the others might be described, to use President Johnson's expression, as bodies "hanging on the verge of the Constitution." We cannot understand why such minds should feel any embarrassment because of the XIIIth Amendment. Is it not perfectly plain that "the jurisdiction of the United States" means the jurisdiction then exercised within the boundaries then existing? Observe, the amendment uses the word "has," not "shall have"! The necessary amplification and justification of this construction will be furnished by any believer in our imperial destiny and our boundless future. Such a construction will put to rest a number of awkward problems sure to arise out of the use of "contract labor," without which our tropical colonies cannot be exploited with profit.

Attorney-General Griggs ascended the glory-crowned heights again at the dinner of the Republican Club, on Monday night, but his speech was not more coherent than usual. "It is hard to understand," he said, "why the presence of our flag anywhere on the face of the globe should give offence to some Americans, especially when all the rest of the world seems content about it." The display of our flag in foreign parts may be on the mast of an American ship, or over the office of an American consul, in both of which cases it is typical of peaceful commerce. On the other hand, it may signify "criminal aggression." It may represent invasion and desolation of the homes of distant people who have done us no harm. In short, the question whether the presence of our flag abroad ought to give offence to any American citizens depends upon whether it represents a just cause or an unjust one. This branch of the subject was skilfully ignored by Mr. Griggs, who went on to shout that the United States has become a great world-power by growth, development, and an extension of her domain of territory as well as of trade "into regions where we must encounter the rivalries, and at the same time shall claim our share of the privileges, that pertain to the dominant Powers in administering the affairs of the Orient." This looks like a supplement to Secretary Hay's treaties negotiating for the "open door" in China, but it is really something quite different. It is a coarse, swaggering threat that if our claims in China are not recognized and granted, we shall use our foothold in the Philippines to make war on anybody who denies what we consider just claims. The reason why some Americans objected to the retention of our flag in the Philippines was, that it would bring our fighting apparatus into closer contact with the fighting machines of the Old World, and, therefore, tend to make wars more frequent; that it would expose the country to an unnecessary danger. Now this is avowed by a member of the cabinet as a policy desirable in itself. It is part and parcel of the spirit which demands that the Isthmian canal shall be fortified and made one of our implements of war, instead of being a new contribution to the triumphs of the Prince of Peace.

The remarks of the Chinese Minister at the dinner of the Silk Association on Thursday night were very diplomatic, but they veiled the severest reproach. This representative of an effete civilization, of a race incapable of progress, of a country so backward as to arouse the indignation of Christendom, actually lifted up his voice in support of those principles of human liberty which were recognized by our Constitution before it was outgrown. He commented on the decline of the silk business in China, and said that he was far from attributing it to the policy of our country; but added that he believed in fair competition, and that his country did not legislate against American trade. The doors of China, he said, were open, and it was recognized there that trade was barter, and was for the benefit of both sides. On this principle foreigners were not excluded by the Government from China, although, when they entered that country, they sometimes looked at things from an interested point of view. Even the pious and noble missionaries, whose good work was appreciated in China, occasionally suffered during popular disturbances, and when their governments interfered, something more than justice required was exacted from China. Finally, this representative of heathen-

dom declared that he was glad to find that this great republic was not to adopt a policy of territorial aggrandizement, and congratulated the Americans on their devotion to a religion whose fundamental maxim was: "What you would have others do to you, do the same to them." This maxim, he ventured to suggest, might have some practical application in commerce and in international affairs. The audience received this speech with laughter and applause, but the diplomatic adroitness of the speaker hardly veiled his exposure of our cant.

Nothing in the shipping-subsidy bill now before Congress is more objectionable than the scheme for disguising bounties under the mask of contracts. The advocates of this measure do not like to speak of subsidies and bounties. These terms suggest that the moneys derived from the taxation of all the people are being applied to the use of certain favored individuals, and, if this idea becomes prevalent, the people may demand that such diversion of revenue shall cease. But a contract is a different thing. The element of valuable consideration is inseparable from the notion of a contract, and if it can be made to appear that payments to ship-owners are required by contracts duly entered into by the Secretary of the Treasury, such payments may be kept up indefinitely. Should the Democrats return to power and threaten to stop them, the ship-owners would at once cry out that the sacredness of contracts was attacked, that vested rights were imperilled, and that any diminution of their "compensation" would be an act of bad faith on the part of the Government.

Such "contracts," however, as are proposed in the subsidy bill, are neither fair nor legal obligations, and it is the duty of the opposition in Congress to notify all parties interested that they will not be recognized when the present Administration is overthrown. The general rule of law is that pensions and bounties are not enjoyed as of right, but of favor, and that they may be terminated without impairing any right of property. It does not change the character of a bounty to call it a contract, and the element necessary to support any contract—the consideration—is lacking. The Secretary of the Treasury may agree to pay money to certain ship-owners, but the ship-owners render him no service in return. They obtain a part of the revenue of the public, and spend it in building ships which are their private property. It is commonly believed that a consideration, and a very substantial one, will be paid by the ship-owners; but they will not pay it into the Treasury of the United States. There may be a contract; but it is a contract between certain private citizens and certain influential politicians, relating to the furnishing of money for the coming Presidential campaign, and to the compensation to be provided for those contributors out of the revenues of the government. Such a contract would not be enforceable at law, and it has no claim to be regarded as sacred.

The amendment to the Currency bill reported by Senator Aldrich, declaring that the act is "not intended to place any obstacles in the way of the accomplishment of international bimetallism, provided the same be secured by concurrent action of the leading commercial nations of the world, and at a ratio which shall insure permanence of relative value between gold and silver," is futile and unnecessary. It is a tub thrown to the whale after the whale has disappeared. In legislation we look for something substantial, or at least intelligible, but there is nothing substantial or intelligible in the phrases employed in this amendment. Which are the leading commercial nations of the world, and how many are they? What is the ratio that will insure permanence of relative value between gold and silver? These are the things which are to guide us in any future rambles after bimetallism. It is needless to say that such an amendment has no practical end in view—except, perhaps, to promote Senator Wolcott's reëlection in Colorado. It is a "stump-speech in the belly of the bill."

Gov. Roosevelt has formally announced that he will not, under any circumstances, accept the nomination for the Vice-Presidency. In giving out his statement he said: "And I am happy to state that Senator Platt cordially acquiesces in my views in the matter." The Governor had already made it practically impossible that he should be on the same ticket with Mr. McKinley, by pointedly opposing the President's policy on the two most important questions which have come up of late. Mr. McKinley favored a peaceable adjustment of the controversy in Kentucky; Col. Roosevelt's voice, as usual, was for war. Mr. McKinley accepted the civilized view that an Isthmian canal should be a neutral waterway for the commerce of the world; Col. Roosevelt, of course, insists upon the United States managing it in such a way that there shall always be a good chance for a fight over its control with one of the great Powers. The Governor sees that oil and water will not mix any better than such conflicting views as to the true policy of the party, both at home and abroad. The Governor believes that his surrender to the Republican boss has insured his renomination for his present office next fall, with the support, or at least without the opposition, of the party machine. At any rate, he will seek the nomination, as he has a perfect right to do, and he invites the judgment of the people upon the record which he has made in the executive office since New Year's of 1899.

The latest scheme to enlarge the pension list was unfolded at a Grand Army dinner at Washington last week, by Commander Shaw. He declared that a great injustice was done to many worthy applicants for pensions by the rejection of their claims. The trouble was due, he said, to "the hateful cry of fraud," and to the Pension Commissioner's lack of loyalty to the law. "We want," said Col. Shaw, "no more makeshifts, no more evasions, no more unworthy cries about 'frauds, frauds,' in pension affairs." To correct the present abuses, it is proposed to have established a court to hear appeals from the decisions of the Pension Commissioner, to consist of five judges with salaries of $5,000 a year each. Under the present system such appeals are made to the Interior Department, which has generally sustained the rulings of the Commissioner. A bill to establish such a court has been introduced already by Senator Mason, and no doubt its passage will be urged by a host of pension attorneys. When legitimate claims begin to be scarce, these attorneys turn to the great mass of rejected applications and devise means for reviving them. There seems to be no ground whatever for the complaint that meritorious claims for pensions are rejected. The private pension bills that are passed to remedy supposed hardships of this kind are generally found, if examined, to be of very doubtful character. Vague assertions of injustice in the Commissioner's rulings will not convince those who know anything about the subject that any court of appeals is necessary.

In view of the extensive improvements in transportation about to be carried out in this city, the report of the Superintendent of the State Free Employment Bureau has a special interest. During the past year there has been a considerable demand for manual labor, but it was almost impossible to secure employment for men in the public works of the city. The reason for this was that the work was "mortgaged" to the dominant political party, and no workmen not satisfactory to the party leaders were allowed to obtain employment. Even in such emergencies as the Street-Cleaning Department encounters after snow-storms the rule is not relaxed. In order to get work, the laborer must have the endorsement of an Alderman or a district leader, or enlist under some padrone. The consideration for these opportunities to labor is not only political fealty, but also a percentage on the wages received. Men who have earned $20 find it better to have their claims cashed at a discount

of 10 per cent. than submit to the delays which they will otherwise experience. These statements are rather confirmations than revelations, and they make the support given by many sincere reformers to the eight-hour and union-wages rule in public works a cause for surprise. The laborers on these works are a favored class, in that they receive more pay for less work than laborers without political influence. Their higher wages are regarded by the politicians as a regular source of revenue, through assessments and discounts. The system benefits nobody but the Boss and his lieutenants, and the abuses which it creates constitute a strong argument against the policy of municipal ownership.

The City Club has resolved to take up a matter which certainly demands thorough investigation. A few days ago the public learned that the Brooklyn Wharf and Warehouse Company was unable to pay the interest due on its mortgage bonds, and that a receiver was to be applied for. Both plaintiff and defendant in the suit were willing to have a receiver appointed, and naturally both were anxious to secure a receiver who would preserve the great property involved from waste, and administer it in a business-like manner. It was stated at the meeting of the City Club by a very responsible lawyer, Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham, that the parties to the suit agreed that they would like to have the United States Mortgage and Trust Company, the trustee under the mortgage, appointed receiver. They were apprehensive, however, that the emoluments and patronage attached to such a position would influence the action of the court, and it was, therefore, deemed expedient to propitiate the "machine" by consenting to take ex-Mayor Grant. In this way, the counsel seem to have agreed, they might secure a fairly business-like management of the property, and at the same time concede something to the politicians. But the suggestion did not prove acceptable to the court. To the consternation of all the parties to the suit, the order appointing the receiver was found to contain, not the name of Hugh J. Grant, but that of John F. Carroll, who occupies the position of vicegerent in this city during Mr. Croker's absence.

The attorneys in the suit rebelled outright on seeing this order. They immediately decided not to submit to the prospective spoliation of the property, and resolved on the bold course of discontinuing their suit. This was evidently a step for which the court was unprepared. Had it been anticipated, it could have been checked; for if Mr. Carroll had once got his bond approved, few persons believe that an order discharging him would have been obtained. Unfortunately for Tammany Hall, the order appointing Mr. Carroll seems not to have been previously made known to him; at all events, the parties to the suit appeared before the court with consents to discontinue before Mr. Carroll was able to qualify. For the court to refuse to enter an order discontinuing an action on the consent of all parties thereto is an unheard-of proceeding; nevertheless, in this instance the court demurred. The prey had not only been scented; it had almost been tasted. The mouths of the hungry "Braves" of Tammany were watering; to have come so near to so fat a job and to lose it, after all, was too much to submit to. Yet the position was finally recognized to be untenable by the court, and, after hearing some very plain talk and some undisguised threats of future retribution, the court finally permitted the suitors to escape from its jurisdiction. It was an escape "so as by fire," and the parties fled to another judicial department, where the atmosphere is somewhat purer; and whither, we must say, considering the situation of the property, it is not easy to see why they did not go in the first place.

Probably the most conclusive piece of evidence in the Molineux trial is the verdict of the jury. It is unquestionably a surprise to the public. Many people who had followed the proceedings expected an immediate acquittal; perhaps most were sure that the jury would disagree. That after not unreasonably protracted deliberation a verdict of guilty should have been pronounced is a circumstance of very great weight. The jury was carefully selected, and was regarded as composed of better than the ordinary material. It was confronted with a mass of expert opinion sufficient to becloud any issue. It was distracted by continual and violent disputes between counsel, and not aided by much display of judicial firmness or discretion. It was exhausted by the protraction of testimony to an unparalleled length, so that the beginning might well have been forgotten before the end was reached. The jurors in this case, breathing the mephitic air of the court-room, stunned with the clamor of the lawyers, bewildered with the technical language of chemistry and physiology, warned of the fallibility of expert testimony, aware of the danger of trusting to circumstantial evidence, and wearied by the interminable length of the proceedings, might well have washed their hands of the responsibility of condemning a human being to death. That in spite of all these adverse influences they should have promptly found the prisoner guilty, establishes a very strong presumption that they have arrived at the truth. The fact that any verdict was reached, instead of the disagreement very generally expected, also constitutes a most impressive proof of the merits of the system of trial by jury.

It was a foregone conclusion that the English Government would be triumphantly sustained in Parliament. Reckoning in the Irish members, who refused to vote, and those Liberals who walked out of the House, the Government's majority was only about its normal figure; but that was more than was at one time anticipated, and was naturally hailed as a great Parliamentary victory for the Ministry. The fact that the Liberals could never think of taking office themselves if they carried a vote of censure, and that they were compelled to advocate a vigorous prosecution of the Boer war, necessarily made their attack feeble. But a tactical advantage of this sort is far from proving that the Conservatives will not yet suffer severely because of the African war. Chamberlain himself admitted that the Government had made many blunders and was much to be blamed. Perhaps its hugest blunder was in having so mismanaged a case in which there were at least elements of justice on the English side, as to make Great Britain appear in the wrong to nearly the whole civilized world, and to put into a grievous dilemma lovers of liberty in Europe and this country, who have been accustomed to think of English rule as synonymous with freedom and progress. The case has been put with force in a private letter from a leading Liberal of the Continent:

> "Next to my own country I love England. But in this war you are in the wrong. You are fighting against a small and brave people who are defending their freedom. If you beat the Boers I shall be very sad, but I am not sure that I shall not be sadder if you are beaten, for it will mean so much for human freedom."

France, as well as England and the United States, is exemplifying the horrible cost in life and treasure which colonial wars involve. The disastrous expeditions of the French army in Madagascar have recently been freshly brought to public attention. They constitute one of the charges made against Gen. Mercier in his campaign for election as Senator. In was under his direction that the calamitous expedition against the Malagasies was undertaken in 1895. The full official reports show what terrible and needless losses were suffered in that one year. Whole regiments were almost annihilated by disease, without having once met the enemy, the total deaths footing up 5,756, while the money spent on the ill-starred campaign amounted to more than $10,000,000. What is worse, evidence of official incompetence and neglect abounded. The medical reports had shameful things to say of the lack of foresight on the part of those in charge of the army: supplies were deficient; tents were missing; medicines never got to the front; mismanagement reigned on all hands. It was the old history of military adventure in the tropics. We, in the Philippines, are writing only one more miserable chapter in it.

THE PORTO RICAN INHUMANITY.

The humane people of the United States cannot too soon be aroused to the fact that the Republicans in Congress are proposing to commit, in the name of this nation, an act of unparalleled and shameful cruelty. We refer to the bill taxing Porto Rican exports and imports to the extent of 25 per cent. of the Dingley rates. There are strong reasons for thinking this bill unconstitutional. They are set forth in the minority report, and also in the individual report of Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, a Republican who has the courage of his convictions, and, what his Republican colleagues apparently have not, a sense of humanity. But we do not now insist upon the illegality of the measure. Chatham indignantly cried in Parliament: "I come not here armed at all points with law cases and acts of Parliament, with the statute-book doubled down in dog-ears, to defend the cause of liberty." So we say to-day, be the constitutional right what it may; let the Supreme Court reverse itself if it choose; rule out all questions of fiscal need and policy—the fact remains that this proposed legislation is so cruel, so heartless, so charged with disaster and starvation for 900,000 human beings, that to adopt it would entitle Spain or Russia or even Turkey to send missionaries to us.

What are the facts? They are set forth in voluminous detail and with overwhelming force in the reports of our own officials. Governor-General Davis, Consul Hanna, Secretary Root, Commissioner Carroll, the President himself, have all shown how the immediate necessities of Porto Rico cry out for freedom of trade with this country. The inhabitants had practically a free market in Spain and Cuba. We destroyed that. Then we double-locked our own against them. The result is, as Secretary Root declared, that two crops of tobacco lie rotting in the warehouses of Porto Rico; that her coffee and her sugar are practically unsalable. This was true even before the hurricane of last August came to complete the ruin we had done our best to bring about by neglect. The hurricane was "an act of God." What can we call our deliberate attempt to prevent the Porto Ricans from living by honest labor but an act of the devil?

The tax on their exports is flagrant enough; but to make them pay one-quarter the Dingley rates on the necessaries of life would argue a perfectly fiendish ingenuity of malevolence. People do not generally understand this. The Dingley Schedule G, "Agricultural Products and Provisions," is a section full of "fake" duties, so far as we are concerned. These are the hoary old tariff taxes put in to fool the American farmer, and make him think that he, too, is "protected." But every one knows that the high duties dangled before his innocent eyes are not operative. They do not affect the cost of the prime necessaries in this country, for practically none are imported. In Porto Rico, however, these Dingley duties would take effect in crushing fashion. The island has long imported a vast amount of food products, paying for them with tobacco and coffee and sugar. Now the Republican plan is, on the one hand to refuse the Porto Ricans a market for what they raise, and on the other to tax them exorbitantly for the food they must have or starve.

Take a few sample figures. Commissioner Carroll returns the Porto Rican imports of rice in 1897 at 77,994,122 pounds. Here is a necessary of life, now free. We propose to clap on 25 per cent. of the Dingley rate of 2 cents per pound. In other words, we propose to tax a ruined and starving people $389,000 on a single and necessary article of food! Did a Borgia or a Bajazet ever condemn his subjects to death with a more refined cruelty? The case will be very much the same with the other leading imports of Porto Rico—kerosene oil, pork, lard, flour, fish. Salt fish is taxed three-fourths of a cent a pound in the Dingley tariff; flour, 25 per cent. ad valorem; lard, two cents a pound; pork, two cents a pound, and so on. In other words, all these sleeping Dingley duties on food, which are only a joke to us, are to be wakened by the bill before Congress, and set to clutching the throats of the unhappy Porto Ricans, whom we rescued from the tyranny of Spain in order to fling them into the jaws of our Moloch of protection.

This, we say, is an act of stark inhumanity, to which we do not believe the American people will ever consent. Certainly they will not if its monstrous nature is brought home to them. Why, we might as well turn our soldiers loose in the island to butcher the inhabitants as to decree their death by act of Congress. When Russia annexed the Crimea in the last century, she put 30,000 Tartars, men, women, and, children, to the sword. Is our proposed course a whit less unfeeling and bloody? Here are 900,000 fellow-men; if not fellow-citizens, they are at least our subjects, as even the Imperialists must admit. Their lives and fortunes are in our hands. We propose to rob them of both. And the leaders in the crime are the Senators from Connecticut—the State of schools and universities and churches! That State has no more inhabitants than Porto Rico; yet its representatives in Congress, some of them lights in the religious world, coolly urge a bill to extinguish the right of nearly a million men under our flag to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

The whole thing seems a ghastly joke—like Swift's proposal to kill and eat the babies in Ireland. But if this law is pushed in dead earnest, there will be need of Swift's *sæva indignatio* against its authors and abettors. Is this to be a final demonstration of the inhuman nature of protection? When the McKinley tariff worked distress in Vienna, its author exulted over the misery he had wrought. Will he now sit idly by and see a protective tariff made an instrument of torture for men and women and children under the American flag? We cannot believe it; nor can we believe that the religious and educated opinion of this country will tolerate the crime which the Republicans in Congress are intending to commit in the name of protection. The American people are not cruel. They do not want the blood of Porto Ricans or Cubans or Filipinos on their heads. But, if they would be guiltless, they must lose not a moment in letting their selfish and besotted representatives at Washington know what they think of this attempt to make the United States synonymous with greed and cruelty.

FROM BLAINE TO HAY.

The full text of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty has now been made public, and bears out all that has been said in its favor as an instrument of civilization and peace. Perhaps the best way of demonstrating its enlightened and progressive character is to show how Secretary Hay's positions in 1900 differ from the demands of Secretary Blaine in 1881. It was Mr. Blaine who first exploited the idea that an Isthmian canal would be a part of the coast-line of the United States. In his letter to Minister Lowell of June 24, 1881, he wrote that such a canal would be "substantially a part of our coast-line." By November 19, of the same year, he had got to the point of affirming that "the United States will always insist upon treating the great water-way as part of her coast-line." Naturally, there could be no neutralization. Mr. Blaine vehemently asserted that, in time of war, "the passage of armed vessels of a hostile nation through the canal would be no more admissible than would the passage of the armed forces of a hostile nation over the railway lines joining the Atlantic and Pacific shores of the United States." And in the very fore-front of his list of "the changes necessary" in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, in order "to meet the views of this Government," he put the following:

> "First—Every part of the treaty which forbids the United States fortifying the canal and holding the political control of it in conjunction with the country in which it is located, to be cancelled."

One glance at the modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty now before the Senate shows how completely these reactionary and impossible contentions have been abandoned. The first specification of the neutrality of the future canal provides that it "shall be free and open, in time of war as in time of peace, to the vessels of commerce and of war

of all nations." What Mr. Blaine characterized as wholly inadmissible, is thus not only admitted, but proclaimed highly desirable. And his impatient demand that the right be given us to fortify the canal has the fitting comment made upon it in the seventh specification: "No fortifications shall be erected commanding the canal or the waters adjacent." In short, the present treaty is a full justification of what President Cleveland said in his annual message of December 8, 1885, namely, that the only way to secure the neutralization of interoceanic transit was to make "the use of the route open to all nations, and subject to the ambitions and warlike necessities of none."

Mr. Hay deserves high praise for quietly sponging the slate of all the Jingo absurdities and extravagances. He plainly saw that in no other way could the matter go forward. If he had gone at Salisbury in the pugnacious way in which Blaine approached Granville, he would have got the same answer that Blaine did—that "her Majesty's Government rely with confidence upon the observance of all the engagements of that treaty [the Clayton-Bulwer]." A modification of the treaty necessarily meant a friendly attempt to agree with Great Britain, instead of berating her. If there was to be any diplomatic progress at all, Mr. Hay clearly saw that the shirtsleeves and shot-gun methods of the art of managing foreign relations must give way to civilized usages. More than that, being a man with a mental horizon not bounded by the valley of the Ohio, in touch with international ideas, familiar with the conception of a world's commerce and a world's peace and their needs, the Secretary of State has risen to his great opportunity of preparing the way for an interoceanic canal, that shall be a means of international unity and amity, as well as a highway of international commerce.

Why, then, is his work so bitterly assailed? Why is he accused of surrendering, of being tricked in the negotiation? Why are even the leading New England Senators found opposing this great step forward in international good feeling and service of the world's trade? Partly, we suppose, it is the effect of Jingo virus in the veins. We have been so long bred to the wild notion that an Isthmian canal is primarily an instrument of war, a work of military strategy, a means of infuriating our enemies, that it is hard for us to go over at once to the common-sense idea of it as a great labor of peace and for the cementing of peace. The old confusions about "control" still bother us. But we have learned something about sea-power since Blaine's day. The true control of the canal in time of war is at sea. The Power able to beat an enemy's fleet before it gets in sight of the canal is the Power that will be able to prevent a foe from utilizing it in war. That was true under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty; it will remain true under its proposed modification. The Jingo Senators are imagining a vain thing.

But we suspect that the opposition to Secretary Hay's beneficent diplomacy has other and baser motives. A part of the outcry sounds very like the fury of disappointed speculators and contractors. They fear that Congress will never vote the money for a thoroughly neutralized and non-military canal. Then where will their bonds and liens and concessions and contracts come in? Already they are raising the constitutional point that Congress has no power to lay taxes (and hence vote money) except for "the defence" of the United States. A canal for the free use of all the world is not a thing to defend us or to be defended. But, luckily, these unworthy motives cannot be avowed. The men actuated by them can work against Secretary Hay only in darkness and secrecy. What he has done is so plainly in the interest not only of this country but of all the world; is so undeniably in the line of progress and humanity, that the friends of civilization and peace should see to it that his statesmanlike achievement be not crippled or defeated.

SUBSIDIES OF VARIOUS KINDS.

Senator Butler of North Carolina has proposed an amendment to the shipping-subsidy bill in the interest of farmers. It provides that there shall be paid out of the Treasury of the United States to any exporter of wheat, rye, corn, flour, cotton, hops, or tobacco, to foreign ports, the sum of ten cents per bushel on wheat; fifty cents per barrel on wheat flour; ten cents per bushel on rye; fifty cents per barrel on rye flour; five cents per bushel on corn; seven cents per cental on corn ground; one cent per pound on cotton; two cents per pound on hops; two cents per pound on tobacco. This is a practical way to insure to the agriculturists the direct benefit of the subsidy which the Hanna-Payne bill proposes to pay them in an indirect manner through the pockets of the steamship owners.

Hanna will probably think that Butler is trying to load the bill down with amendments so that it will sink, either in the Senate or the House. Hanna may even think that the Butler amendment is "paid for," like the adverse criticisms of the press. However that may be, we think that it will be unsafe for Senators who represent the agricultural States of the West to vote $9,000,000 per year for twenty years for ship-owners, and vote against a proviso to pay the farmers anything for their contributions to our glorious export trade. We say glorious advisedly; for what is the significance of the American flag at the mast-head without a cargo underneath? All the arguments in favor of shipping subsidies are based upon the idea of export trade. They say that "trade follows the flag," and some people are so fuddled by their own phrases that they make the flag of more importance than the trade. Senator Butler rightly conceives that the trade is the important part of the scheme, and that the subsidy should be given in part at least to those who furnish the exports, and not wholly to those who carry them.

Other amendments in harmony with this conception are said to be in embryo. Some Western Congressmen who have been repeatedly told that the promotion of export trade is the object of the Hanna-Payne bill, have been so simple as to raise objections to the discrimination in the bill in favor of large and fast passenger steamships. The bill provides a certain rate of subsidy per mile per ton for all craft, sail or steam. Then it provides an additional rate for vessels over 1,500 tons, with a higher rate for those of 3,000 tons, and a still higher rate for those of 8,000 tons, with increments also for the rate of speed, ranging from fourteen to twenty-one knots. The scheme seems to have been cunningly drawn to fit the present and prospective conditions of the International Navigation Co. Now these shortsighted Congressmen from the West say that this preference ought not to be given to passenger steamers; that if any advantage is given to one kind of craft over another, it ought to be given to freight steamers, tramp steamers if you please. What is a tramp steamer but a ship carrying freight cheaply; and is it not the object of the subsidy bill to get our freight carried at low rates so far as the shipper is concerned?

The advocates of the Hanna-Payne bill were quick to scent danger in this quarter, and proposed to meet it by putting a limit of $2,000,000 on the amount to be paid in any one year to steamers of high speed. This did not satisfy the Western objectors, who could see no reason for paying any subsidy at all to passenger-boats. Why should we pay money out of the Treasury, they said, to send our people to Europe? Why should we tax ourselves to furnish fine ships and low fares to rich men who are abundantly able to pay their own way? These people, who flock to Europe every year, carry money out of the country and spend it abroad, to the detriment of home industry and our balance of trade, besides aping foreign manners and learning that this country is not good enough for them. Why should we vote public money to promote this kind of snobbery? So these objectors are of the opinion that no subsidy at all should be given to passenger steamers, but that it should be restricted wholly to freight boats. This is a sound view, if any subsidy at all is needed or justified—which we deny.

From various sources we gather that the subsidy-hunters are in trouble. The

Tribune's dispatches say that, in order to obviate objections to the Hanna-Payne bill, a number of amendments have been prepared and will be reported by the committees of the Senate and House. One of these amendments limits the "compensation for speed" to $2,000,000 per year, or to 22 per cent. of the largest sum appropriated in any one year. This is regarded as a great concession to the taxpayers, but it does not seem to be sufficient, for the dispatches to the *Times* say that the bill is to be reported favorably, and then dropped for the present session, on account of the opposition of Western and Northwestern Republicans. We are quite prepared to believe this.

We warn the advocates of the scheme, however, that they will never be stronger in Congress, or in the country, than they are now, and that if they pause in their efforts to pass the bill, their prestige will be shattered. They will lose ground from that moment. There is no such thing as standing still on a proposition to raid the Treasury of the United States. Here is a cool proposal to pay to one steamship company a sum of money equal to 20 per cent. per annum on its capital, in addition to its regular commercial earnings from freight and passengers. Any such scheme as that must either be put through at once, before the public understands it, or be abandoned altogether. To lay it over a year, for prying investigators and carping critics to work upon, is to insure its death.

A DAY ON CHALGROVE FIELD.

I do not remember a time when the following passage from Macaulay did not ring in the ears of my memory. If I had written one of those remarkable essays of a few years ago on "Books that have influenced me" I should have put down the essay of Macaulay's on Nugent's 'Memorials of Hampden.' It closes as follows:

"The news of Hampden's death produced as great a consternation in his party, according to Clarendon, as if their whole army had been cut off. The journals of the time amply prove that the Parliament and all its friends were filled with grief and dismay."

Lord Nugent had quoted a remarkable passage from the *Weekly Intelligencer:* "The memory of this deceased colonel is such that in no age to come but it will more and more be had in honor and esteem. A man so religious and of that prudence, judgment, temper, valor, and integrity, that he hath left few his like behind."

And now Macaulay again:

"He had indeed left none his like behind him. There still remained, indeed, in his party many eloquent tongues, many brave and honest hearts. . . . But it was when the too sullen tyranny of Laud and Charles had succeeded the fierce conflicts of sects and factions ambitious for ascendency and burning for revenge; it was when the vices and ignorance which the old tyranny had generated, threatened the new freedom with destruction, that England missed the sobriety, the self-command, the perfect soundness of judgment, the perfect rectitude of intention, to which the history of revolutions furnishes no parallel or furnishes a parallel in Washington alone."

The reverence for Hampden which this expresses was stimulated in me many years later by a very charming article in the June number of the *Atlantic Monthly* for 1859, by Col. Wentworth Higginson, entitled "A Charge with Prince Rupert," describing the cavalry raid from Oxford, in opposing which Hampden met his death. There has been a controversy, within a very few years, as to whether Hampden's wound was caused by the pistols of the Cavaliers, or by the bursting of his own. But that makes little difference. I had always intended, if I ever found myself near Chalgrove Field, to make a pilgrimage to the spot where this great man met his fate. I was staying last September at the house of a friend in Oxfordshire, and, hearing from my hostess that Chalgrove Field was only a few miles away, I saw the long-looked-for hour had come, and I started for the famous spot on a path through the happy autumn fields. I was told a monument had been erected about fifty years ago on the place where the great man received his wound, by a body of English Liberals. For a mile and a half we followed one of those delightful grassy lanes of English country, stopping only too often to pick the blackberries which barred our progress and with which the hedges abounded, and exciting the curiosity of many herds of prosperous-looking cattle. We opened many gates, climbed many stiles, without seeing any sign either of the monument or of Chalgrove church; we finally fell in with a farmer who showed us the spire in the distance, still across the fields covered with the signs of recent harvesting. Twenty minutes more and we were in the grassy streets of the village, without seeing a soul to inquire of. The population all seemed absent, gathering their crops. At last we saw an open door where a tidy-looking woman stood kneading her bread. She presumed of course we wanted to see the church, which is one of the oldest and quaintest in England, and contains some of those early mural paintings which carry one back to the tenth century. On telling her that we desired to see the monument of Hampden even more than the church, she expressed polite surprise that we should be so besotted, for "Hampden," she said, "was a traitor." We found afterwards that the clergyman of the parish was a strict Ritualist, and we saw clearly that it was his influence which had made this good woman pay more respect to the memory of King Charles than to that of John Hampden. In fact, the traditions of the Church all over England are and have been, except in one or two dioceses, opposed to what is called "liberalism."

After a pleasant half-hour in the antique church and in the grassy churchyard—for we had interest and sentiment enough for both church and monument—we got the local carrier to drive us over to the latter, which stood a mile from the village. It was in an angle of the cross-roads, two or three dozen yards from where Hampden received his death-wound. The monument is a plain shaft, engraved with the names of its constructors, most of them men who figured later in the short and happy records of Peelite politics. Rupert, it will be remembered, was making many excursions from Oxford, where the King had established himself, in order to "beat up" the Parliamentarian quarters in the country around. Hampden had heard of it, and was chagrined by the impunity which Rupert owed to Essex's supineness. On hearing of this foray he called his Buckinghamshire cavalry together, and made a hurried march in order to seize the Stadhampton bridge, which he felt sure Rupert would have to cross on his way home. His levies were raw, and when, on coming in contact with the enemy, Rupert leaped the hedge which divided them, and fell upon them, sword in hand, he wrought somewhat of a panic among them, for he was of huge stature, determined countenance, and a practised sabreur. Hampden was there in front, and, instead of seeking to "confer," as a modern politician would do, met him in arms and almost immediately received two bullets in the shoulder. On seeing him turn, his followers broke and were pursued for a short distance. He rode mortally wounded from the field to Thame, and there, six days later, he died, probably the greatest loss that England has ever sustained in the person of one man.

He was buried in the churchyard of his own village of Hampden, and was followed to the grave by his troopers, with their arms reversed, singing, as Macaulay says, "the lofty and melancholy psalm" which declares, "For a thousand years in thy sight are but as yesterday, when it is passed, and as a watch in the night."

Hampden, like Washington, was one of the men who occasionally appear, as the ages roll by, to make you proud of your race and raise your hopes of its future. I could not but think, in standing where he fell, that I stood on holy ground, and felt more than ever the force of the lines—

> "But whether on the scaffold high
> Or in the battle's van,
> The fittest place where man can die
> Is where he dies for man."

In returning, our friendly carrier drove us past the site of an ancient and lordly mansion, of which the civil war had caused the destruction, Fairghley Hall. The old gates, the old park walls, the stately avenues of secular beeches and elms, the outhouses, with the ponds and terraces of the old garden, were still there, offering, we thought, as we sat down among them to rest, an irresistible temptation to the American multimillionaire to build himself an ancestral home on the old site, and take to himself Cavalier ancestors. In such places the thought inevitably occurs, if all the beautiful things which the earth has owed to man's industry and taste had escaped his rage for destruction, what an attractive abode it would be. E. L. G.

IMPRESSIONS IN THE MEXICAN HIGHLANDS—V.

GUERRERO, September, 1899.

Guerrero, in Chihuahua, must not be confounded with the important State of that name in the southwestern portion of the Republic. On nearly all maps, even of recent date, this town is called Concepción, following the old title derived from the mission station that formed the nucleus around which it grew. Its local importance is great, due in part to the large amount of arable land in its vicinity, having at command an unfailing abundance of water from the Guerrero River, and chiefly because of its favorable geographical location on the extreme western edge of the plains, where cargoes must be broken for transfer by mule trains

into the Sierra Madre. It is already a thriving place of 4,000 inhabitants, and as soon as it has become the terminus of the new railroad, now nearly completed from Chihuahua, its commercial progress will be rapid. Mining is the chief dependence of the mountain region, but hitherto the enormous cost of supplies has prevented the operation of any but large and highly productive properties. Improvement in transportation, however, will lead to the development of many new mines, increasing the volume of business, to the joy of the Guerrero merchants.

The dispatching of goods by mule-trains is a unique occupation, and, though profitable, not every one who undertakes it is able to succeed. It involves, first of all, a thorough acquaintance with the mountain region, the camping-grounds, pasturage, the state of the roads and streams, and an equally intimate knowledge of the characters and reliability of the *arrieros* (muleteers) and their assistants. A skilful arriero will take his train-load of freight through in safety at any time, while an incompetent man might lose many mules and much cargo, particularly during the rainy season. Again, an energetic, faithful man will occupy no more than from ten to fourteen days in the trip to Jesus Maria, a distance reckoned as 160 miles, which the laggard could hardly cover in a month. The custom among the arrieros is to depend upon pasturage entirely for feeding their animals en route, except during the height of the dry season in April and May, when a portion of the train must carry corn for the rest. The delays for feeding consequently consume a large part of the time in transit. Then, much time is lost in "rounding-up" the mules, adjusting the *aparejos* (pack-saddles), and in lashing on the cargoes. The chief display of skill on the part of the arriero is shown in his adjustment and fastening of the pack. If not well balanced and securely lashed, constant readjustment will be necessary throughout the day. To do it well requires good judgment and long practice. When finished, the mule and his cargo seem covered by a bewildering network of rawhide ropes and wooden hooks (*ganchos*), but it is all disposed according to a system, each rope performing its own peculiar function, which the arriero fully understands. Three hundred and fifty pounds is the maximum load for a strong mule, and one hundred to one hundred and fifty for a burro. And such awkward, heterogeneous cargoes as they carry! Cog-wheels and shovels, railroad iron and drill steel, candles, dynamite, boxes of groceries almost as big as the mules that bear them, and flasks of mercury, insignificant as to size, but, from the oscillation of the heavy mobile fluid within, constituting a most fatiguing burden.

The long lines of laden beasts, patiently toiling in zigzag paths up and down these steep inclines, are an interesting feature of the mountain journey. A little bronco, with a tinkling bell on his neck, leads the way, with an arriero by his side, while the drivers follow the train, urging the slower-footed animals with incessant, short, sharp whistles, "Wheet! wheet!" and cries of "Arre! arre, mulas!" No civil engineer better understands the practical value of reducing grade by detouring on a steep incline than these experienced pack-mules. They are continually expanding the curves, and would stretch out the road to an interminable length but for the energetic reproaches of their drivers.

Travellers never accompany these tedious cargo-trains. Though the difficulties of the trail are very great, horses are always ridden, with strong active mules for baggage and provisions. Properly equipped, with a good *mozo*, or servant, one can average fifty miles a day. It all depends on the mozo, and good ones are rare. Upon him also largely rests your personal safety. The organized bandits have ceased to be a terror, thanks to the effective police administration of the Mexican Government, but the mozo is an ever-present danger. You cannot well dispense with him, and yet many a traveller is murdered at night by his servant for the pittance he may carry in his purse. Whether it be necessary or not, every one carries a rifle in a holster slung under his saddle-skirt, and a revolver in his belt. In case of attack, however, these would be of little avail, for the Mexican highwayman shoots his victim from safe ambush first, and robs him afterward. The danger at night must be unflinchingly taken. The only effective safeguard is to engage none but a well-known mozo, and then to inform yourself as to the proper stopping-places on the road, and insist on reaching one of the caravansaries on your list each night, no matter what may betide. If your servant shows a disposition to camp in the open, or to put you up at unfamiliar ranches, you will be justified in holding him under grave suspicion, and in sleeping with an eye open. Between Guerrero and Jesus Maria, the customary halting stations, where provender for animals, and supplies of milk, eggs, chickens, and tortillas, may be obtained, and where the honesty of the people can be depended upon, are Terrero, Rio Verde, Tomóchic, Aguas Calientes, and Tabacótes.

It is a long day's ride from Guerrero to Rio Verde, passing Terrero on the way. Three lofty ridges must be crossed, besides a lower but very steep one between Terrero and Rio Verde, on this day's ride. Three more ranges, with an hour's hard work in surmounting each, bring one to Tomóchic, a veritable oasis in this barren waste of crags and gulches. Here first are seen mountains of sandstone, flat-topped semi-domes, bold precipices with lines of stratification drawn across their faces, and black caverns yawning where waters have beaten in some distant past. Deep down under the shadows of these peaks and domes lies a nearly circular level floor, laid off into corn fields, with a brown adobe town and a ruined church in the centre. Two rivers issue from cañons, join forces, and wind across this intermontane mesa, and then plunge into another cañon on their way to the Rio Yaqui. Here are evidences of a former lake, whose life history was rudely interrupted by seismic or volcanic agencies, draining it before its basin had been filled.

Not only is Tomóchic a spot of rare beauty and startling contrasts; it is a meeting-place of many roads, and a divisional point between the flora of the plains and the lofty mountains. A few hasty journeys through this complex mountain system are insufficient to give one a very accurate notion of its geology; but some features stand out in strong relief. There has been folding of the old Tertiary rocks on a magnificent scale, with extensive faulting. The deeply buried strata, fusing with relief of pressure, have followed up under the arches of the anticlines, forming mountains of felsite now exposed by the denudation of the overlying formations. In places dikes have intruded from this lower ferruginous magma, which to-day stand forth as walls of brick-red porphyry. Subsequently, mighty eruptions of trachyte forced their way through lines of weakness, following the axes of the anticlines, or opening fissures along fault-planes in a transverse direction. The most magnificent of these trachyte dikes is one averaging more than a thousand feet in width, intruding through a complex of fault-planes running west-northwest from Tomóchic. The junction between this dike and the adjacent sandstones has proved so feebly resistant to erosion that the waters have here carved out Banderilla Cañon, one of the grandest gorges in Mexico. The pinnacled escarpments of trachyte, the fantastic cliffs, and terraces of sandstone like stupendous Egyptian architecture, the grotesque caverns and balanced rocks, the twilight gloom of the narrow cañon with walls towering thousands of feet above, the suggestions of superstitious awe which this marvellous scenery has inspired (as shown by crosses planted on lofty crags or disposed in the shadows of smoke-stained caves), the roar of waterfalls, the ceaseless sighing of the wind through notches in the mountains—all combine to leave an impression of might and mystery and beauty which can never be forgotten.

It is conspicuous that these cañons have almost invariably had their location determined by dikes of trachyte, or by dikes of basic intrusives (either basalt or andesite) which burst through at some period after the trachytic outflow, following approximately the same general lines of weakness. But most curious is the abrupt change in character at Tomóchic between the vegetation east and west of this point. Elevations of nine to ten thousand feet are common on either side, but eastward the mountains resemble in almost all details the ranges which intersect the plains. The same scrubby evergreen oaks, with their small, slender, rigid leaves, the clustering manzanilla bushes with gnarled, shining, maroon-colored stems, the open, bare appearance of the peaks with secate growing to their summits, the grayish-brown hue of the landscape, are precisely what one may see at Colláchic or in Pedernales Gap. More than this, there is evidence that the mesa country did once extend to Rio Verde at least, within fifteen miles of Tomóchic, which is probably fifty miles west of Guerrero. By road the distance is nearer seventy miles. The valley immediately to the eastward of Rio Verde is the result of denudation of a mesa. The corrugated edge of the mesa-bench, now nothing more than a fringe high up on the flanks of the enclosing mountains, the characteristic mammillated surface of the lower denuded region, the lava terraces, all are here, but in a more advanced stage of degradation than is to be seen elsewhere in Chihuahua. This effect would seem to be due to rejuvenation of the rivers by the elevation of this ancient level plain. It raises a very interesting question as to the relation between the upheaval of the great Sierra, with its intrusive rocks, and the geological phenomena which produced the parallel mountains of the plain. It might serve as a time measure, and is worthy of careful study.

The most extraordinary intrusion of basic rocks to be seen on the whole route across the mountains occurs at Rio Verde, on the western edge of this old denuded mesa. These rocks are apparently rich in alkalies, so that in their decomposition they yield a soil in which no vegetation can flourish. They are bleached, barren, desolate, crumbling away by concentric weathering, leaving fantastic towers and masses like the ruined walls of structures built of rubble. Well does it merit its appellation of the Devil's Field (El Campo del Diablo).

West of Tomóchic the oaks are rapidly replaced by pines, until at Tabacótes splendid forests of conifers cover the mountains to their summits. Even a few hemlocks and spruces appear, with other species belonging to more northerly latitudes, and a singular scrubby tree, probably a heath, called the *madroño*, with dense foliage of corrugated, obovate, thick, brittle leaves, glossy-green above and covered with white down on the under surface. Its gnarled trunk and branches are brilliant red on one side, fading off into a dull creamy gray on the other, as if it had once received a coat of paint which the weather had nearly worn away. Other vegetation, however, is very scanty until the advent of the rains in June and July. This is properly the springtime of the high mountains. The flowers burst forth with suddenness, and amidst the general barrenness their brilliancy seems enhanced, and they assume a prominence quite out of proportion to their numbers. The most abundant of the smaller plants are vetches and sorrels, though the compositæ and liliaceæ are also common. The vetches, however, are the dominant family, as many as twenty distinct species being counted in one small valley, but no arboraceous forms of the leguminoseæ were found. The adaptability of the country to the culture of beans, peas, and alfalfa is unmistakable, but the available agricultural land is insignificant in extent. Such as there is has mostly been occupied by the Tarahumara Indians, a native tribe which, after a long struggle against the Apaches, finally exterminated these enemies with the aid of rifles supplied by the Mexican Government, and has now settled down to peaceful industry. Their wretched stone huts are in striking contrast with their well-tended farms and sleek cattle. In appearance and mode of living they are still savages, but the instinct of the husbandman is strong in them, and the country is better off for their existence. The sterling qualities of this race are shown by the circumstance that the Government officials charged with the transportation of bullion from the mines to Chihuahua employ only Tarahumaras as guards for the treasure-trains.

Although mining has been carried on for many decades in this region, the industry has only made a fair beginning as yet. Very little intelligent prospecting has been done, and the discoveries made have been the result of accident. The relation of the veins to the geology of the country is extremely simple. They seem to have been formed after the latest intrusions of basic lavas, in close connection with the contacts between these and the preceding acidic intrusives. This relationship holds good also for many of the greatest veins in the mountains of the plains. Hence one may expect that something might come of the reported occurrence of metalliferous deposits in the vicinity of Rio Verde and Guerrero, where the geological setting is certainly similar to that in which veins are being worked in the District of Ocampo, in the vicinity of Jesus Maria. For a like reason it is not improbable that the claims made by residents of Colláchic and Santa Isabel, farther east, concerning veins in those localities, may have some foundation in fact. The ores for the most part are not simple, carrying chiefly silver, often with important quantities of gold, associated with more or less copper, lead, and antimony. Rich veins of argentiferous copper and lead have been reported at various times, and some have been worked in a crude way, but little is yet known concerning them. Mining operations are necessarily conducted here under severe difficulties, owing principally to the excessive cost of transportation, and this hardship will not soon be overcome. The railroad from Chihuahua is obliged by the charter under which it is being built to continue across the mountains, and the route is expected to lead through the District of Ocampo, but this is all in the future. It will be a great boon, however, when freight may come to Guerrero by rail, and mining operations in the mountains will undoubtedly expand largely in consequence.

In spite of the large sums paid out as wages by the mining companies, there is terrible poverty throughout the whole Sierra Madre. The cost of provisions is so high that even those of frugal habits (who are very few) cannot lay up money, and a temporary stoppage of mining work throws the idle upon the charity of the community. Some who have grown discouraged from the uncertainty of employment in the camps have taken small ranches in the intermontane valleys, where they may at least grow corn and beans to feed themselves and their children, and raise goats to give them milk, even if they cannot buy clothes to wear. It fills one with inexpressible sadness to see these poor, starved, timid children of the mountains, often bare from their waists up, shivering in the icy blast, hoping against hope that the traveller who has come to their roof for the night may invite them to share some of his abundance to appease for once their hunger. Yet, famished as they are, they will never venture to ask for as much as a cracker, and, after all that has been said about the purloining habits of the Mexicans, it is pleasing to be able to testify that, so far as one traveller's experience goes, neither the provision-box nor baggage was ever molested, though no special precautions were taken to protect either. This is rural honesty—strong here as it is among the agricultural classes of nearly every country in the world. In the towns and mining camps one cannot be so trustful, but, considering the conditions under which they live, and the lawlessness which so long existed, it is creditable to the character of the common people that they do not more often take to open brigandage, which in these wild mountains one would think could be conducted with no great fear of the civil authorities. But it must not be forgotten that the Government has pursued the bandits, whenever they have appeared, with relentless energy. When captured, they have been shot without ceremony, and their bodies have been hung up by the wayside as a warning to the evil-minded. To bring rude men like these of the Sierra Madre to respect the law of the land was no easy task, but it has been accomplished in a most commendable manner. And as the paths of commerce and the pursuit of industry have been rendered safe, the schools have followed under the guidance of the State, even into the remotest hamlets of the mountains. Whoever thinks that the Government of Mexico is weak will experience an agreeable change of belief by penetrating into these mountain fastnesses of Chihuahua, than which there could be no more difficult place for the maintenance of law and order.

COURTENAY DEKALB.

Correspondence.

BETTERING THE INSTRUCTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My Kentucky friends seem to have improved upon the "Returning Boards" of Reconstruction days. They now have two, so that if one should miss fire, as was the case here, they can fall back upon the other. The law is abominable, I grant you, but in this case there is a bit of poetic justice (so called) in it, that commends itself to those of us who lived south of Mason and Dixon's line in the seventies.

VIRGINIUS.

February 9, 1900.

THE SHIPPING SUBSIDY BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the daily papers of the 17th of last month the President of the International Navigation Company, in his testimony before the congressional committee having the Subsidy bill in charge, is reported to have said: "The four fast ships [the *New York*, *St. Louis*, *St. Paul*, and *Paris*] never made the Company a dollar, and he figured the net loss to the Company at $415,600 annually. The eleven ships under foreign flags supported the other ships. The fast ships, like fast trains, did not pay." In the papers of the following day he is reported to have further explained his testimony as follows: "The reason for the need of such legislation he places at the door of the protective tariff, with its consequent higher scale of wages. The Liverpool scale of wages for firemen, for instance, he said, is $17 to $30 a month, while the American rate is $35 or more."

When President Griscom declares that "the fast ships, like fast trains, do not pay," I take it that he means that fast ships which are competing for high-class passenger service are less profitable than slow ships, and hence need to be especially subsidized. Whether his statement is intended to apply (in a less degree, of course) to fast ships under foreign flags, as well as to those under the American flag, or not, is not made clear. But, however this may be, it means that high-class passenger service is much more unprofitable, under the American flag, than freight and low-class passenger service. The question is, What do we want with business that can be carried on only at a loss? Of course this applies to all ships requiring a subsidy, but it applies to fast ships particularly, where the loss is very much greater. It is plain that the subsidy will not make the business any more profitable. It will only tax the American people

and thus reduce the remuneration of profitable American industry, in order to make up the loss on this unprofitable business. If foreigners see fit to carry us across the ocean, in a floating palace, for less than cost, surely we have reason to wish them joy of the traffic, and no reason whatever to wish to deprive them of it. For instance (supposing the subsidy is sufficient only to make good the actual loss), if it costs $100 to transport an American citizen across the Atlantic, in a fast ship under the American flag, and the foreign companies are willing to do it for $80, how can it benefit the American people to give him (or the steamship company on his behalf) $20 out of the public treasury merely to enable him to sail under the American flag? Under the foreign flag he uses but $80 of American wealth, all of which is of his own private funds. In the subsidized ship, under the American flag, he would use $100 (instead of $80) of American wealth, 20 per cent. of which would be out of the public funds, and would entail that much reduction of the profits of American industry. If this American citizen cannot afford to go abroad, with a satisfactory display of patriotism, at his own expense, it is evidently best for the American people that he should display his patriotism by staying at home.

The other point is, that ships, under the American flag, being compelled by our laws to employ American labor, cannot compete with ships under foreign flags, on account of the higher wage-rate of this country. This is supposed to be true (in differing degrees) of both slow and fast ships. The statement that this higher wage-rate is due to the tariff has nothing to do with the matter. It is altogether gratuitous. All that concerns the Subsidy bill is the statement that foreign labor can be hired for less than American labor. Hence the question here is, What benefit can it be to the American people to take money out of the public treasury in order to bring business under the American flag which is not sufficiently profitable to afford American wages? President Griscom, who, undoubtedly, is a thoroughly competent witness, says substantially that the actual earning capacity of a marine fireman is from $17 to $30 a month. He mentions firemen as representative of all employees, in respect to the difference between the American and foreign wage-rate, and says, in effect, that they must be hired at that rate to enable the company to do business at a profit. And he also says that the American rate is $35 or more, and hence the need of a subsidy to enable the company to hire American labor. Now, the only conceivable reason why American firemen must be paid $35 or more a month is because they have other employment which is profitable at that rate; and it follows that the Ship Subsidy bill is a proposition to tax the whole population of the United States and give the proceeds to the steamship companies to enable them to transfer American workmen from profitable to relatively unprofitable employment. This is much worse than robbing Peter to pay Paul.

Is it not evident that the only right way to bring foreign commerce under our flag is to change our navigation laws and our customs laws, so that business can be done profitably? FREEMAN STEWART.

PHILADELPHIA, February 10, 1900.

"PHANTOMNATION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Nowhere that I have seen this monstrosity adverted to is anything said relative to its history.

We find, in Richard Paul Jodrell's *Philology on the English Language*, published in 1820:

"*Phantomnation, n.* A multitude of spectres. 'These solemn vows and holy offerings paid To all the *phantomnations* of the dead.' Pope, *Odyssey*, b. x., v. 627."

Worcester followed, in 1860, with:

"*Phantomnation, n.* Illusion. Pope."

A few years later, Webster's editors proposed, aiming at an improvement on Worcester:

"*Phantomnation, n.* Appearance as of a phantom; illusion. [*Obs. and rare.*] Pope."

In England and its dependencies, this Brummagem gem of lexicography is known chiefly through the medium of Ogilvie's Dictionary.

If those who have accepted *phantomnation* as incomplex had used their eyes to proper purpose, their recorded treatment of it would have been impossible. Though "a multitude of spectres" is not one with "a nation made up of phantoms," Jodrell plainly understood what he essayed to define. But his definition was passed by unobserved, and so was the very next article after his *phantomnation*, namely, *phantomprophet*,—also credited to Pope,—explained by "an incorporeal seer." A single glance, other than the most hasty, at his article on either of those eccentricities would have sufficed to reveal that he was possessed with a singular caprice. In *phantom* we have a substantive passing into an adjective; so that, *phantomnation* being no stereotyped combination, either *phantom-nation* or *phantom nation* is permissible, with hardly anything to choose between them. The point is by no means a nice one.

Worcester, where quoted above, gives no information as to where he learned that Pope has *phantomnation*, or as to who first defined it "illusion," or something similar. It would be curious to know how many of those who, like him, have appropriated it, were aware of its being in Jodrell. That they all went astray owing to a coincidence of oscitancy is clearly beyond belief. We must suppose, then, that their miscarriage had its source in the too frequent practice of their craft in general: whatever novelty one of them brings forward is spheterized by his successors in compilation, without scrutiny and without acknowedgment of indebtedness.

A good relevant example is offered in the fortunes of Archdeacon Todd's *innuent*, which he evolved out of Robert Burton's *inuent*, for *invent*. To produce a hundred spuriosities matching this, I need only explore a few of my pigeon-holes. And what acquaintance could any patron of the spookish *phantomnation*, "illusion," have had with the English of Pope, a severe purist, to believe him capable of being the father of such a misbegotten bantling? In order to its existence, it is necessary to presume the verb *phantomnate;* and how could that, or a derivative of it, come by an epenthetic *n?* That Bishop Hall, Owen Feltham, Sir Thomas Browne, or Henry More might have coined *phantomnate* or *phantomnation* is not wholly incredible.

Endless are the mishaps of dictionary-wrights and glossarists. I will instance a couple more, both of them disastrous croppers, and so conclude.

Among the publications of the early English Text Society is a volume containing Simon Fish's *Supplicacyon for the Beggers*, etc., in which occurs *gnatonical*. This, in the Glossarial Index to the volume, is interpreted "gnat-like." Looking to the sense assigned to *gnatonical*—correctly *gnathonical*—equally with it might be expected *catonical, ratonical,* or *spratonical*. As little connection had Terence's Gnatho with *gnats* as his Thraso had with *thrashing*.

In the *Supplemental Glossary* of the Rev. T. Lewis O. Davies, M.A., we find, taken from an old divine, *glossem*, regarding which we are told, as a tentative guide to its signification: "I suppose meant for *gloss 'em.*" A little search ought surely to have resulted in the discovery of γλώσσημα, of which it is a shortening. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, January 13, 1900.

P. S.—The *Encyclopædic Dictionary*, analyzing *phantomnation* into *phantom* and *-nation*, defines it: "An appearance, as of a phantom; an illusion." Its mysterious *-nation* is left unexplained.

Notes.

We are requested to give notice that any person having letters from the late Gen. S. C. Armstrong of Hampton, Va., will greatly oblige his family by communicating with Mrs. Edith Armstrong Talbot, Holderness, N. H.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. announce for spring publication 'The Hexaglot Bible,' edited with co-laborers by the Rev. Edward Riches De Levante, in six quarto volumes for Hebrew, Greek, Latin, English, German, and French (O. T.), and Greek, Syriac, Latin, English, German, and French (N. T.); 'A Mental Index to the Bible,' by the Rev. S. C. Thompson; 'The Jefferson Cyclopædia,' by John P. Foley; and 'The Domestic Blunders of Women,' by "A Mere Man."

'The Distribution of Wealth: A Theory of Wages, Interests, and Profits,' by Prof. John Bates Clark of Columbia; 'Rural Wealth and Welfare,' by George T. Fairchild; 'A History of Rome for High Schools and Academies,' by George Willis Botsford; and 'The Teaching and Study of Elementary Mathematics,' by David Eugene Smith, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

Cassell & Co. will shortly have ready Schilling's Spanish Grammar, translated and edited by Frederick Zagel; and 'Our Rarer British Breeding-Birds; Their Nests and Summer Haunts,' by Richard Kearton.

Brentano's will bring out 'The Writing-Table of the Twentieth Century,' "an indispensable book for all American Society correspondents," by F. Schuyler Matthews.

A translation of Balzac's Letters to Mme. Hanska, by Miss Wormeley, is promised by Hardy, Pratt & Co., Boston.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon issue Michelangelo's Sonnets, edited by William Wells Newell.

A new novel, 'She Walks in Beauty,' by Katharine Tynan, is announced by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

"The Riverside Art Series" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) follows the 'Raphael' of its first issue by a 'Rembrandt' which is, as to text, by the same writer, Estelle M. Hurll,

as the former volume. Great story-teller as Rembrandt was, upon occasion, he is yet less essentially an illustrator than was Raphael, and one feels that more of the essence of his art is omitted in the kind of comment that Miss Hurll gives than in the case of the Urbinate. Parts of the little book read dangerously like illustrated Sunday-school lessons. The reproductions are rather better than in the first issue, but are not yet irreproachable.

Just one year after the first appearance of Dr. Frank Hall Thorp's 'Outlines of Industrial Chemistry' (Macmillan Co.) comes a new and revised edition. If the determination is to revise this publication yearly, it will undoubtedly gain vastly in importance. In the early years it will be requisite not only to keep up with the march of improvement, but also to remedy inevitable faults of the original preparation. We find, however, only two considerable changes in this issue: namely, on p. 446, a paragraph of eleven lines on carbonizing wool is inserted at the expense of a shorter paragraph on scouring wool, two others being more concisely expressed; and on p. 51 an account of the Herreshoff Pyrites Burner takes the place of descriptions of the Perret-Ollivier Furnace and the Hasenclever-Helbig Burner. The other changes that we have remarked do not amount to a score of slight corrections. The index is amended by the addition of a single entry, besides those which the above-mentioned insertions in the text required. The lists of authorities are almost absolutely unchanged. Not even new editions have been noticed. At this rate, the work, far from being improved, is barely maintaining its place in the line of march. Its external appearance is even handsomer, owing to the paper taking the ink better; and figure 26 has been redrawn to advantage.

Prof. John Goodman's 'Mechanics Applied to Engineering' (Longmans) is a book which we may just mention, notwithstanding its elementary technical character, because its purpose is peculiar. It is addressed to men who have some knowledge of mechanics, as taught in the mathematical treatises, but whose knowledge floats among the clouds, so that they do not know how to apply it to engineering problems. Among the various effects of the usual bad teaching of mathematics, this is a very common one; and this work will do something for the victims. Part of it, however, seems to fall between two stools, being superfluous for those who are up in theoretical mechanics, and insufficient for those who are not. This will not prevent other parts of the book from being useful. Even an accomplished engineer will find some things in it worthy of his attention.

'Mathematics,' from the Chicago *Record* (Doubleday & McClure Co.), will be found useful by journeymen carpenters who are deficient in the theoretical side of their profession, and perhaps by some others.

Prof. William Ripper's 'Steam-Engine Theory and Practice' (Longmans), though too technical to be criticised here, is, nevertheless, so well put together and so concisely expressed as to deserve notice for its literary merit; and the matter of it is equally judicious and strong. So far as we have tested it, we have found it unusually accurate. But that students who mean to make it their business to understand the steam-engine, and who have gone so far as to know what differentials and integrals are, should shirk the labor of going on to learn enough mathematics thoroughly to master the theory of thermodynamics, and should find themselves sufficiently numerous to compel the adaptation of a work like this to their half-and-halfness—this, we must say, bespeaks some great fault in the methods of teaching. Perhaps it is ultimately traceable to the neglect of scientific logic, in consequence of which teachers of mathematics, not fully understanding its logic themselves, are unable to impart it to others, unless their pupils have a natural gift that makes them independent of teaching. But, given the conditions, we cannot see how Prof. Ripper could have done better than he has.

Dr. Philip Atkinson's 'Power Transmitted by Electricity' (Van Nostrand) has been fully revised; and obsolete matter has been cut out. There is nothing useless in it, and it well represents the present state of the art.

A new volume of "The Specialists' Series" is 'An Introduction to the Study of Central-Station Electricity Supply,' by Albert Gay and C. H. Yeaman (Macmillan). It is to some extent a work of reference, but is much rather a book to be read, dealing broadly with all sorts of points which arise in the conduct of a central station, but which are distinct from direct problems of electric lighting. There is no attempt at treating details exhaustively; but we feel sure that the discussions the work contains will be highly appreciated and found serviceable by those to whom they are addressed.

We believe there is no more uncompromising educational iconoclasm on record than that indulged in by Superintendent Edwin P. Seaver of Boston in his delineation (in the *Educational Review* for February) of the ideal public high school of the twentieth century. Yet some such plan as he proposes is what we are inevitably coming to: the ever-widening field of knowledge, the accumulating mass of heterogeneous educational material, together with the growing claims for recognition of individual tastes and rights on the part of the pupils, are even now beginning to remove beyond the range of possibility fixed courses of instruction for all. To do away with all prescribed work and allow students to select any study, or studies, to suit themselves or their parents, and to "carry these far enough to realize well-nigh their full educational value," is merely accepting fully and frankly a principle already powerfully asserting itself in the educational practice of our time. The shifting of responsibility for the pupil's education and success in life from the school to the pupil himself or the parent is considered by Mr. Seaver a decided gain, and it can, at least, be said that the risk is no greater in one case than in the other. For no thinking man or woman of mature age can for a moment doubt that the number of lives marred is at least equal to that made by scholastic rigidity, and by the authoritative or persuasive influence of narrow-minded, ill-balanced pedagogues. The subject, which the Boston Superintendent of Schools discusses in half-a-dozen pages, constitutes one of the greatest problems bequeathed by the closing century to the new.

We are glad to receive the first number of an attractive quarterly magazine, albeit of slender dimensions, entitled the *Pennsylvania German*, and edited at Lebanon, Pa., by the Rev. P. C. Croll. It is to a large extent devoted to Conrad Weiser, of whom a curious frontispiece portrait is given. He heads a series of "Famous Pennsylvania Germans." Next follow some "Poetic Gems," in the dialect and partly in translation. The tourist is invited by an interesting "Historic Pilgrimage over the Old Horse-Shoe Pike." Numerous illustrations helpfully adorn the number.

The modification of the American character by the physical nature of the country is dwelt upon by A. Oppel in the *Annales de Géographie* for January. A sympathetic and suggestive record of the impressions of an intelligent observer closes with a reference to the wonderful assimilative power of the country, especially over Germans, and to the completion of the "economic domain" by the acquisition of tropical possessions and its probable effects upon our future. Other articles are a résumé of recent investigations of coral reefs; observations on Mt. Blanc, and on the vegetation of the Caucasus (with a map); and an interesting sketch, with numerous illustrations, of some of the Berber tribes inhabiting the Aurès, the highest chain of the Atlas Mountains.

The *Bulletin* of the Society of Civil Engineers of France, at Paris, has become a semi-monthly, and is published on the 15th and 30th of each month. The first number of the current volume contains the conclusion of Périssé and Godfernaux's interesting memoir on mechanical traction as applied to public conveyances on railroads and highways.

Among the contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number twelve, is a suggestive colored map, with notes, showing the distribution of the agricultural and industrial population of the German Empire. A glance suffices to perceive that eastern Prussia and Bavaria are almost exclusively agricultural, while Saxony and Brunswick are wholly devoted to manufactures. The editor summarizes the meteorological observations of the Belgian Antarctic expedition, and holds that they prove that the absolute "Kältepol" of the earth is to be found there. The index of the geographical publications for the year exhibits the influence of current events on this branch of literature. The whole number of works noticed is 868, of which 221 and 22 are on Europe and the United States respectively, a considerable falling off from the previous year, while the 127 and 145 for Asia and Africa show an equal increase.

A striking description of Turkey under the present Sultan was given by Mahmud Pasha, his brother-in-law and for twenty-two years his minister, now a refugee in Paris, in a recent interview with M. de Blowitz of the London *Times*. "The whole empire is captive," he exclaimed impulsively at the outset. "Abdul Hamid keeps everybody in prison. . . . Whatever he has not directly under his hand frightens him, and whatever he thus does have in hand appears to him menacing at the slightest sign of individual will on its part or of a thought not the master's own. He is the Sultan of the Terror, and this fact haunts him even as it does others." At the same time he is a man of wonderful activity, working "harder than any of his subjects, but at useless and childish things," as, the uniform of the army and the voluminous police reports. Mahmud recounted his own futile efforts to secure reforms, and

pictured the heir to the throne, a man of fifty-five, as "shut out from the world. He sees nobody and knows nothing of what is going on outside. Then suddenly he will be told that the Sultan is dead and that he has been proclaimed. It is just as if a blind man were told, 'The door is open, walk!'" Mahmud closed by saying that the great wants of Turkey are an unfettered press, amnesty for political offences, and equality for all before the law, and to gain these he should support the liberal Turks scattered over Europe.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for January contains, besides the regular illustrated reports on the excavations at the Tells Zakarîya and es-Safi, an interesting account of a recently discovered rock-tomb north of Jerusalem. From the Greek influence displayed in the architectural and decorative details of the entrance it probably dates from the Hasmonean period. Prof. Sayce contributes a note on the inscribed jar-handles discovered by Dr. Bliss, which he is inclined to refer "to the eighth century B. C., though they may belong to the reign of Solomon." A similar jar-handle has been picked up at Tell el-Amarna, with a cartouche stamped in the same place and the same manner, which was manufactured about B. C. 1400.

The University of Heidelberg has started a university extension movement, and a number of professors have organized courses of lectures for the working classes to be delivered in Mannheim. The President of the Arbeiterverein of the latter city warned Catholic laborers not to attend the lectures, because the programme included a course by Prof. Klaatsch on "Darwin's Life and Teachings," and another by Prof. Deissmann, on the "History of the Origin of the New Testament." This opposition failed to produce the effect intended. More than five hundred workmen immediately joined the movement, and the lectures began on January 12 before a large and attentive audience in the aula of the Oberrealschule at Mannheim. A short address was delivered by the Prorector of the University, Prof. Osthoff, followed by Prof. Klaatsch, who gave the first of a course of six lectures on "Darwin's Life and Teachings."

The Danish Bureau of Statistics celebrates its half-century's existence by preparing a sketch of its institution and functions, with a full bibliography of its issues. In fifty years there have been only five changes in the head of the Bureau, which gives one explanation of the intelligent and consistent direction it has enjoyed and the admirable quality of its publications. Another lies in the careful selection of the chief, for he has been taken from the University or from the Bureau itself. The present head, Marcus Rubin, was long in charge of the municipal statistics of Copenhagen. The five series of annual reports, and the statistical reports and abstracts issued at irregular intervals, are worthy results of the Bureau's activity.

The death is announced of the Danish poet and critic Kristian August Emil Arentzen, at the age of seventy-three. Arentzen's first publication was a drama, "Gunlög Ormetunga," based on the saga of that name, which was followed by a second drama, also in the Oehlenschläger manner. In 1857 a collection of poems appeared under the title "Et Livsstadium" (A Stage in Life). As a poet, Arentzen belongs to a past generation, and his work as critic was also devoted to the past. His most valuable prose contributions are his treatment of the great Baggesen-Oehlenschläger polemic, in eight volumes (1870-'78), and his study of Oehlenschläger (1879), from which all later critics of the Danish poet have drawn liberally. With Arentzen passed away the last representative of the classical period of Danish literature.

—The *Atlantic* for February opens with an interesting article by Mr. Herbert Putnam on "The Library of Congress." In the course of it he explains some peculiarities of this library (which promises in time to be one of the world's great collections), not perhaps generally understood. The Library of Congress is, first of all, he says, a "legislative library"; *i. e.*, "its primary duty is to Congress." The material that it should amass should be "primarily" such as would "serve a legislator in the highest legislative body in the United States." It must not be supposed, however, that this condition restricts the field narrowly. A Representative or Senator may be an ignoramus; on the other hand, he may be capable of drawing for the discharge of his functions upon all the learning in the world; consequently, the field embraces "all history," all statistics, all the literature of institutions, everything relating to government, including political economy; "sociology in its largest sense," to say nothing of "finance, transportation, public improvements, education, international law, diplomacy." Inferentially, science, music, belles-lettres, and art might be neglected, but, owing to the fact that it is a copyright library—that is, a library which grows by a constant accession of everything copyrighted in the United States—it is not likely that these branches will be as weak as might at first sight appear. Moreover, what Congress can make, Congress can direct; and while Congress can appropriate, the Library can also accept gifts; and the direction of expansion will be necessarily determined to a great extent—though Mr. Putnam does not say so—by the genius of the Librarian. To many minds the argument would seem strong that from a library in which all future American literature is to be given a place, the literature of the world at large should not be repelled. In the Congressional Library cataloguing seems only to have begun; "there is no subject-catalogue of the general collection as it exists to-day," and the "author-catalogue" is on "loose slips, constantly withdrawn for reference" and which have not yet been verified. In answer to the question, "What is the Library of Congress to-day?" Mr. Putnam says that in mere mass it surpasses any other library in the Western Hemisphere; but that, deducting from the gross total of printed books (850,000 volumes) the Law Library, "the copyright record copies," and the Smithsonian Deposit, we have a miscellaneous collection of about 500,000 volumes, to which are to be added 250,000 pamphlets. "In these proportions," he adds, "the collection is not numerically greatly in excess of certain other collections in the United States—the Boston Public Library, for instance, the Harvard College Library, or the New York Public Library." The library is practically only fifty years old, the first collection of books having been destroyed by the British troops in 1814, and the fire of 1851 having consumed all but 20,000 volumes of the then existing collection.

—The Spanish war was eminently a magazine war, every month furnishing its new crop of military or naval articles illustrated by the pictures of heroes and their glorious deeds. This was no doubt mainly because of the encouragement given to correspondents, reporters, and illustrators by the heroes themselves. The case is reversed in the Boer war, neither side caring much about the interests of the press. Our magazines rather neglect the subject, but *Scribner's* shows its enterprise by publishing "The First Stage of the Boer War: The British Camp at Orange River," by H. J. Whigham. The illustrations are from the author's photographs. The narrative comes down only to November 22. It seems that even at that date the English officers had begun to carry rifles, to prevent their being distinguished from the men; it being felt that "something must be done to reduce the terrible mortality of officers experienced in the first two fights in Natal." Mr. Whigham thinks that the high percentage of officers killed is really due less to sharp-shooting than to the fact that, with the enormous amount of lead poured into an advancing force by the modern magazine rifle, "the officers who are standing up to direct their men run a tremendous risk of being hit." It has been said also, we believe with truth, that English officers expose themselves unnecessarily, merely for the sake of getting the Victoria cross. The moral of it all would seem to be that the English have got to learn Boer tactics; the recent operations having been magnificent, but not war. An out-of-the-way contribution is "A Garden Idyl," by George Meredith, whose poetry is now in that limbo between the uncomprehended and the classical from which his admirers assure us he will soon pass into the latter. Far be it from us to predict, or even to write of this matter sceptically. The fatal *argumentum ad hominem*—if you do not care for Meredith's "Garden Idyll," then you are no judge of garden idylls—is ever ready.

—"The White Man's Rule in Singapore" (illustrated by R. Caton Woodville) is the title of an article in the current *Harper's* by Poultney Bigelow. According to his figures, Singapore is, by virtue of a fair and peaceful English administration, a thoroughly Chinese port. The Chinamen represent 100,000 out of a total population of 160,000. "They are thus stronger numerically than the native Malays reinforced by immigrants from British India." This, however, gives but a faint idea of the relative strength of the races in economic respects. "Malays and Hindus might disappear to-morrow," yet the foundation of the prosperity of Singapore would not be affected. This is because for eighty years an English Governor, assisted by an English judge and a few white policemen, have maintained justice—and the "open door." Mr. Bigelow seems to think he may induce us to do the same thing in the Philippines. The prosperity of Singapore has its dark side in the coolie trade, more cruel, according to this authority, than the old African slave trade. He gives the usual argument for this belief—that, in the case of the slave, the importer had the same in-

terest in bringing him to market as in the case of any other chattel, while in the case of the coolie (as employers do not pay their coolies until they have worked out their contract time) no one cares whether the coolie perishes while performing his contract or not. But does not this argument prove a little too much? Cannot the same sort of reasoning be applied to free labor in general? If I hire a man to navigate a vessel for me and agree to pay him at the end of the voyage, shall I not take much less care of him than if I own him? It seems that the tigers devour the coolie, too, and no one cares. A slave would surely be protected in some way by any prudent master against tigers. It is all plausible enough; but we should like to hear an educated Chinaman's opinions about it. When all is said and done, we doubt whether the horrors of the middle passage exist anywhere now. An amazing article is "The Moral Value of Hypnotic Suggestion," by John Duncan Quackenbos. It seems that we have in hypnotism a moral cure-all, by means of the application of which to our subliminal selves we can work a complete change in our moral nature. Thieves can be cured of stealing, drunkards of drinking, and liars of lying. Beside this, hypnotism as a panacea for disease sinks into insignificance. But what becomes of individual responsibility? To us, the answer seems very plain. If, by assuming a comfortable attitude on a lounge, or in a reclining chair, and gazing, according to good Dr. Quackenbos's orders, at a red carnelian, you can sink into a hypnotic slumber which will drive out the old Adam, it were the essence of wickedness to refrain, and consequently every one who henceforward neglects this cure will be under a double responsibility, for he will sin against the light. On the other hand, any one who takes the cure, and is pronounced cured by the Doctor, is free to do what he likes. There seems, however, some doubt as to whether, in the case of relapse, the Doctor does not himself become responsible.

—The *Century* has unearthed a fresh instalment of Napoleonic memorabilia in the shape of the original record made by Napoleon's physician, Dr. Barry E. O'Meara. "Talks with Napoleon: His Life and Conversation at St. Helena," is the title of a series of papers which are to give the substance of the record, not already covered by Dr. O'Meara's well-known book, 'Napoleon in Exile.' According to the editorial introduction, the worthy doctor made use in his book of less than half of his manuscript journal, and condensed and modified much of the part which was actually utilized. Nineteen manuscript volumes have come into the possession of the *Century*, which will now decipher and publish, with illustrations. For the Napoleonic student it is no doubt interesting, but for the ordinary magazine reader this first chapter seems hard reading. "Paris Revisited: The Governmental Machine" is the title of an entertaining paper by Richard Whiteing—the author of 'No. 5 John St.'—with pictures by André Castaigne. The "machine" in France is more or less like the same institution in every country which derives its administrative institutions from Rome; its striking feature in that country is its permanence amid revolutions and convulsions such as have shaken no other part of the "Latin" world. Monarchy, Republic, Empire, Commune—it is all one to the machine, which works on, socially, politically, and legally, as if the other changes were mere changes in name. It has the permanence which in Anglo-Saxon countries law and constitutions have. It is the great administrative habit of France, which has come down through the centuries, and in a certain sense is France. How closely connected with militarism it is, we have just seen in the Dreyfus trial. To get justice for Dreyfus required a new machine, which meant not merely a new administration, but a new social, military, and political world. The complete militarization of France has, of course, had an astonishing effect on opinion, and, just now, it produces some curious effects, because for the moment the machine is pulled one way, by a liberal executive, while the army threatens in the other direction to swallow up the whole affair—republic, machine, and all. Hence, on the return of a successful commander, the first effort of the Government is to "keep him out of the way." When Gen. Dodds came back from Dahomey "he was isolated as though he had brought the plague with him." "If America were France, Admiral Dewey would be invited, not to say ordered, to recruit his health in the country; and the Government, while still constrained to offer him a smiling welcome, would tremble every time he approached Washington or New York." So the Roman machine palpitated eighteen centuries since when a victorious general approached Rome. And so, should France become involved, as the army hopes, in actual war, may the machine be once again swallowed up by it. But the machine will still exist, and what has been shall be—till the end of the machine.

—In the *American Historical Review* for January, attention should be fixed on M. Ostrogorski's paper on "The Rise and Fall of the Nominating Caucus, Legislative and Congressional." The writer's imperfect mastery of our idiom makes some friction in the reading, but the fruit of his researches is substantial, and his political ideals are creditably high. The particular kind of caucus under review is indeed no more, but, as this writer well says, it "established disastrous precedents and habits of mind which American political life has never been able to throw off." It nullified the intent of the Constitution regarding the election of President, and has implanted in the people "a respect for party conventionalism, for its external badge; has drilled them into a blind acceptance of *regular nominations*." Should this practice, said the DeWitt Clinton protestants of 1812 against the Congressional caucus, "become inveterate, we do not hesitate to say that to promulgate a nomination will be to decree the election"—a state of things fully realized by our latter-day bosses and machines. "The cry," says Mr. Ostrogorski, quoting further the same protest, " 'The charm of a regular nomination shall no more have influence upon us, and no candidate shall receive our support who pretends to have any other reliance than his own intrinsic merits'—this cry has lost nothing of its timeliness and reality. It has remained a legacy to be discharged by the American democracy. The efforts that the latter will make to pay it off and to do honor to its name, will form one of the most moving of dramas, and one whose vicissitudes will be followed with bated breath by contemporaries no less than by the future historian."

—Among the original documents in the same number of the *Review*, the Journal of the Jerseyman Philip Fithian, kept at Nomini Hall, Virginia, in 1773-74, well repays perusal and reflection. Fithian graduated with Aaron Burr at Princeton in 1772, and went South as tutor in the family of Robert Carter, owner of 60,000 acres of land and 600 negroes. His pictures of Southern life and manners are truly valuable. "Mr. Carter is allowed by all, and from what I have already seen of others, I make no Doubt at all but he is, by far, the most humane to his Slaves of any in these parts"; but "Good God! are these Christians?" exclaims the diarist on learning that the woman who makes his bed and "a civil, inoffensive agreeable young Man who acts both in the character of a Clerk and Steward," have for their weekly allowance of food only a peck of corn and a pound of meat. There is, we believe, no recorded utterance of Dr. Channing's of like nature in consequence of his Virginia experience. Fithian goes on to relate two devices of fiendish cruelty practised as punishments in lieu of flogging by "Mr. George Lee's overseer, one Morgan," and concludes: "I need say nothing of these, seeing there is a righteous God who will take vengeance on such Inventions!" Fithian had already begun the study of theology, and in 1774 was licensed to preach. It is significant of his own personality and of the time that some reflections on his life at Princeton evoked while still at Nomini Hall give him "a secret and real Pleasure," as he recalls the various forms of college rowdyism, "the Mischiefs often Practised by Wanton Boys," the hazing of freshmen, robbing of chicken roosts, and the like, and the "Parading bad Women." The last item of our divinity student is to be understood only by reference to the indignities visited on that unfortunate class in broad daylight by respectable citizens in an age of low morals and heartless indifference to suffering, as evidenced also by the treatment of criminals and the insane.

—Workers in many fields of philology met in San Francisco on December 29 and 30, 1899, to unite in founding a Philological Association of the Pacific Coast. The meeting was a surprise to all its promoters in the number and enthusiasm of those in attendance, and in the quality of the papers read—some twenty in number. This meeting, the first general philological gathering ever held on the western side of the continent, was the realization of plans laid at a dinner of the University of California Greek Club in December, 1898. The cooperation of the Philological Society of Leland Stanford Junior University was sought, and a general invitation to participate issued to all philological workers, whether in ancient or modern languages. The society was thus intended to follow the lines of the American Philological Association of earlier days, rather than the more specialized bodies of late years. Of the scholars present, the majority were from one or other of the two great California universities, but the smaller colleges and secondary schools also were well represented, and there were delegates from Washington, Oregon, and Nevada. While the papers on subjects connected with the classical languages outnumbered the rest, yet other portions of

the field of philology were not neglected. Of the papers read at the three general sessions, a number were of decided weight and importance, especially "Points of Interest in Chinese Philology," by Dr. John Fryer, Agassiz Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of California; "Certain Suggested Irregularities in the Versification of Robert Greene," by Charles Mills Gayley, Professor of the English Language and Literature in the University of California; "Homunculus," by Dr. Julius Goebel, Professor of German Literature and Philology in the Leland Stanford Junior University; "The Charge of Xenia in the Old Comedy," by Dr. Augustus Taber Murray, Professor of Greek in the Leland Stanford Junior University. Dr. Benjamin Ide Wheeler, President of the University of California, delivered the first annual address, on "The Place of Philology," discussing the relation of philology to the other disciplines, pointing out the dangers of pedantry and routine, and proclaiming the wide scope of the science. At the concluding business session, officers were elected for the ensuing year as follows: President, President Wheeler; Vice-Presidents, Dr. Ewald Fluegel, Professor of English Philology in the Leland Stanford Junior University, and Professor Clapp of the University of California; Secretary and Treasurer, Dr. John Ernst Matzke, Professor of the Romanic Languages in the Leland Stanford Junior University. Negotiations are in progress for the affiliation of the new society with the American Philological Association. The next annual meeting will be held in San Francisco in December, 1900.

CHURCHILL'S RIVER WAR.

The River War: An Historical Account of the Reconquest of the Soudan. By Winston Spencer Churchill. Edited by Col. F. Rhodes, D.S.O. Illustrated. In two volumes. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. Maps and plans. 8vo.

The reconquest of the Egyptian Sudan was a military achievement remarkable first of all for the fact that unvarying and complete success attended every movement from the advance from Wady Halfa on March 16, 1896, to the defeat and death of the Khalifa in November, 1899. This success was mainly due to one man endowed with extraordinary organizing genius, seconded by able and zealous subordinates. It was accomplished with an economy of expense unequalled in the annals of modern warfare. The obstacles presented by the Nile, the desert, climate, cholera, and, above all, a foe well-armed and ably led and always superior in numbers, were formidable indeed. The perfection of the organization was shown by the precision with which the different operations of the campaigns were executed—railroads built, marches made, battles fought almost on a day and hour previously fixed upon. The English contingent sent to aid in the final attack on Omdurman reached Cairo on August 1, and the transports for their return were ordered to be at Alexandria by the end of the next month. The force, an infantry brigade and a cavalry regiment, ascended the river—by rail, steamer, and by marching—some 1,500 miles, fought a battle, captured a city, and a part of them were on duty in Cyprus on September 23. The purely military expenditures for the three years' operations of an army 25,000 strong were in round numbers $5,000,000. If the 500 miles of railway, 900 miles of telegraph, and a flotilla of steamers, permanent additions to the resources of the country, be included, the cost was $12,000,000. For this sum an enemy numbering 80,000 fighting men was annihilated, and a region one million square miles in extent was reconquered and occupied.

These salient features of the "river war" are clearly brought out in Mr. Winston Churchill's interesting volumes. His qualifications for his task as an historian are a military education, active service in the Indian frontier war, of which he wrote an account, good powers of observation, and the gift (a clear inheritance from his father, Lord Randolph Churchill) of a facile descriptive style, somewhat boyishly exuberant and discursive, but highly graphic. We are also reminded of his father in the entire frankness of his criticisms of the strategy of the generals—not excepting Lord Kitchener himself—an act of rare courage in a subaltern. An eye-witness and participant only of the campaign of August, 1898, his accounts of the preceding campaigns are taken from contemporaneous records, official reports, and especially the personal narratives of officers engaged in them. This latter fact, as well as the editing of Col. F. Rhodes, gives to his work a peculiar value, and justifies the modest hope, expressed in his preface, "that the story is at least as accurate as any other that is likely to be written."

A brief sketch of the rebellion of the Mahdi, Gordon's part in it, the history of the Dervish Empire and the preparations for its overthrow, is followed by an account, in greater or less detail, of every important step in the advance of the Anglo-Egyptian army. The attention is mainly directed, of course, to the actions; the preliminary movements, the composition of the attacking force, and the several parts played by the Egyptian, Sudanese, and British troops being chronicled with painstaking care. Numerous maps and plans, showing the routes taken by the different detachments, the physical features of the battle-fields, the positions of the opposing forces at different stages of the conflict, make the somewhat technical accounts easily intelligible to the civilian reader. But the less striking operations, though equally essential to success, are by no means neglected: the organization of the transport service, the coöperation of the gunboats and the building of the desert railway are carefully treated. An interesting chapter is devoted to the railway, to which more than any other one thing Lord Kitchener owed his final speedy victory. But for the aid given by the British reinforcements brought in ten days from Cairo to the camp at Atbara, the chances are that the Sirdar might have suffered the fate of Hicks Pasha in an overwhelming onslaught of the dervish army. Deserved praise is given to all engaged in the work, from the half-score of English engineers who superintended its construction, to the rank and file of the "Railway Battalion," 2,500 strong, whose "only qualification was capacity and willingness to work. They presented a motley appearance. Dervish prisoners, released, but still wearing their jibbas, assisted stalwart Egyptians in unloading rails and sleepers. Dinkas, Shillooks, Jaalin, and Barabras shovelled contentedly together at the embankments. One hundred civilian Sudanese—chiefly time-expired soldiers—were also employed; and these, since they were trustworthy and took an especial pride in their work, soon learned the arts of spiking rails and sleepers, fishing rails together, and straightening." "It is scarcely within the power of words," adds our author, "to describe the savage desolation of the regions into which the line and its constructors plunged. A smooth ocean of bright-colored sand spread far and wide to distant horizons. The tropical sun beat with senseless perseverance upon the level surface until it could scarcely be touched with a naked hand, and the filmy air glittered and shimmered as over a furnace." Nevertheless the work was prosecuted with unprecedented rapidity. The first spadeful of sand was turned on January 1, 1897, and forty miles were completed on May 8. Then the track-laying began in earnest, and by November 3, that is, in 179 days, the remaining two hundred miles were laid, "the work being accelerated nearly a month by the fortunate discovery of water" in two places. An interesting episode was the purchase of three American locomotives, necessitated by the great engineering strike in England; and in the course of a comparison between them and the British engines Mr. Churchill quotes one of the railway staff as saying: "They were the products of a higher class of labor than that employed in England. They represented greater talent, though less toil. While appearance was not neglected, no 'finish' was wasted on unnoticeable parts. Thus economy was increased and efficiency preserved." As for "Tommy Atkins," we are assured that when he travelled to the front he "was as anxious to avoid his country's locomotives as to preserve its honor."

Our author is not at his best when describing the campaign in which he took part. Not unnaturally he dwells at too great length on the incidents, sometimes trivial, of which he was an eye-witness. His account of the battle of Omdurman, especially, suffers for this reason, though there are some striking pictures to be found in it, as this of the advancing dervishes: "Eight hundred yards away a ragged line of men was coming on desperately, struggling forward in the face of the pitiless fire, white banners tossing and collapsing; white figures subsiding in dozens to the ground; little white puffs from their rifles, larger white puffs spreading in a row all along their front from the bursting shrapnel." Spirited, too, is the description of the charge of the Twenty-first Lancers, in which Mr. Churchill took part. The British were advancing to attack a small body of dervishes when

> "a deep crease in the ground—a dry watercourse, a *khor*—appeared where all had seemed smooth, level plain; and from it there sprang, with the suddenness of a pantomime effect and a high-pitched yell, a dense white mass of men nearly as long as our front and about twelve deep. A score of horsemen and a dozen bright flags rose as if by magic from the earth. Eager warriors sprang forward to anticipate the shock. The rest stood firm to meet it. The Lancers acknowledged the apparition only by an increase of pace. Each man wanted sufficient momentum to drive through such a solid line. The flank troops, seeing that they overlapped, curved inwards like the horns of a moon. But the whole event was a matter of seconds. The riflemen, fighting bravely to the last, were swept head over heels into the *khor*, and, jumping down with them, at full gallop and in the closest order, the British squadrons struck the fierce brigade with one loud fu-

rious shout. The collision was prodigious. Nearly thirty Lancers, men and horses, and at least two hundred Arabs were overthrown. The shock was stunning to both sides, and for perhaps ten wonderful seconds no man heeded his enemy. Terrified horses wedged in the crowd, bruised and shaken men, sprawling in heaps, struggled, dazed and stupid, to their feet, panted, and looked about them. Several fallen Lancers had even time to remount. Meanwhile the impetus of the cavalry carried them on. As a rider tears through a bullfinch, the officers forced their way through the press; and as an iron rake might be drawn through a heap of shingle, so the regiment followed. They shattered the dervish array, and, their pace reduced to a walk, scrambled out of the *khor* on the further side, leaving a score of troopers behind them, and dragging on with the charge more than a thousand Arabs. Then, and not till then, the killing began; and thereafter each man saw the world along his lance, under his guard, or through the back-sight of his pistol; and each had his own strange tale to tell."

The impression of the Sirdar left by the narrative is forcible, and not marred by too indiscriminate praise. He appears throughout a stern, unsympathetic man, unmoved in threatened disaster or in brilliant success, fertile in resources, with eye keen to observe the smallest details in every department; a martinet, but not a slave to red tape. In this particular his methods are in marked contrast to those of some other English commanders.

"Whereas, the field printing-presses of the Tirah Expeditionary Force regularly reported with pomp and ceremony the events of the day, down to the issue of a pair of boots to a native follower, and carefully prescribed the arrangements for the morrow —and these orders filtered down to the regiments through the Divisional Staffs and the Brigade Staffs, gradually becoming more particularized, until finally they were gems of minute thought—the Sirdar would come into camp, as he did at Royan, at about two o'clock in the afternoon, and say to one of his few staff officers, 'I think we'll push on another five or six miles,' and thereupon, marvellous to relate, six brigades of infantry, thirteen squadrons, forty guns, a great fleet of boats, and masses of transport would get up and roll forward into a new camp."

The readiness with which he adapted the means at his command to obtain a desired end is illustrated by an incident in the campaign of 1897. He ordered that a field telegraph should accompany the "Flying Column" sent to attack Abu Hamed. On the officer in charge objecting that there were no appliances for laying the wire, no spools to unwind it from, no saddles to carry it, and not even any transport animals, the General went to the spot where the telegraph plant was collected. Some donkeys were standing near by.

"He walked to the largest coil of wire, picked it up and approached the smallest donkey. He took the little animal's two hind legs in his left hand, and put them into the coil. He lifted the wire up until it passed around the donkey's back, like a horse-collar, only that it hung between the fore and hind legs. He caught hold of the loose end of the wire, and smacked the donkey with the other hand. The beast moved forward, tripping and stumbling over the wire, which began, albeit jerkily, to unwind. Then he walked abruptly back to his house. By this method the Field Telegraph accompanied the Flying Column."

Among the other pen-portraits to be found in the work is one of Gen. Hunter, now serving in South Africa: "Foremost in every action, twice wounded—once at the head of his brigade—always distinguished for valor and conduct, Hunter won the admiration of his comrades and superiors. During the River War he became, in spite of his hard severity, the darling of the Egyptian army. All the personal popularity which great success might have brought to the Sirdar, focussed itself on his daring, good-humored subordinate, and it was to Hunter that the soldiers looked whenever there was fighting to be done." Of Gen. Gatacre, who was defeated by the Boers in December, he writes: "A spare middle-sized man, of great physical strength and energy, of marked capacity and unquestioned courage, but disturbed by a restless irritation, to which even the most inordinate activity afforded little relief, and which often left him the exhausted victim of his own vitality."

Mr. Churchill does not hesitate to say that Lord Kitchener carried his economy too far in the matter of provision for the care of the sick and wounded. Referring to the alleged massacre of the dervishes after the battle of Omdurman, he impliedly charges him with neglect in not republishing at that time his former orders that the wounded were to be spared. "For I must personally record that there was a very general [mistaken] impression that the fewer the prisoners, the greater would be the satisfaction of the commander." Mr. Churchill's commendation of the Egyptian army is warm. He characterizes its two component parts, the fellah and the Sudanese, the one as strong, patient, and docile; the other as excitable and often insubordinate, but displaying "two tremendous military virtues. To the faithful loyalty of a dog he added the heart of a lion. He loved his officer, and feared nothing in the world." In his testimony to the bravery of the dervishes and the considerable military ability of their leaders, he agrees with other writers, though he gives the Khalifa a higher character as a ruler of the Eastern type than he probably deserves.

In the closing chapters are to be found a brief description of the campaign on the Blue Nile with which the war ended, and the Fashoda incident, together with a general survey of all the operations from a military point of view, and some forecasts as to the future of the reconquered territory. The history appropriately ends with a tribute to one whose name seldom appears in its pages, but to whom, possibly even more than to the Sirdar, belongs the chief credit of the great achievement. Summing up the work yet to be done in developing and civilizing the Sudan, he says, "To 'persevere and trust Cromer' is the watchword of the Englishman in Egypt." The appendices contain lists of staff officers, honors and promotions given, and two official documents. There are also admirable portraits of Lord Cromer and the leading generals, some sketches illustrative of incidents in the war, and numerous excellent maps and plans.

THE ENGLISH RADICALS.

The English Radicals: An Historical Sketch. By C. B. Roylance Kent. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. Pp. xii, 451.

Mr. Kent's merit lies in the choice of his subject. There is real originality in the attempt to explore and explain the progress for about a century and a half of English Radicalism. The sources of information to which he has recourse are not, it is true, recondite; the information he professes to give is wanting in completeness; his thoughts are pretty much the commonplaces of modern English Liberalism. Moreover, while he often attempts to provide pictures of the heroes of the English democracy, his portraits are vague and unimpressive, and he does not possess the rare talent exhibited by masters in biography, such as Mr. Bagehot and Mr. Leslie Stephen, of using individual traits of character so as to make them the humorous and impressive illustrations of the general principles whereof eminent men become, whether consciously or not, the representatives. But the reviewer, who ought always to be in part the "benevolent reader" to whom at one time authors used to appeal, will treat Mr. Kent leniently. Our author's shortcomings are venial; the service which he has performed, by calling attention to a neglected side of English political history, is considerable. Any man interested in the constitutional annals of England will find it impossible to read through Mr. Kent's historical sketch of the English Radicals—or, in other words, of the men, whether thinkers or politicians, who, for some century and a half, have labored to turn the aristocratic institutions of England into a democracy—without feeling that the book has suggested to him a good number of thoughts, though they almost inevitably take the form of questions.

Why, for instance, is it that the fathers of the English democracy have left behind them no tradition? Wilkes, Cartwright, Horne Tooke, Hunt, Burdett, Cobbett, Place, Feargus O'Connor, Ernest Jones, all the leaders and would-be heroes of Radicalism, are forgotten. We should be surprised to discover that any one of the men we have mentioned, or a score more like unto them, were venerated, or even remembered, by the most violent of English democrats. No doubt this forgetfulness is in part an illustration of one of the most curious and not one of the most agreeable features of English character. Englishmen have no popular traditions. For fifty years and more, men of letters have been trying to interest the people of England in Cromwell and the creators of the Commonwealth. Such an infinity of labor and of moral and intellectual power has been expended on an object well worth achievement that some result has been produced: the English people have got a statue of the Protector. But though one might have supposed that, among Nonconformists at any rate, the Puritan leaders would be popular idols, it may well be doubted whether among any class of Englishmen there exists, or ever has existed, a Cromwellian tradition. Macaulay, indeed, possessed the magic power of painting pictures which, whatever their defects, impressed upon the memory of his readers the career of the men who were the subjects either of his eulogy or of his denunciation. But Macaulay's feat was the triumph of literary genius; it could not create a tradition. The names, no doubt, of the two Pitts are not only memorable but actually remembered. Yet there is no real tradition of these statesmen in the places where they lived.

The absence, however, of national traditions is not sufficient to explain the utter oblivion which has overtaken the Radicals of England. One is compelled to come to the conclusion that they never, in reality, moved the feelings of the generations in the midst of which they lived. The truth is

(and this is one of the most certain results of Mr. Kent's labors) that the mass of English Radicals were, till the time of Cobden and Bright, a very poor lot. Here and there a man appeared, such as Wilkes, who was a great agitator; but he and the men who resembled him were nothing but agitators, and agitators deficient both in statesmanlike views and in moral character. Then, again, we may fairly conclude that one reason at any rate why the earlier Radicals effected so little was that, while there were in every part of English public life plenty of abuses which needed amendment, the people of England did not till about 1815 feel themselves to be badly governed. In such matters comparison is everything, and, compared with the government of every other European country, the government of England was, during the eighteenth century and during the earlier part of the nineteenth century, excellent.

What, again, is the relation of Benthamism to Radicalism? On this point Mr. Kent on the whole sanctions the popular error that there is an inherent connection between the Utilitarian and the Democratic creed. The prevalence of this idea is easily accounted for. Bentham advocated constitutional changes of a democratic character. His disciples were known as philosophic Radicals. In 1830 they were all advocates of Parliamentary reform; they were most, though not all of them, democrats. It is natural, therefore, to conclude that there was an essential connection between Benthamite doctrine and democratic policy. This inference, nevertheless, is of most dubious validity. The character of the Benthamites is of itself sufficient to raise a doubt as to the democratic nature of their doctrine. Never did there exist a body of men who had less sympathy with popular sentiment, or indeed with sentiment of any kind. They distrusted special classes, such as churchmen, lawyers, land-owners, and the like, who, as Bentham assumed (and not without a good deal of reason), were likely in matters of legislation to be biassed by their private and sinister interests. But the older Benthamites at any rate knew nothing of what is now called trust in the people. They looked upon democracy as a means, not as an end. Most of them thought that the only available check on the self-interested legislation of particular classes was a thoroughly democratic constitution; but the most democratic of them, such as James Mill, refused to admit women to the exercise of political rights, and in this matter Bentham himself showed, it is said, a good deal of hesitation. There were, too, from the first, earnest Benthamites, such as John Austin, who insisted that general ignorance was the true source of misgovernment, and that what the people needed was not power but knowledge. The primary object, in short, of the Benthamites was the establishment, not of democracy, but of good government; and good government in their mouths meant the securing to each man of equal personal rights, and then allowing every one to seek his own happiness in accordance with his own judgment. The end of political institutions was, on the Benthamite view, the securing the greatest possible happiness (or, more accurately, the best conditions for achieving happiness) to the greatest possible number of citizens, and the chief means for the attainment of this end was, not democracy, but adherence to the principles of *laissez-faire*.

This explains both the political action of the Benthamite school and the practical conservatism which, as time went on, became a marked characteristic of leading Benthamites. The true glory of the school is, that when their influence was most powerful, they advocated measures which were really for the benefit of the nation, though disliked by the mass of the people. The New Poor Law, as it was termed in 1834, was in reality the outcome of legislative utilitarianism applied to the solution of a most pressing and difficult social problem. It commanded the enthusiastic support of the philosophic Radicals. The most democratic of their number, Francis Place, was eager to administer a new law which was stern enough in itself, so as to carry it out with the utmost completeness. The New Poor Law conferred greater benefits on England than any act of Parliament passed during the century; yet the New Poor Law, though the most beneficial, was the most unpopular statute ever passed by a Parliament which in any sense represented the people. It did more than administrative incompetence to ruin the popularity of the Whigs. Gratitude for destruction of rotten boroughs was swallowed up in indignation at the building of new poor-houses nicknamed "Bastilles."

It is certain that the thinkers who devised a policy hateful to the mass of the people, cared for good government far more than for deference to democratic sentiment. Then, too, as time went on, and a legislature representing the ten-pound householders enacted a large number of reasonable reforms, individual Benthamites became less and less democratic. Austin's last utterance was a powerful protest against any material change in the constitution of Parliament as finally settled by the Act of 1832. He foresaw, and with truth, that the individual freedom which he valued above all things, might be curtailed by a democratic Assembly. Robert Lowe was, in his powers and in his weakness, the last of the Benthamites. The one occasion on which he played a leading Parliamentary part was when, in 1866, he rallied all the Conservatism of the country against a moderate Reform Bill proposed by a Liberal Government. John Mill, it is true, united rather than blended Benthamite doctrine with democratic sympathy, but to achieve this end he departed more widely than he knew from the orthodox Utilitarian creed, and concealed both from himself and others his latent fear of democracy under his credulous conviction that the mechanical devices of Mr. Hare would make it possible to combine the merits of democratic sovereignty with the respect due to the rights of minorities.

Turn the matter, then, which way you will, it becomes, we maintain, clear that, though Benthamism had a democratic side, its connection with the democratic creed was accidental rather than essential. And this explains a point which obviously puzzles Mr. Kent as it has perplexed others. The Free Traders, at any rate as represented by Cobden, were, in their own eyes no less than in the eyes of their opponents, democrats; yet it is clear that they pursued aims different from the objects whose attainment had been sought for by Radicals of an older generation. There was, indeed, an avowed hostility between the Chartists, who really inherited the Radical tradition, and the League. Cobden preferred, even after the passing of the Reform Act, the intelligent but autocratic administration of Prussia to the unintelligent administration and Parliamentary freedom of England. He never understood the hatred of French and of English Liberals for Louis Napoleon. A *coup d'état* he seems to have thought might be pardoned in a ruler who had struck a blow at protection. Might not free trade be sometimes a greater blessing than freedom? Yet the attitude of the Manchester School, though it appears at first sight paradoxical, admits of easy explanation. It may well, indeed, be doubted whether Cobden or Bright had ever read a word of Bentham; yet Cobden, at any rate, inherited (unconsciously it might be) one-half at least of the Benthamite teaching. Legislation and administration which should produce the happiness of the greatest number and achieve this end by obeying the principle of *laissez-faire*, was his ideal; and, let it be added, this ideal, when followed, as Cobden pursued it, nobly, may be a very noble one, but it is the ideal of a Benthamite and an economist, and not of a democrat.

GOSSE'S LIFE OF DONNE.—II.

The Life and Letters of John Donne, Dean of St. Paul's. Now for the first time revised and collected by Edmund Gosse, Hon. M.A. of Trinity College, Cambridge, Hon. LL.D. of the University of St. Andrews. 2 vols., 8vo. London: Heinemann; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Mr. Gosse devotes a chapter to that extraordinary fragment, "The Progress of the Soul," in which the vivacity of Donne's genius, the abundance of his fancy, and the vigor of his verse are displayed in a series of picturesque, often strikingly imaginative, and sometimes extravagant descriptions of the experience of a soul in its transmigrations from one body to another. Mr. Gosse calls it "a metaphysical narrative," which it is not, and his account of it shows his habitual misreading and misunderstanding of the poems before him. The value of his attempt at critical appreciation of this special poem, a poem characteristic alike of the eccentricities and of the genuine power of Donne's poetic faculty, may be inferred from this extract:

> "Our quotations," he says, "will suffice to show with what brilliant intrepidity he [Donne] will dart in a moment into the very shrine of imaginative expression. Here, as in his lyrics, the general aspect of the work is, as he said himself, 'sullen,' with the leaden colors of the thunderstorm; but ever and again the lightning plays amongst it in lambent and intolerable radiance" (i. 140).

The reader gradually ceases to be astonished at Mr. Gosse's apparent incapacity to interpret correctly Donne's plainest writing, but the incapacity becomes more and more unintelligible. A brilliant little poem of the lyrical period, known to all the lovers of Donne's verse, is an expostulation addressed to his mistress against her proposal to accompany him, dressed as a page, on a journey to the Continent. The mistress is a girl still so young as to be attended by a nurse at night. He bids her,

> "When I am gone, dream me some happiness,
> Nor let thy looks our *long hid* love confess."

It almost passes belief to find Mr. Gosse (i. 151) attributing this poem to the year 1606, when Donne had been married for five

years, and supposing Mrs. Donne, the mother already of three children, to be the person to whom it is addressed.

One single further example of Mr. Gosse's interpretations must suffice. Among Donne's poems is a set of verses in Latin addressed to a certain Dr. Andrews, in acknowledgment of the receipt from him of a manuscript copy of a printed book which Donne had lent to him, and which had been torn by Dr. Andrews's children. But Mr. Gosse has so misread the poem that he says:

"Dr Lancelot Andrews lent Donne a printed book, which fell into the hands of the children in the Mitcham house [Donne's residence], and was by them torn to pieces. It was a copy of Moenus, whatever that might be, and it had already passed to Paris, and on to Frankfort, with Andrews on his travels. I would venture to suggest that by 'Moenus' may be meant Molinus, or Molinaeus, Pierre du Moulin, with whom Andrews entered into controversy. Donne was obliged to have the whole volume copied and returned to Andrews in manuscript accompanied by a set of agreeable apologetic verses" (i. 107).

In his preface Mr. Gosse states that Dr. Jessopp offered him "the inestimable advantage of his revision." He should have added that he had neglected to make use of this inestimable advantage. Had he submitted his pages to Dr. Jessopp's revision, he would at least have been saved from the exhibition of some of his humiliating errors concerning this little Latin poem, for Dr. Jessopp, in his volume on Donne, has given a correct account of it (p. 51). He, however, supposes, as Mr. Gosse likewise does, that it was addressed to Dr. Lancelot Andrews, Bishop of Winchester, but the poem itself shows that the person to whom it was sent was a doctor of medicine, and not of divinity. Mr. Gosse's suggestion that the book to which the poem relates "was a copy of Moenus, whatever that might be," is derived from two verses of the poem which, in our ignorance of the circumstances to which they refer, are practically unintelligible:

"Transit in Sequanam Moenus, victoris in aedes;
Et Francofurtum, te revehente, meat."

They may be translated: "The Main passed over to the Seine, to the home of the victor, and goes, you carrying it back, to Frankfort." Only a guess at the meaning is possible. It may be that there is a pun on the word Moenus, as the name of the river, the Main, on which Frankfort stands, and as the name of the author of the book in question. But no book by an author of this name is known to which the reference can apply, nor is anything known of a journey to Frankfort by Dr. Andrews. At any rate, the suggestion of Molinus or Molinæus is unhappy and inadmissible. The faculty of wild guessing is, indeed, exhibited elsewhere by Mr. Gosse, and his misreading of this poem is not the only instance in which he is careless about his Latin. In the transcript of an inscription in a book given by Donne to the Benchers of Lincoln's Inn, we find "urbo" for *urbe*, "huc" for *hic*, "perdiscondas" for *perdiscendas*, "tamon" for *tamen*, "fero" for *fere* (ii. 114).

In his account of Donne's prose works, Mr. Gosse is not happier than in that of his poems. A single instance will suffice. The full title of one of the most curious of Donne's works is: 'Ignatius his Conclave; or his Inthronisation in a late Election in Hell. Wherein many things are mingled by way of Satyr. Concerning the disposition of Jesuites. The creation of a new Hell. The establishing of a Church in the Moon. There is also added an Apologie for Jesuites. All dedicated to the Two adversary Angels which are Protectors of the Papall Consistory and of the Colledge of Sorbon.' It was first published in 1611. It is a bitter satire on the Jesuits, ingenious in its design, abounding in strokes of wit and touches of humor, while it displays the enormous range of Donne's learning and the variety of his intellectual interests. Donne represents himself as in an ecstasy in which "his little wandering sportful Soul," having liberty to wander through all places, after visiting the heavens, arrives finally at Hell. Passing negligently through its suburbs, and proceeding to more inward places,

"I saw," he says, "a secret place where there were not many beside Lucifer himself; to which only they had title which had so attempted any innovation in this life that they gave an affront to all Antiquity, and induced doubts, and anxieties, and scruples, and . . . at length established opinions directly contrary to all established before." "Now to this place not only such endeavor to come as have innovated in matters directly concerning the soul, but they also which have done so in the arts and in conversation, or in anything which exerciseth the faculties of the soul, and may so provoke to quarrelsome and brawling controversies, for so the truth be lost it is no matter how. But the gates are seldom opened, nor scarce oftener than once in an age. But my destiny favored me so much that I was present there, and saw all the pretenders, and all that affected an entrance, and Lucifer himself, who then came out into the outward chamber to hear them plead their own causes. As soon as the door creakt, I spied a certain mathematician, which till then had been busied to find, to deride, to detrude Ptolemy, and now with an erect countenance and settled pace came to the gates, and with hands and feet (scarce respecting Lucifer himself) beat the doors and cried: 'Are these shut against me, to whom all the Heavens were ever open, who was a Soul to the Earth and gave it motion?' By this I knew it was Copernicus."

Never having heard ill of him, Donne says he might have wondered to find him there, but that the Papists have extended the name and punishment of Heresy almost to everything. Lucifer asks Copernicus who he is, and the astronomer answers in a finely poetic speech, concluding with his claim to be admitted as one of the greatest of innovators, "who have turned the whole frame of the world, and am thereby almost a new creator." Lucifer was perplexed what to reply. It seemed unjust to deny entry to one which had deserved so well, "nor did he think that himself had attempted greater matters before his fall," but it seemed dangerous to grant entrance to one of so great ambitions and undertakings.

"But Ignatius Loyola, which was got near his chair, a subtile fellow, and so indued with the Devil that he was able to tempt, and not only that, but (as they say) even to possess the Devil, apprehended this perplexity in Lucifer. And making himself sure of his own entrance, and knowing well that many thousands of his family aspired to that place, he opposeth himself against all others. He was content they should be damned, but not that they should govern."

He therefore undertakes to refute the claim of Copernicus, and does so in an exceedingly ingenious and in part a powerful speech, by which Copernicus was silenced.

We have given this abstract of the beginning of the little book, not so much for the sake of exhibiting its scheme, and the wittiness of it, as because it was needful for showing the manner of Mr. Gosse's dealing with this extremely clever and characteristic treatise. The following sentences need little comment:

"Donne, in consequence of having dazzled his imagination with the daring discoveries of the New Astronomy, falls asleep and dreams that he is at the gate of hell and sees all its rooms open to his sight. The lost souls crowd the vestibule, but a place is cleared from them and a throne set in the great central hall. Doors open at the back, and Lucifer appears leaning on the arm of his obsequious favorite, Ignatius Loyola. The demon sinks into the throne, and commands that the souls of the lost shall approach him to plead their causes. Copernicus comes forward by Donne's side in the darkness" (i. 255).

Every one of these dramatic particulars is of Mr. Gosse's invention. His fancy continues throughout to prevail over the fact, and he gives no real idea of the contents or purpose of this brilliant, animated, and effective satire, which he calls "a frivolous work," and designates as "a squib or series of squibs all composed of bitter jests and skirmishings." In a passage of curious confusion Mr. Gosse attempts to fix the date of composition of the satire by references in it to publications of Galileo and Kepler, but he takes no notice of a passage in the little book which is of special interest, as containing a very striking and curious prophetical forecast. We are not aware, indeed, that attention has hitherto been called to it. Ignatius concludes his speech against Copernicus in the following words:

"Let, therefore, this little mathematician, dread Emperor, withdraw himself to his own company. And if hereafter the Fathers of our Order can draw a Cathedral Decree from the Pope, by which it may be defined as a matter of Faith, *That the earth doth not move*, and an anathema inflicted upon all which hold the contrary, then perchance both the Pope which shall decree that, and Copernicus his followers (if they be Papists) may have the dignity of this place."

Twenty-one years after these words were printed, in June, 1632, the Holy Inquisition, in condemning the doctrines of Galileo, declared, "by order of the Pope," that "to say that the Earth is not the centre of the world and immovable, but that it moves with a diurnal motion, is a proposition absurd and false in philosophy, and expressly heretical."

The many letters of Donne which Mr. Gosse has reprinted, and the comparatively few which he has printed for the first time, are not only most important sources of information concerning the course of the events of his life, but are also often of great interest in their illustration of his other writings. Owing to the lack of exact dates in most of them, their chronological arrangement is difficult, but Mr. Gosse has succeeded, as we have already said, with Dr. Jessopp's help, in determining the proper position of most of them. This is good and useful work, but a good many obvious errors in the text of the letters formerly printed have been left uncorrected, while the text of the letters which are printed for the first time in these volumes shows too often that the editor is not highly skilled in the deciphering of the handwriting of the seventeenth century. Many of the letters stand greatly in need of extended annotation, but Mr. Gosse has shrunk from this duty. He says in his preface: "I have not attempted to annotate the Letters, which would be a labour quite apart from my present object;

but wherever names are quoted [Mr. Gosse means, whenever names occur] as those of men and women with whom Donne was brought into personal relations, I have endeavored to say enough about them to render each reference of this kind intelligible."

Occasionally, indeed, he offers some information in regard to matters or persons referred to, but sometimes of such a sort as makes the reader content that he does not offer more of it. For instance, in a letter of 1608 (i. 199), Donne is printed as saying: "Justinian the Venetian is gone hence, and one Carraw come in his place." "The Duke Joyeuse is dead, in Primont, returning from Rome, where M. Mole, who went with the L[ord] Rosse, is taken into the Inquisition, and I see small hope of his recovery (for he had in some translations of Plessis' books talked of Babylon and Antichrist), except it fall out that one Strange, a Jesuit in the Tower, may be accepted for him." On these words Mr. Gosse comments as follows: "Such a letter as this would bear an annotation more lengthy than it is possible to give in a biography. 'Justinian the Venetian,' for instance, was Giustiniani, the Ambassador of Venice; 'Carraw' (I suppose) Noel de Carow; 'M. Mole' may doubtless be identified with Mathieu Molé, the President; and 'Primont' is an Italianated way of spelling Piedmont." It would be difficult to find anywhere a passage fuller than this of confusion and error. Noel de Caron, not Carow, as Mr. Gosse gives it, was the Dutch envoy to England, who was long in residence there, and how he could have come in Giustinian's place is not easy to see. It was Marc Antonio Correr who was sent from Venice in 1608 as Giustinian's successor. The identification of M. Mole with Mathieu Molé is a most surprising feat of bold imagination and bolder ignorance. It surpasses belief that any one acquainted with the name of that famous and great man Mathieu Molé could fancy that he was likely at any time to travel to Rome in company with an English nobleman; that he, a Catholic, of whom it was proposed at one time to make a Cardinal, would be imprisoned by the Inquisition, and that he might be released in exchange for a prisoner in the Tower! It would not have been difficult to ascertain who this M. (that is, Mr.) Mole really was, for, although his name is not in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' the remarkable and pathetic story of his life is well known to students of the period. It may be found in Fuller's 'Worthies of England,' and also in his 'Church History of Great Britain.' John Molle had had an early life of various adventures, and was a man of learning and accomplishment. When he was fifty years old, he was appointed by Thomas Earl of Exeter to be governor in travel to his grandchild, the Lord Ross. It is reported that their travels were not intended to pass the Alps, but a vagary took the Lord Ross to go to Rome, and Mr. Molle in vain tried to dissuade him. "To leave him were to desert his trust; to go along with him were to endanger his own life," for he had translated the book of the eminent Protestant controversialist Du Plessis-Mornay on 'The Visibility of the Church,' and had thus exposed himself to the displeasure of the authorities at Rome. No sooner had he and his pupil reached the city than he was arrested and cast into prison, where, in spite of great and many endeavors to secure his release, he was kept for thirty years, allowed no intercourse with any friend, and where at last, in his eighty-first year, he died. And this was Mr. Gosse's "doubtless" Mathieu Molé! It is a slighter matter, but what Mr. Gosse means by calling Primont an "*Italianated*" way of spelling "Piedmont" is not evident.

So from page to page the reader goes stumbling along over Mr. Gosse's errors, finding the journey through the volumes which promised so much far other than he anticipated. To sum up the character of the book, a sentence from one of Donne's letters will suffice: "I will adventure to say to you, without inserting one unnecessary word, that the book is full of falsifications in word and sense, and of falsehoods in matter of fact, and of inconsequent and unscholarlike arguings, . . . and of letting slip some enormous advantages."

Contemporaries. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

Many readers will be grateful for the resurrection of these papers, some of which have been a long time buried in the files of one or another periodical. It would have been most proper for Mr. Higginson to give with each the date and place of its original appearance. In a prefatory note he simply states that they are from the *Nation*, *Atlantic*, and so on, without indicating which was in this publication, which in that. The list does not include the *Outlook*, in which "The Eccentricities of Reformers" appeared not long ago. Some changes have been made where it might have been better, we think, to let the original form remain and make the necessary change or criticism in a note, after the manner of Ruskin in his 'Seven Lamps' and elsewhere. Such a method would have better furnished us with genuinely contemporary appreciations. All the changes we have noted are in the direction of a severer taste and a more cautious blame.

That several of these papers were originally obituary notices takes nothing from their worth. Possibly here and there we have reserves prompted by kindly feeling at a moment shadowed by the death of a great man. In some of them there is more mere information than there would have been if the writer had been self-stirred to his work. The first number of the series, "Ralph Waldo Emerson," is less adequate to its subject than the Phillips, which reaches the high-water mark, and some others. The amount of Emerson's preaching after his first return from England is unduly minimized. The word "sonorous" as applied to his oratory gives us a moment's pause. Dr. Hedge would, we think, have denied that Horace Greeley was "one of the first, if not the first, to claim for [Emerson] a rank at the very head of our American bards." Dr. Hedge took that honor to himself, and averred that he instigated Emerson to more frequent ventures in poetry. The remarks on Alcott have an unobtrusive flavor of depreciation. We read of him as "in a stately way penniless," and of his "high-souled attitudinizing." Of the "Summer School of Philosophy" it is neatly said that "there was plenty of summer, something of philosophy, and very little school." There is a mere allusion to Alcott's splendid behavior on the night of the attempted Burns rescue, but a note referring to the full account in 'Cheerful Yesterdays.' In the passage dealing with Emerson's and Alcott's mutual appreciation we would gladly have been told that Alcott's account of Emerson's manner of lecturing is the best ever written.

The article on Theodore Parker is a testimony to Lowell's courage in his editing of the *Atlantic*, in which it appeared soon after Parker's death. We miss in it the expected emphasis on Parker's anti-slavery work, than which Mr. Higginson admired nothing of his more. The lack is stranger measured by the fact that the article was written in the heat of the first Lincoln electoral campaign. The sketch of Whittier is a delightful interpretation of both the man and the poet, with little reference to that canny politician under the singing robes, with whom Pickard's biography shows a fascinated engagement. The assonance is possibly responsible for the coming of Whitman next to Whittier. This chapter differs a good deal from the original form. The drastic criticism on Whitman's priapism (with the suggestion that Whitman's broken health was the penalty of an immoral life) "glares through its absence" —the fine phrase of Emerson which Mr. Higginson thinks an improvement on the *eo ipso præfulgebant* of Tacitus. In fact, Mr. Higginson does his sternest criticism of Whitman by proxy, in his sketch of Sidney Lanier, whose description of Whitman's poems as "huge raw callops cut from the rump of poetry" is more suggestive of Whitman's worst than of Lanier's best manner. "An Evening with Mrs. Hawthorne" is very brief, but tells a charming story of Hawthorne's first reading of 'The Scarlet Letter' to his wife. With this personal experience must be classed the remarkable chapter, "A Visit to John Brown's Household in 1859." The visit was after the trial of Brown, and shortly before his execution. The story of the visit is a human document of imperishable significance.

The two concluding chapters somewhat mar the unity of the collection. "The Eccentricities of Reformers" is almost too amusing for the company which it keeps, and "The Road to England" diverges sharply from the main highway. Mr. Higginson is no Anglomaniac. If, like the vase in the fable, he boasts that he has been with the rose, there is some disparagement of the rose. For Lowell's "Certain Condescension in Foreigners" we have a certain condescension *to* foreigners. The highest praise reserved for any English face or voice or manner is that there was something American about it.

Finland and the Tsars, 1809-1899. By Joseph R. Fisher, B.A., Barrister-at-Law. London: Edward Arnold. 1899. 8vo, pp. xv, 269.

It is the melancholy fate of some peoples to attract the interest of the world only by their misfortunes. For centuries Finland was known chiefly as a battle-ground of Sweden and Russia, in their struggle for mastery in the north of Europe. Now, after a long period of repose, marred, if we except occasional famine and pestilence, only by the coast raids of the Crimean War, the Finns are driven from a happy and prosperous obscurity by the threatened extinction of their political li-

berties. To this menace the unusual emigration, present and prospective, from Finland to America, apparently is to be ascribed; for, although a late season and extensive floods last year caused great distress among the peasantry, the past ten years have on the whole been the most prosperous in the history of the country. In that time exports and imports have practically doubled; and the increase has been due as well to the diversification of industry as to the growth of productive capacity in particular lines. Progress in education has kept pace with, and indeed has usually outstripped, that in trade and industry. These results have been accomplished by a quiet, law-abiding, and loyal people, numbering less than 2,500,000, who, though scattered over a vast expanse of arctic territory, much of it "waterlogged" and not one-thirtieth arable, have, under a policy of "wise and salutary neglect," been permitted to work out their salvation in their own way.

The constitutional government of Finland begins with the statute called the Form of Government, granted by the Swedish Crown in 1772. By this statute, which was confirmed by the Acts of Union and Security in 1789, the principle was established that the country was governed by the king, subject to laws enacted by him with the advice and consent of a diet consisting of representatives of the four estates of the realm, the nobles, the clergy, the burghers, and the peasants. When, in 1809, the country was joined to Russia, Alexander I., who assumed the title of Grand Duke of Finland as an appendage to his imperial office, convoked the Diet, and signed an Act of Assurance by which the fundamental laws were ratified. A similar act has been signed by each of his successors. Alexander I. also exhibited his goodwill toward Finland by restoring to it the province of Viborg, which was ceded by Sweden to Russia in 1721. The Diet, however, was not again convoked till 1863. Meanwhile, the government of the country, except as to matters of foreign affairs and war, was conducted through a secretary of state for Finland, who resided in St. Petersburg, and by a governing body in Finland called the Senate, composed of the heads of public offices appointed by the Tsar, and possessed of executive, advisory, and judicial functions. By Alexander II. the constitutional privileges of the country were confirmed and enlarged. In 1869 he gave his sanction to a statute, called the Law of the Diet, by which it was provided not only that a fundamental law could be made, altered, interpreted, or repealed only on the representation of the Emperor and Grand Duke with the consent of the estates, but also that the Diet should be summoned at least once in five years.

The present trouble between Russia and Finland may be traced back to the adoption by Gen. Miliutin, Russian Minister of War, in 1873, of a new plan for the organization of the Russian army. This plan he proposed to extend to Finland by decree. Alexander II. refused to take this step, and caused the plan to be submitted to the Diet. It was adopted with modifications. The principle of universal liability to service was accepted, but the peace establishment was strictly limited; Finlanders were required to serve only in Finnish regiments and under Finnish officers, and certain sections of the act were declared to be included among the fundamental laws of the Grand Duchy. This result was highly displeasing to the military party of St. Petersburg. Alexander III., while he confirmed the measures of Alexander II., fell more and more under the influence of the party of unification and reaction. Imperial commissions were appointed for the purpose of bringing the laws of Finland into conformity with those of the Empire in the matter of postage, of coinage, and of customs duties. A deputation, consisting of the speakers of the four estates of the Diet, went to St. Petersburg to remonstrate, but was not received. In 1891 another commission, presided over by a Russian ex-Minister of Finance, was appointed to draw up "regulations" for the Grand Duchy.

Various measures of unification had been adopted when the present Tsar came to the throne. He signed the usual Act of Assurance, but it soon became evident that the unifiers held the avenues of approach to him. In June, 1898, the Finnish Secretary of State resigned because he was unwilling to sanction measures that were pressed on him. In January, 1899, a draft of a new military law, by which the Finnish armaments were to be quadrupled and their distinctive character destroyed, was laid before a special Diet, with an intimation that unless the proposals were accepted, summary measures would be taken. The Diet failing at once to yield, there was issued at St. Petersburg on February 15, 1899, an imperial edict by which the function of the Diet is reduced to the expression of its "opinion" on proposals for "the internal administration of the Grand Duchy"; and even in these matters the final "decision" is reserved to the Russian imperial council, unless it is made directly by the Tsar himself. Thus, by the stroke of a pen, the ancient constitutional government of Finland is annulled. A deputation of the Senate which visited St. Petersburg to present to the Tsar the unanimous protest of that body, was refused an audience. A deputation bearing the unanimous protest of the Diet was similarly repelled; as were also the bearers of a petition signed by 500,000 Finns, comprising practically the whole adult population. It is obvious, however, that if the process of assimilation continues to depopulate the country, its results to the army will be disappointing and to the Empire at large highly injurious.

Mr. Fisher, while he evidently sympathizes with the Finns, presents his subject candidly and temperately, and gives the text of important documents instead of a summary of them. That his treatment of topics is not always systematic is probably due to the fact that, to a great extent, he takes them up in the order of their development in the recent crisis. The book is well printed and the proof-reading is generally accurate. We observe on p. 57 the phrase "as we still see," for "as we shall see"; and on p. 86 the words "official the routine," instead of "the official routine."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F. Charles Francis Adams. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bartlet, J. V. The Apostolic Age: Its Life, Doctrine, Worship and Polity. Scribners. $2.
Blaize, J. Similia. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50c.
Colton, Prof. B. P. Physiology Illustrated by Experiment. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.
Dorman, M. R. P. The Mind of the Nation: A Study of Political Thought in the Nineteenth Century. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Ferguson, J. All About Rubber. London: John Haddon & Co.
Fletcher, Alice C. Indian Story and Song from North America. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Gilman, Th. Federal Clearing-houses. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hawthorne, N. The Custom-house and Main Street. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Hollander, J. H. Studies in State Taxation. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.
Johnston, Mary. To Have and To Hold. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Jones, Harry C. The Theory of Electrolytic Dissociation and Some of its Applications. Macmillan.
Kedney, J. S. Problems in Ethics. Putnams.
Lilienthal, Dr. H. Imperative Surgery for the General Practitioner, the Specialist and the Recent Graduate. Macmillan. $4.
Lowell, J. R. The Vision of Sir Launfal, and Other Poems. Macmillan. 25c.
Mather, M. John Ruskin: His Life and Teaching. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Nery, Baron de Santa-Anna. Le Pays des Amazones. Paris: Libraire Guillaumin & Cie.
Newman, Cardinal J. H. Valentine to a Little Girl. Brothers of the Book.
Peffer, W. A. Americanism and the Philippines. Topeka, Kas.: Crane & Co. 25c.
Renouvier, Ch. Victor Hugo le Philosophe. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50c.
Riis, J. A Ten Years' War: An Account of the Battle with the Slum in New York. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sinai and Olympus; Parallels in Heathen Myth and Hebrew Scripture. The Truth-Seeker Co. 50c.
Stonham, C. A Manual of Surgery. Macmillan. 3 vols.
The Secret Instructions of the Jesuits. The Truth-Seeker Co. 15c.
Vreeland, W. U. Selections from Le Sage's Gil Blas. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Vynne, Nora. The Priest's Marriage. Putnams.
Wheeler, B. I. Alexander the Great: The Merging of the East and West in Universal History. Putnams.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 22, 1900.

The Week.

The President in his annual message declared that it was "our plain duty to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets." Secretary Root made a similar declaration at greater length in his annual report, and for a short time everybody seemed to acquiesce. The Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee introduced a bill to carry these views into effect. Presently a growl was heard in another quarter. The protectionist fraternity, who had been seemingly asleep all the time that we were acquiring this foreign territory by war and by purchase, suddenly awoke to the fact that there was danger in bringing in a certain amount of tobacco and sugar and oranges free of duty. So they "organized" and sent a delegation to Washington to remonstrate with Mr. McKinley. It was a matter of indifference to them whether the islanders were to be citizens or subjects. The political status of Porto Rico was nothing to them. Taxation without representation, or with it, was quite immaterial from their point of view. What they would not put up with in any event was the admission of Porto Rican products to the United States free of duty. They were not nice about it. They had learned something of the President's character from the experience of the group of Congressmen who, as Mr. Boutelle said, went up to the White House just before the declaration of war against Spain, and "held a stop-watch over Mr. McKinley's head while he was engaged in determining what kind of a message he would send to Congress." This protectionist group, as we are credibly informed, told Mr. McKinley to "drop it," and said that they would defeat him in the coming election if he did not. And he did drop it.

We have no doubt that the conversation with the President reported by Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson gives a correct statement of Mr. McKinley's present attitude on the Porto Rico question. The substance of it is, that the Constitution of the United States does not apply to the island, that the people of Porto Rico have no civil rights except such as this country chooses to give them, and that our new dependencies must not be permitted to do injury to any of the protected interests of this country. Thus the President has been forced, much against his will, to tell what his policy is; or, rather, what his present policy is, for he may change again before the nominating convention meets. He is for Imperialism, and not for mere Expansion. His policy is not benevolent assimilation, but benevolent despotism. What freaks our despot may indulge in, no one can say. It was reported a few days ago that he contemplated declaring the insurgents in the Philippines outlaws, to be hanged whenever caught. This would be in the line of Imperialism of the old Roman sort, but the Romans, we believe, never made a pretence of benevolence in the application of it.

The Porto Rico bill is now before the House. In the Senate Mr. Cullom has secured consideration for the Hawaii bill. The two measures, therefore, are under discussion simultaneously in the two branches of Congress. The Cullom bill grants free trade to the people of the Hawaiian Islands; the Ways and Means Committee's bill imposes a tariff upon the people of Porto Rico. It will be interesting for the visitor in Washington to hear a Republican Senator maintain that people living on one group of islands under American rule should enjoy the benefits of free trade because that group is in the Pacific Ocean, and then go to the other end of the capitol and hear a Republican Representative argue that people living under the same flag on another island should be denied those benefits because their island is in the Atlantic Ocean.

The decision of the Board of General Appraisers, to the effect that the tariff laws of the United States did not apply in Porto Rico during the period of military occupation, appears to be partially in conformity with the decision in the case of duties collected in California during the Mexican war. It was then declared by the Supreme Court that, so long as war continued, the military government of California had power to levy taxes or to do any act which any government might do according to the recognized principles of international law. If the duties for the return of which suit was brought were collected during the continuance of the war, the General Appraisers have authority for their decision. If they were collected on merchandise transported from Porto Rico to this country, or from this country to Porto Rico, after the war terminated, the General Appraisers differ with the Supreme Court, as formerly constituted. Porto Rico is now under what the Supreme Court called a de-facto government, "which will, of course, exercise no power inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, which is the supreme law of the land."

In his argument in support of a tariff for Porto Rico, Mr. Dalzell of Pennsylvania was fairly driven by the logic of necessity to declare that such Territories as Arizona and New Mexico have no constitutional rights. He was asked whether Congress could prescribe free trade for Arizona and a high tariff for New Mexico, and he manfully asserted that it had the power to do so. If it ever had the power, it has certainly not lost it, and very delightful visions of coming tariffs for Arizona and Alaska will soon be floating before the eyes of protectionists. The industries of these Territories are all infantile, and it is certainly the duty of Congress to give them the blessings of a tariff as soon as possible. If a tariff is going to benefit Porto Rico so much as is claimed, certainly the poor neglected Alaskans appeal to our humanity; and, on the other hand, the laborers of the United States should not be exposed to the competition of the degraded Indians and half-breed Mexicans of the Territories. It may give something of a wrench to our traditions, and will desperately tax the ingenuity of the Supreme Court, to deprive these Territories of the Constitution under which they have supposed themselves to exist; but it is so supremely important to have it established that Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands are not in the United States or a part thereof, that it does not make much difference if some of the older Territories are also excluded. Mr. Dalzell deserves to be commended for his honesty; but the position which he is forced to take is likely to make many people comprehend the dangers involved in an imperial policy. They have laughed at the idea that to maintain a despotic government in our own conquests would react on freedom at home; but they can now see that the inhabitants of our Territories may soon be denied the protection of constitutional government.

Mr. Hepburn's report on the Nicaragua Canal bill is one more affront for the Administration from a Republican committee of the House. The President and Secretary Hay have just recognized in the most formal way the binding validity of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Now comes the House committee on interstate and foreign commerce, and declares that instrument to be a mother of dead dogs, and any American statesman a fool or traitor who admits the slightest obligation to respect its provisions. But we do not see how any sane man can be expected to pay any attention whatever to Mr. Hepburn's recommendations. He not

only insults the President and flouts the law and the settled traditions of our diplomacy, but falls violently foul of common sense. He would have a canal not neutral even in time of peace. "Discriminating tolls" are what he wants, so that our hated rivals may be crushed both in peace and war. This, of course, is simply a whoop instead of a report. It must be a little humiliating to the Administration, however, to have a committee of its ardent supporters emit such stark nonsense at the very moment it is trying to close a dignified negotiation for a civilized Isthmian canal. We must say, though, that Mr. Hepburn's rolling specification of all the things truly "American" involved in his wild plan, reads very like a plagiarism from one of Mr. McKinley's earlier tariff speeches.

The ship-subsidy bill purports to be a measure "to promote commerce and increase the foreign trade of the United States, and to provide auxiliary cruisers, transports, and seamen for the Government use when necessary." This is the declaration of its title. The bill excludes all coastwise vessels, all lake vessels, and all fishing vessels, except those engaged in deep-sea fisheries. Yet all these vessels are engaged in training seamen just as much and just as effectually as those engaged in foreign trade. Why, then, should they not have some part of the subsidy? If navigation is such a meritorious calling that it should be subsidized with the money of the taxpayers, surely the coasting trade and the lake trade ought not to be overlooked. We are not sure that the canal boatmen ought not to have a slice of the cake. They are certainly poorer than the International Navigation Company, and more deserving of sympathy. The carriers on the lakes and canals really furnish the cargoes for the ocean-going ships, without which the foreign trade could not be carried on. It seems invidious, therefore, to give all the plums to the ships that sail across the ocean, and none to those that sail from one American port to another.

There is plenty of evidence that the clause in the title to the bill about seamen is a pretence and a sham. Section four says that no subsidy shall be paid to any vessel unless one-fourth of her crew are American citizens, or persons who have declared their intention to become such, and have served three years on American vessels. One-fourth is not a very large proportion of American sailors to entitle a vessel to subsidy, but even this is neutralized by the next clause of the bill, which makes an exception in cases where this proportion of Americans "cannot be reasonably obtained." The person to judge of the "reasonableness" is any shipping commissioner, or officer discharging his duties, in a home port, or any United States Consul, or any officer discharging his duties, in a foreign port. It is safe to say that a certificate of reasonableness would never be wanting in a case of deficiency of American sailors, since no consul, or person discharging his duties, would take the trouble to scour the docks to see whether American sailors could be "reasonably" obtained, if the captain of the ship should declare that they could not be. The bill is full of jugglers' tricks, the half of which have not yet been exposed.

It is a disagreeable surprise that the House Committee on Foreign Affairs should have defeated the movement for consular reform in this Congress, and laid the whole subject on the table. The friends of this long-needed reform had been much encouraged by the fact that a good many business men, in the West as well as in the East, had become convinced of the necessity of action, and had tried to impress their views upon Congressmen. So long as "theorists" and "doctrinaires" were the only people advocating a change, there was little hope of any action. It now appears that the spoilsmen feel strong enough to refuse consideration to even a good representation of business men.

The proceedings before the Senate committee in the Montana case continue to disclose either venality or perjury, or both, to a disgusting extent. The latest charge is that an attempt was made to bribe one of the justices of the Supreme Court by his family physician, who named $100,000 as a consideration. The justice, like Cæsar, when the kingly crown was offered him, did thrice refuse. In fact, he says, he refused at once and unequivocally, but still kept on good terms with the doctor. This testimony is said to have been highly pleasing to the lawyers for the prosecution, while the lawyers for the defence were greatly amused by it. Another justice of the Supreme Court testified that Senator Clark's counsel came to him in great excitement, asking if it were true that an attempt to influence the court was taking place, intimating that $5,000,000 was to be employed. To this question the justice replied that such a report would not be confirmed by him, for he would kill any one that approached him with a bribe. That speaks well for the honor of this justice, but he was obliged to admit that he was not sure that the excitement of the counsel was not feigned, and that the question was not asked him in order to prepare his mind against the $100,000 story. The family physician, who had described his original suggestion as "a funny proposition," now says that the whole thing was a joke. No wonder that members of the Senate committee describe the affair as the most intricate case of corrupt politics ever known. The committee would have saved themselves much time if they had peremptorily refused to listen to the statements of men who admit that they are liars and perjurers.

One thing which worries many thoughtful Republicans in the central West is the Trust issue. They recognize that there is a great deal of humbug in the talk of the Bryanites about this matter, but they also appreciate the fact that many of the worst Trusts are profiting by Republican tariff legislation. A repeal of the duties on certain articles would deal the hardest blow at some of these Trusts that they could suffer, and more than one Republican Congressman feels the necessity of doing this. Representative Hemenway of Indiana is such a man, and he does not hesitate to speak his mind. He writes to the Evansville *Journal* that legislation to repeal duties on articles controlled by Trusts ought to be enacted, and that he has so told Chairman Payne of the Ways and Means Committee. He adds:

> "I have also stated to him that I believed the Republican party ought to act promptly where Trusts are formed to control any article that is protected. We cannot permit Trusts to raise the price of any protected article without being justly criticised, and, in my opinion, if Congress will act promptly in these matters, no Trust can successfully increase prices upon such articles as are protected."

Iowa Republicans are of the same mind. The Keokuk *Gate City*, whose editor was a member of the last Congress, recently remarked that "if Congress will hit a few specific Trusts like those of paper, tin, and copper by a prompt taking from them of the protection given them by high tariff duty, it will teach swift instruction to all other Trusts, and you will see how soon they will abate their pretensions," and went on to say: "The Republican party will not have the shadow of a chance to carry the Presidential election of this year if this Republican Congress leaves all the cormorant Trusts preying upon the American people next November as they are now." But is anybody simple enough to suppose that the protected interests will allow the tariff to be touched for this purpose?

The controversy in Kentucky is relieved, for the present at least, from the complication which the interference of the Federal courts would produce. Judge Taft of the United States Circuit Court has refused the application for an injunction to prevent the removal of certain State officers by the Kentucky Board of Elections. His refusal is based entirely on the legal principle laid down positively by the Supreme Court, that under no circumstances has a court of equity jurisdiction to interfere by injunction to prevent a removal from office, however fraudulent or unjust the threatened pro-

ceedings. The courts of Kentucky afford an appropriate remedy for the asserted injustice. They provide for proceedings to remove an officer by writ of *quo warranto*, and there is also a remedy at law to prevent usurpation of office. If in such proceedings any Federal question arises, a writ of error to the Supreme Court can be obtained. This leaves the dispute to be settled by the proper tribunals, and Gov. Taylor has already begun suit to restrain his rivals from acting officially.

The Democrats in the Legislature have taken the ground that their original, and decidedly irregular, action in deciding the contest for the office of Governor in favor of Goebel was sufficiently valid to determine his title. But they seem to have thought that it might be strengthened by "reaffirming" it; a step of doubtful policy. If the original decision was lawful, it will not be made more so by a reaffirmation; and if it was not lawful, the proper course would be to make a lawful one now. Probably they fear the consequences of admitting that Taylor has been Governor during the last few weeks; but that does not seem to be a material fact. The questions to be eventually decided by the courts are practically only two. The first is whether the action of the Legislature in deciding the contest in favor of Goebel was, in view of the fact that Gov. Taylor prevented a regular session by armed force, so irregular as to be void. The second, and really more important one, is whether, on a thorough examination of all the circumstances of the election, any decision by the Legislature in favor of Goebel can possibly be sustained. The courts cannot decide this question without very prolonged investigation.

Mr. Peckham's letter to the committee of the New York Legislature on taxation goes to the root of the question of taxing evidences of debt. His chief point is that any tax on such evidences must be paid out of the interest, and the rate of interest cannot be determined by statute It depends on the money market—that is, the capital market—of the world. Whatever that rate is, the lender of capital will get or he will not lend. Not only is it true that all taxes must be paid out of income, but they must also leave a certain fairly liberal proportion of the income for the owner. All effort made by the State, Mr. Peckham contends, to apportion a tax between borrower and lender is certain to be futile. "The tax must be paid out of the profit made by the borrower, and the net current rate of interest must be paid by the lender, or he will not lend. You may possibly prevent loans, you may drive capital out of the State, you may possibly bring about conditions in which each one having capital will be compelled to use it himself rather than lend it to one more capable of using it, you may greatly raise the rate of interest, because of the dangers of lending, but you will never be able to tax the lenders of capital so as to give to them a rate of interest less than that established by the law of supply and demand." This is forcibly stated, but Mr. Peckham overlooks the fact that one of the conditions affecting the market rate of interest is the extent of the field of investment. If the owners of capital demand a higher rate of interest than now prevails, some people who intended to borrow will not borrow, and in that way the field of investment will be contracted. In other words, there will be a decreased demand for capital, which would result in competition among capitalists for loans, with the natural consequence of a lower rate of interest. The difficulty lies in estimating the comparative effects of a number of causes, and economists generally regard the problem of the ultimate incidence of taxation as one of the greatest complexity.

A step has been taken in the direction of that "Religious Trust" which was advocated by President Hyde of Bowdoin College at the recent Church Federation Conference in this city. Representatives of six benevolent organizations, like the Home Missionary Society, have held a meeting to consider the idea of federating their work. It was admitted that the societies are over-secretaried; that officers hold the positions for life, and are sometimes retained after they have ceased to be efficient; that there are too many auxiliaries and collecting agencies, and too many salaried persons soliciting money; and that the proportion of collectors among the churches to laborers in mission fields is much too large. It was conceded, too, that there should have been long ago a division of territory between two societies engaged in similar work, and that there should be some body to which all such questions might be referred. A committee of one from each of the six societies was constituted, which these six are to increase to nine, to advance the common interests of the societies, to secure the fullest development of their resources, and the utmost economy and efficiency of their administration, with a recommendation that any questions arising between any of the societies be submitted to this committee. This settles nothing, but it may prove a valuable first step.

It was clear from the first dispatches that Lord Roberts had won a decided tactical success, and the later news indicates that the material results of his rapid and brilliant movement will be momentous. It is very evident that the Boers were surprised, and that their retreat was precipitate. Kimberley has been relieved, and once more put in railroad communication with the Cape, and, so far as the western border is concerned, the tide has distinctly turned in favor of the British. Colenso, too, has been occupied by Gen. Buller. It will now be possible to pursue the original plan of campaign, and march on Bloemfontein. In England, the success of Lord Roberts has been more than welcome. Although the newspapers have, no doubt, exaggerated the state of public anxiety, the country was suffering from the strain and from hope so long deferred, and will be much braced by the decidedly improving prospects of the campaign. If Lord Rosebery were to speak to-day, he would not adopt the alarmist tone which he fell into ten days ago. He seems to have formed the notion that the way to reunite the Liberal party and beat the Conservatives is to out-Jingo them; and, in his recent addresses, has put himself forward as the great Liberial Imperialist, ready to raise a standing army of 600,000 men, and spend money like water on guns and ships. His charge that Lord Salisbury has been and is still supine and not awake to the military needs of the empire, has probably this political motive behind it.

The Germans have found the colonizing of their Chinese acquisition, Kiao-Chau, by no means so easy a process as their first impressions led them to believe. Ugly rumors of widespread illness among the garrison, from the governor down, have been reaching Germany for some time past, and the death report has been comparatively only a little pleasanter reading than that cabled weekly from Manila. A review of the settlement's progress from October, 1898, to October, 1899, recently published by the Government, has failed wholly to reassure the German public as to the healthfulness of the new colony, since it suppresses the percentage of sickness among the troops. According to this document, however, malaria has not made itself seriously felt, and the situation of the colony is considered more healthful for Europeans than that of any other Chinese port. The admittedly large number of typhoid-fever cases is attributed to the sanitary sins of the Chinese, as well as to some recent excavations for building purposes. A good deal of space is given to describing the measures employed to care for the invalids and to prevent sickness in the future. Attention is also called to the plan to give the natives an independent government, under the careful supervision of German officials, which shall deal particularly with questions of agriculture and education. It is by this means, perhaps, that the German government is seeking to achieve in Kiao-Chau that success which it has been denied in its colonizing experiments elsewhere.

THE MORALS OF THE PORTO RICAN QUESTION.

"Free trade between the United States and Porto Rico is a moral question. It is *practical religion;* and our people can never supply the missing link in the moral education and religious training of this people without giving them an opportunity to earn a living, and without treating them as we treat other Americans." This is the language held by the United States Consul in Porto Rico, Philip C. Hanna. He declares that, "as an American," he believes the island should have "absolute free trade with all parts of the United States," and that he is convinced that "Porto Rico can never become prosperous until she can buy bread for her people without paying enormous revenue duties for the privilege of bringing that bread into the island."

This is a correct statement of the question that is now agitating the country and Congress, and exposing the President to daily insult and humiliation. Leaders in Congress go to the White House to ask Mr. McKinley if the moral law has changed since he said, last December, that it required us to give the Porto Ricans free trade. A self-respecting man would have shown such inquirers the door. Could a notoriously pious President, fresh from delightful intercourse with Methodist Bishops, submit to have his character as an honest man thus challenged in his own office? But Mr. McKinley is as meek as he is good. He told the Congressional delegation that our "plain duty" remained just what he said it was in his message; humanity demanded that we grant the Porto Ricans free trade; national honor required it, but, "as a matter of expediency," it would be just as well to vote for the bill intended to exploit and starve the islanders. In other words, when President McKinley solemnly and publicly acknowledged the moral obligation to establish free trade with Porto Rico, he did not think he would live to eat his own words—rather, have them crammed down his throat by angry tobacco-growers. His own attitude on this question confirms the worst that has been said about his moral cowardice. By lifting one finger he could make Congress do what he has declared it a national duty to do, yet he cowers before the merest bogey thrust in his face by a heartless crew, and lets "expediency"—*i. e.*, votes for his own reëlection—override "plain duty."

"A great metropolitan daily"—we believe that is the proper phrase—which has been painfully climbing from one side of the fence to the other, in its attempts to support the President in his Porto Rican business, plaintively says that "there is nothing to show" that the Porto Ricans themselves want free trade. We charitably withhold the name of a journal which thus confesses itself cut off from the ordinary channels of information. The newspapers of Porto Rico, whether in Spanish or English, whether of native or American ownership and editing, have been of one voice in saying that free trade is the sole salvation of the island. Only in the latest issues to hand had there come to be a hint, in their dispatches from the United States, that there was a possibility that Congress might repeat in Porto Rico the blunders and crimes of Spain, and it was easy to see what indignation the rumor excited. A telegram from the island ten days ago showed what mingled rage and horror the proposals at Washington had produced. Nothing to show that the Porto Ricans want free trade? Why, Commissioner Carroll's report is stuffed with evidence that all classes and parties of them want it—nay, demand it, as men demand the right to be allowed to live.

In one of the Commissioner's earliest reports he said, "It is proper here to say that Porto Ricans of all classes are united in urging that the markets of the United States and Porto Rico shall be as free, reciprocally, as those of New York and Jersey City." A "Congress of Porto Ricans" met in San Juan in November, 1898, and one of its declarations was in favor of "free and reciprocal commerce with the American Union." Two political parties were organized in Porto Rico last year; the platforms of both call for free trade. The "Republican party of Porto Rico" declared in March, 1899, that "Commerce should be free between Porto Rico and the United States." The plank in the platform of the "Federal party" asserted that "It is indispensable and just to abolish the customs tariff and to establish free commerce between Porto Rico and the rest of the Union." So we might go on with statement after statement by merchants and planters and bankers and manufacturers. "The Golden Dream of Porto Ricans" is the phrase used in describing one prominent native's plea for free trade, who added, "If that is not granted, we are all lost. There is no possible salvation."

This is undoubtedly the form in which the appeal is now reaching the hearts of Americans. It is not a debate about fiscal policies. It is no wrangle over constitutional interpretation. The simple question is, Are we going to deny the prayer of these thousands of fellow-beings who have no earthly help but in us? Are we going to be only a shade less cruel to them than Spain, and then boast of it, as the *Tribune* does? The hopes, the confidence, of the Porto Ricans are touching, as one reads their various expression. The planters of Mayaguez submitted a memorial, which concluded, "Knowing your good wishes, and the good wishes of the President of the great republic, we await with faith and enthusiasm the speedy change of the situation to one of prosperity for Porto Rico." Is Congress going to tell these helpless and trusting people that their confidence was misplaced—that they have simply changed tyrants? Is the President desirous of having his name become execrated in Porto Rico? The Republican party of that island declared that "The names of Washington, Lincoln, and McKinley are household words in Porto Rico." Is the last name now to be a household curse—a symbol of tyranny and bad faith? These are the questions which Congress must answer within the next few days. It must decide whether the heartless greed of a few selfish men is to outweigh the appeals and needs of a ruined people; whether we shall deliberately give the lie to all our fine professions of two years ago, and, whereas Spain chastised the Porto Ricans with whips, whether we ourselves shall chastise them with scorpions.

PASSAGE OF THE GOLD BILL.

The passage of the gold bill in the Senate has been anticipated as a certainty ever since the opening of the present session of Congress. The opposition to it has been feeble and listless, betokening a perfunctory rather than a vital interest in the question among the Democrats. It is nevertheless one of the most impressive events in our political history. Anybody who should have predicted four years ago a majority of votes at this time in the Senate for a bill establishing the gold standard, would have been considered a lunatic. Yet it has come to pass, and it is fresh evidence, amid some testimony of a contradictory kind, that the American people are, by slow degrees, gaining in wisdom and advancing toward a better estate.

The silver and the soft-money crazes of the past quarter of a century were born of the miseries and mistakes of the civil-war period. The legal-tender act was, as Chief Justice Chase acknowledged in one of his later opinions from the Supreme bench, a blunder. It added enormously to the cost of the war, it defrauded multitudes of men and women, and especially the wage-earning classes and the soldiers in the field. Worst of all, it poisoned men's minds, and introduced false conceptions of the nature of money, and entailed upon us a political conflict which at one time came near to producing general ruin and disorder. We are now at the end of that conflict, and the passage of the bill in the Senate with such small opposition is conclusive evidence of the fact. It will be impossible in the lifetime of the present generation to revive the silver controversy. There may be differences of opinion, more or less heated, concerning bank-note issues, but they will not be differences respecting the standard of value.

The Senate has substituted its own bill for the House bill on the same subject

which passed the latter body early in the session. The differences between the two bills, except in the matter of refunding the national debt, are not very important. The House bill is the better of the two, but it is not so much better, except in the particular named, as to warrant any long contest over the differences. The refunding section of the Senate bill is a kind of a cat in the meal-tub that will become lively in the approaching political campaign if the bill is finally passed with that clause in it. The Republican newspapers have been slow in apprehending the true inwardness of this measure, but, in proportion as they have taken pains to understand it, they have perceived the dangers which lurk in it. The scheme proposes to distribute $88,000,000 as a cash bonus to the present bondholders for the privilege of paying them a further sum of $240,000,000 in the next thirty years in excess of what they would otherwise receive. This is to be done under the pretence of reducing the rate of interest on the public debt.

The prime factor in the national finances at the present time is the surplus of income over expenditures. This is likely to be $100,000,000 per year unless Congress is wildly extravagant in its appropriations. It may be safely said that it rests with Congress to pay off the existing debt at the rate of $100,000,000 per year if it chooses to do so. It happens that $850,000,000 of debt will mature within nine years, so that the Government can pay it off by using its surplus receipts for that purpose. There may be a few short intervals in which money will accumulate in the Treasury, between the maturity of one class of bonds and another. Former Congresses and Secretaries have been very careful to preserve the Government's option of payment of the principal of the debt, and the result has been very fortunate for the Government at the present juncture. But now a new policy is introduced quite unheard of heretofore, and it is proposed to throw overboard all the advantage gained by the wise foresight of former administrations, both Republican and Democratic. It is proposed to give away the option of redeeming the outstanding debt, and to extend the principal of those early maturing bonds for thirty years, and pay a bonus for the privilege of doing so.

The largest part of the outstanding bonds consist of 4 per cents, maturing in 1907. These were issued by Secretary Sherman in 1877, and they amount to $553,000,000. The interest on them till maturity will be $188,000,000. The Senate bill proposes, instead of paying them at maturity, to issue new bonds in exchange for them bearing 2 per cent. interest and running thirty years. The whole amount of interest to be paid under this scheme on these particular bonds will be $331,800,000, being a loss to the Government of $143,800,000, besides the cash bonus of about $50,000,000. All this might be justified in the case of a nation which could not redeem its notes at maturity and stop the interest, but is wholly unjustifiable in the circumstances of the United States at the present time.

This is a sample of the refunding scheme. The other batches of bonds maturing within nine years bring the loss on the refunding operation up to $240,000,000, plus the bonus of $88,000,000. It is a reversal of our entire financial policy from the days of Hamilton to the present time, and is in itself astounding. We cannot conceive it possible that the House should agree to it. If it does, there will be many Republican seats emptied next November.

PLUNDERING THE CITY.

Were it not for the magnitude of the interests affected, the impunity with which the city of New York is plundered would be ludicrous. The number of persons directly interested in the spoils is not very great, and even those indirectly profited are a comparatively small minority of the population. But with all the protection supposed to be afforded by a scientific charter, property is practically helpless. The citizens are compelled to see the assessment of property raised by hundreds of millions of dollars, the rate of taxation advanced on this increased assessment, the number of officers constantly enlarged, and their compensation inordinately increased. It is estimated by the Comptroller that the operation of the new charter costs the citizens of Greater New York not less than $15,000,000 a year more than their former government, while there is nothing to show for it but a name. The old city was wastefully and extravagantly governed, and the effect of consolidation has been to spread waste and extravagance through the suburbs. Village constables that were contented with $400 a year have become city policemen at $1,400, and corresponding advances have taken place in all departments.

The latest raid on the city treasury is made under the provisions of the "labor law" of 1894. That act shortened the hours of labor in city work, and provided that "the prevailing rate of wages" should be paid. The chance for plunder was not at first perceived. The employees of the city probably realized that their positions were enviable, and it did not occur to them that the labor law would enable them to collect large sums on the ground that their compensation had been unlawfully small. But the legal profession does not lack members astute enough to discover every existing possibility of mulcting the city, and for a year or more these gentlemen have been getting up claims for back pay for mechanics and laborers. The amount of these claims is now increasing with startling rapidity, and the result to the city treasury may be compared with the effect of the dependent pension act on the Treasury of the United States. That act was sufficient by itself to bring the government to the verge of bankruptcy, and to cause a financial panic; for had it not been for that diversion of revenue the Treasury would not have had to provide for a deficit. When hard times return, the burden of taxation which is now being heaped on this city bids fair to be literally ruinous.

Theoretically the charter provides the city with guardians. Claims against the city are presented to the Comptroller, and he is, in the contemplation of the law, assisted in discharging his duties by the Counsel to the Corporation. The framers of the charter, however, did not extend their theories so as to provide for the not unlikely event of the Comptroller and the Counsel taking different views of the merits of a claim. In such an event—which occurred in the notorious aqueduct claims of O'Brien and Clark—the Comptroller is obliged to employ his opponent as his legal representative. The result is to make the Corporation Counsel practically the supreme auditor of the city. The present Comptroller resisted the payment of the O'Brien and Clark judgment so long as he could do so without being sent to jail for contempt of court. It has been assumed, although the fact is disputed, that various city authorities, including Comptroller Fitch, consented to the payment of $700,000 in settlement of the O'Brien and Clark claims, and that the Corporation Counsel was, therefore, authorized to confess judgment for the city. On the ground of these consents the courts held that claims must be paid which were pronounced by the special counsel retained by the city to be "without any foundations whatever in law, justice, or equity." It was frankly admitted that the true reason for settling was the probability that the Legislature would eventually compel the city to pay the whole of these claims if no compromise was reached. And in spite of the alleged consents, two justices, McLaughlin and Patterson, held that the confession of judgment by the Corporation Counsel was invalid, saying: "The property of the city cannot be used to prevent hostile legislation or to 'purchase peace' by preventing the prosecution of claims which have no legal existence." No more dangerous precedent could be conceived, it was added, "as it practically puts the disposition of the property of the city in the hands of the Corporation Counsel."

That seems to be the opinion which the Corporation Counsel now entertains of his powers. He apparently considers that such formalities as the advice of special counsel, the approval of the Aqueduct Commissioners, the consents of the Mayor and Comptroller, may be dispensed with. His theory is that his own con-

sent is all that is required in order to authorize valid judgments against the city to be entered, and he is acting on that theory to an extent which is staggering. It has been calculated that judgments against the city to the amount of $2,000,000 were obtained last year. That amount promises to be doubled during the year to come. The amount of the claims under the "labor law" filed so far this month is twice as great as in any previous month. In 1897, the city assumed the obligations of eighty-nine corporations consolidated by the charter, and the possibilities of claims from this source are boundless. The Corporation Counsel says that he is powerless to resist these claims, and that it is cheaper for the city to confess judgments than to contest them. However this may be, it is evidently desirable that some other consent than that of this officer should be required before claims unlimited in amount are fastened on the city.

PROF. MIVART AND THE CHURCH.

Prof. St. George Mivart has long held a peculiar position in the scientific as well as in the religious world. As a scientist, he has been one of the few distinguished investigators and students of his generation who have not been thorough-going evolutionists. Twenty years ago a perplexed theological student asked his professor for a good book to read on evolutionary theory. "Read Mivart," was the innocent reply; "he does give it to Darwin so!" On the other hand, Prof. Mivart has been held up as a standing illustration of the tolerance of the Catholic Church. Apologists have made much of him. The Catholic Church antagonistic to science? Why, look at St. George Mivart! No freedom of inquiry within the Roman communion? Prof. Mivart gives the lie to that calumny.

Well, this is all ended now, as Prof. Mivart has been formally excommunicated from the Church for refusing to recant his opinions and submit to his ecclesiastical superiors. The painful story is set out at length in the correspondence between him and Cardinal Vaughan, recently printed in the London *Times*. The Professor had published in two of the London reviews some exceedingly frank articles on Catholic liberty of opinion. He now says that he did so under a solemn sense of duty: he had been warned that he had not long to live; he felt that by his past writings he had influenced many persons in favor of views which he had come to believe erroneous, and that he ought not to go out of the world silent. So, he says, "I made my articles as startling as I could, so as to compel attention to them, and elicit, if possible, an unequivocal pronouncement." This he promptly obtained. The *Tablet* directed attention to his audacious articles, and Cardinal Vaughan speedily called upon him to declare his "reprobation" of his expressed opinions and his "sincere sorrow for having published them." His Eminence also demanded that Prof. Mivart sign a confession of faith, which he sent as "a test of orthodoxy," failing which "the law of the Church will take its course." Cardinal Vaughan no doubt intended to write in a kindly way, while discharging a disagreeable duty, but some of his language was most offensive, even unconsciously. Thus he calmly assured Prof. Mivart that it is "your moral rather than your intellectual nature that needs attention." In other words, if the Professor would only pray and fast, he would have no difficulty in reconciling contradictory propositions.

But the suspected heretic despised the ecclesiastical swords pointed at his breast. He had succeeded in eliciting the authoritative voice of the Church. Catholic by family ties and personal inclinations though he was, he could not stultify himself, and firmly wrote to the Cardinal: "I categorically refuse to sign the profession of faith." In the same letter he declared that it had now been made clear that "a vast and impassable abyss yawns between Catholic dogma and science," and that "no man with ordinary knowledge can henceforth join the communion of the Roman Catholic Church, if he correctly understands what its principles and its teachings really are, unless they are radically changed." In his final communication to Cardinal Vaughan, Prof. Mivart put the case in a condensed and forcible form, which we cannot do better than to reproduce:

> "The fact is, that all Catholic teachers about Scripture are embarrassed by antecedent affirmations which you cannot disown, glad as you would be to do so. The Council of Trent naturally fell into error because then modern science was but in its infancy; while that of the Vatican was no less mistaken because the great majority of its bishops neither knew nor cared anything about natural science.
>
> "But these truths you are not free to affirm because of the dogma of 'infallibility,' which clings to the Church like the fatal garment of Nessus, and will surely eat away its substance and reduce it to a mouldering, repulsive skeleton if that doctrine does not come to be explained away by dexterous Catholic theologians.
>
> "As to the old worn-out saying, 'There can be no discrepancy between science and religion,' it is quite true if religion is always careful to change its teaching in obedience to science, but not otherwise.
>
> "As to 'accommodations' and 'Biblical modes of speaking,' it is 'true,' or it is 'not true,' that the animals went up to Adam to be named, and so with respect to the story about Babel, etc.
>
> "Very many men and women are now anxious and distressed about their duty with regard to the Bible. What good end can be served by telling them it 'contains no errors,' while yet a multitude of its statements are altogether false?
>
> "By such a method the very foundations of religion become tainted with insincerity, untruth, and dishonesty."

We recount this sorrowful experience of Prof. Mivart's without the slightest animus against the Catholic Church. It is no worse, in principle, as respects freedom of opinion, than the Protestant Church. Many zealous Presbyterians are at this moment engaged in the attempt to put Prof. McGiffert out of their church for asserting Presbyterian tolerance and liberty. The difficulty lies not in one church more than another, but in the general principle of attempting to assert authority over reason. The Catholic Church does it at one point, the Protestant churches at others; but all do it. From the law of their being they are bound to do it. In all of them there are certain permitted laxities of belief, so long as these are not offensively proclaimed. You can practically enjoy every liberty except that of asserting in public that you are free. If you do that, the fate of Prof. Mivart befalls you. His case does not really prove that a man cannot be a scientist within the Catholic Church; it proves only that he must keep still about his "conflicts of religion and science." All the churches now substantially say, "Believe what you like in private, only conform publicly."

It is not pleasant for any communion to lose a man like Prof. Mivart. For the Catholic Church his excommunication is a peculiarly unfortunate event just at this time. At the very moment he is being excluded from fellowship, French Cardinals and the Pope himself are praising Father Bailly as a champion of the faith. Who is Father Bailly? He is the member of the Assumptionist Order who proclaimed that the condemnation of Dreyfus at Rennes was due to the miraculous intervention of the Mother of God in behalf of France and the French army!

THE MOTHER OF THE DUC D'ENGHIEN.

PARIS, February 7, 1900.

Count Ducos has found a catching title for a very ordinary book—I mean ordinary in a literary sense, for the subject itself is full of interest—'La Mère du Duc d'Enghien.' Who does not take a natural interest in the unfortunate young prince who was shot at Vincennes? and, consequently, who would not wish to know something about his mother? It is difficult to imagine a book that possesses the elements of the 'Mère du Duc d'Enghien' showing so much inexperience in the art of using such elements, such an absence of proportion in their development. Such as it is, the work deserves to be read, though it sometimes inflicts on the reader the necessity of going through pretentious and useless descriptions, and excursions into questions quite foreign to the matter in hand. The original documents which have served to compose this memoir come chiefly from the National Archives of the Palais Soubise, from the Archives of the Foreign Office, and the Archives of our Navy Department.

Louise Marie Thérèse Bathilde d'Orléans was born on July 9, 1750. Her mother was Henriette de Bourbon de Conti; her father, the Duke d'Orléans, was commonly called "le gros Philippe." He was fat, ordinary, very good-natured. The young princess took the name of Mademoiselle, reserved for the

first princess of the blood till she married. She was educated at the fashionable abbey of Panthemont. At the age of seventeen she was baptized (this sacrament was given to the princes and princesses of the blood only when they took officially their place in the royal family; Rome consenting to this deviation from its rule on account of services which she had received from the house of St. Louis). At their birth, the princes were merely *ondoyés*, as the phrase was and is still—a ceremony which now takes place when there is imminent danger of a newborn child's death before a priest can be summoned. King Louis XV. and his Queen Marie Leczinska took the young princess to the baptismal font.

Mlle. d'Orléans left Panthemont to take part in the wedding of her brother, the Duke de Chartres, with Mlle. de Penthièvre. She made the acquaintance of her cousin, the Duke de Bourbon, whom she was soon afterwards to marry, though he was younger than herself, being only fifteen years old when the marriage took place; but the young couple did not immediately live together. The young Duke took a little journey, and the new Duchess returned for a time to her convent. Laujon, who was familiarly attached to the house of Condé, wrote on this occasion a play called "L'Amoureux de Quinze Ans," which was represented at the theatre of Chantilly. The great passion manifested by the Duke de Bourbon at the time of his marriage, did not last long; at the age of sixteen he was not content with conjugal happiness. The manners of the time did not permit a vulgar fidelity; it was thought very bourgeois to be faithful. There was in the park of Chantilly, in what is still called "L'Île d'Amour," a naked statue of Love, minus his arrows and his wings, with a heart in his hand. On the pedestal was this inscription:

"N'offrant qu'un cœur à la beauté,
Aussi nu que la vérité,
Sans armes comme l'innocence,
Sans ailes comme la constance,
Tel fut l'Amour au siècle d'or;
On ne le trouve plus, mais on le cherche encore."

The Duke de Bourbon did not look long for him, thinking only of his pleasures, his amusements. The Duchess was mortified by her husband's numerous and changing caprices; but her vanity was more wounded than her heart. On the 2d of August, 1772, the Duchess had a son at Chantilly, who received the name of Duke d'Enghien—a small, delicate infant, so frail that it was for a moment doubtful if he would live. Soon afterwards, she was forced to dismiss one of her ladies, Mme. de Canillac, as she found out that the Duke de Bourbon had become too attentive to her. She could not prevent Mme. de Canillac from leaving the palace with the honors of war. The intimate friend of the Prince de Condé, the young Duchess's father-in-law, was the Princess of Monaco, of whom I have spoken at length lately. She wrote on May 3, 1773, to one of her friends from Chantilly: "Young Canillac has the *survivance* [reversion] of M. de Puységur, with the salary and the perquisites till he has the office. Mme. de Bourbon being very discontented, Mme. de Canillac retires. The Prince de Condé gives her a pension of two thousand a year." The Count de Puységur was at the time first gentleman of the bedchamber to the Duke de Bourbon. Such details explain what Paul Louis Courier said afterwards, in his famous pamphlets, of the court and the courtiers.

The Duchess de Bourbon frequented the balls of the Opéra, as did all the ladies of the court. Belleval writes in his Souvenirs in 1773: "It is affirmed that the Duchess de Bourbon has been exiled from Chantilly for an intrigue with the Chevalier de Coigny. He has received an order to join his regiment, and not to come back without the King's permission. It would be for the Duchess de Bourbon only *un prête pour un rendu* [a Roland for an Oliver], for the Duke de Bourbon, young as he is, already has had several mistresses." The young Duchess was living in circumstances which were no protection for her. Her brother, the Duke de Chartres, was notorious for his ill-conduct; her father-in-law lived in equivocal relations with Madame de Monaco; her own father was completely under the sway of Madame de Montesson; her young husband was entirely estranged from her. Madame d'Oberkirch, who was her intimate friend, tries to defend her.

"No woman," she says, "has ever been more unjustly judged; she keeps in her heart a deep and true love for her husband, though he makes her so unhappy. She has been accused of some adventures. I have never seen anything to justify it; at any rate there was in her affairs more giddiness than anything. If she forgot some rules of propriety, it was certainly because she tried to forget herself. She wished to tear from her heart the poisoned arrow."

This seems far too sentimental for a time which, though it prided itself on sensibility, was not very sentimental.

The Duchess de Bourbon spent much of her time at Chantilly, while her husband lived in Paris in the gayest company. In Paris, she inherited the charming Palais Bourbon, belonging to her father-in-law. She was so unfortunate as to become, one evening at a masked ball at the Opéra (these balls were at the time frequented by the best society), the occasion of a quarrel between the Count d'Artois and the Duke de Bourbon. The Count d'Artois tore her mask from her face. It was a grave insult, and though the Duke de Bourbon was neglecting his wife and lived almost wholly apart from her, he thought it necessary to avenge her. This duel made an immense noise at the time; it was bloodless, and the two princes fought, so to speak, for the gallery, like two fencing-masters. The Duchess de Bourbon was not brought nearer to her husband; a complete rupture took place some time afterwards. The King ordered the Prince de Condé to give annually to the Duchess the sum of 250,000 francs, and gave her the exclusive possession of a pension of 50,000 francs, which he had paid to the young couple since their marriage. As for the young child, the Duke d'Enghien, it was agreed that "the Duchess de Bourbon shall be allowed to see her son, either at Paris or at Saint-Maur, and shall take him to the play only when he has the permission of his father. The Duke de Bourbon shall send his son to her once a week." At the very moment when this arrangement was being made, the Duke de Bourbon had a child by a dancer of the Opéra, Mademoiselle Michelet, and he used his right as prince of the blood to give her the name of Bourbon. This child was christened in the presence of the old Marshal de Soubise and of Mademoiselle de Condé; she was well educated, and was married to a Montessus de Rully, first gentleman of the bedchamber to the Duke de Bourbon.

The total separation of the Duchess and her husband made a great change in her life. She had to reduce her household, and kept only one lady, Mme. de Sérent. She ordered her existence less as a princess than as a private person, appearing very little at court, and only in very official circumstances, giving much of her time to the Opéra, the French Theatre, the Italian Theatre, and even the small theatres, such as Nicolet's, now remembered only by its device, "De plus fort en plus fort." But the chief absorbing topic for her became mesmerism; she threw herself with a sort of passion into the new theories of animal magnetism. She fell under the influence of a man who was nicknamed the "unknown philosopher." He was a gentleman, born near Amboise, Louis Claude de St. Martin, who had been initiated by a Portuguese into a sort of mysterious doctrine in which Judaism, the Kabala, and Christianity were mixed up. This church had secret rites like free-masonry; Swedenborgian ideas were mingled with those of Saint-Germain. The Duchess de Bourbon, like many other great ladies, became an adept in this complex illuminism. She liked to believe in the "corps astral"—an astral body which abandoned the material body and transported itself freely in every direction.

In our day, the peculiar mental malady of which this sort of material illuminism is a symptom, would go under the name of hysteria or neurasthenia. There cannot be any doubt that the Duchess de Bourbon was neurasthenic. She was not mad, she was very odd, and presented the curious but not uncommon contrast of a sort of double existence—one subject to all the rules of decency, of reason, of natural instincts; another absolutely irrational, and subject to the most incoherent, illogical, and perverted influences. In so far she justified one of the hypotheses of Saint-Germain, which is the splitting in two of the human personality. She became in reality two persons in one. The peculiarities of this strange character became much more apparent when the Revolution broke out.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME OF '73.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe that Senator William E. Chandler opposes the currency bill because, he says, it does not remonetize silver and makes permanent the gold standard. He seems to have forgotten that he approved the act of '73 that dropped the silver dollar from the list of American coins because there were no such coins. In the report of the Director of the Mint (1896), page 461, is a letter from Mr. Boutwell, Secretary of the Treasury, dated April 25, 1870, addressed to the Finance Committee of the Senate, and accompanied by a report of Mr. John Jay Knox, Deputy Comptroller of the Currency, and a bill to revise the coinage laws of the United States. The report said:

"The coinage of the silver-dollar piece, the history of which is here given, is discontinued in the proposed bill. It is by law the dollar unit, and, assuming the value of gold to be fifteen and one-half times that of silver,

being about the mean ratio for the past six years, is worth in gold a premium of about three per cent. (its value being $1.03.12) and intrinsically more than seven per cent. premium in our other coins, its value thus being $1.07.42. The present laws consequently authorize both a gold-dollar and a silver-dollar unit, differing from each other in intrinsic value. The present gold dollar piece is made the dollar unit in the proposed bill, and the silver dollar piece is discontinued."

In response to Mr. Boutwell's letter the House passed a resolution requesting him to furnish the House with copies of all correspondence between the Department officers of the Government and other persons touching the bill and report. In the correspondence transmitted in compliance with this request is a letter (page 534) from W. E. Chandler, late Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, to Mr. Knox:

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 15, 1870.

DEAR SIR: I thank you for sending me a copy of your report and proposed bill for a revision of the mint laws. The necessity of such a revision has been apparent to every one connected of late years with the Treasury Department. The work has been admirably performed by you. You have happily secured and availed yourself of the suggestions of others, while impressing upon the codification that unity and completeness which can only result from the operations of one thoroughly informed mind. If the law is enacted it will result most beneficially. . . . (Signed) W. E. CHANDLER.

John J. Knox, Esq.

There is also a letter from Ernest Seyd of London, who had written a book in favor of the so-called double standard. (Just here I will say that, as a standard implies unity, the term "double standard" is a solecism—a contradiction in terms. One watch or one clock may be a standard of time; but two watches or two clocks, each keeping a different time, like a gold dollar and a silver dollar of different commercial values, furnish no standard of time or value. One only can be adopted for practical use.) Seyd, reviewing the bill by sections, says:

"Sec. 51. I now come to the most important part of the bill, that of the valuation, which, according to section 15, omits the coinage of the silver dollar and confirms the debased silver coinage of half-dollars and below, under the tender limit of $5. I am aware, of course, that, through the amendment of 1853, the same debased coinage was already established; but although the actual coinage of the silver dollar had practically ceased, still that piece was not abolished by law. As this new bill presumably repeals all previous enactments, I suppose that the total abolition of the silver dollar is contemplated. In my book ('Suggestions') I enter fully into the discussion of this matter, and show the gigantic consequences to international as well as national trade through the demonetization of silver, to which the United States would thus lend a helping hand; and for a number of years this subject of the abolition of silver as tender coin has occupied the attention of European economists."

This correspondence proves how false is the charge that the coinage act which was pending three years in Congress was surreptitiously passed; also, that the Nevada Senators voted for it with a full knowledge of what it contained. JNO. S. MOSBY.

SAN FRANCISCO, February 11, 1900.

MR. STILLMAN ON THE BOER WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a patriotic American, for years in close touch with English public opinion, I should like to say a word in reference to the (as it seems to me) extremely injudicious and unjustifiable unfriendliness shown by some of our people towards England in the question of the conflict with the Boer republics. I do not mean to appeal for gratitude on account of the moral support given us by England in the question of the Philippines—though knowing on safe authority that she saved us from complications which would probably have ended in a much worse state than the present—because there may be some to whom I would appeal who think, as I do, that we should not be in the Philippines. Gratitude is nowhere a national virtue, and is especially deficient in republican countries. The tie of blood is even less an obligation to friendly treatment, and probably not one in ten of our people sees far enough into the future of civilization to understand that the prevalent influence of England rather than that of any other of the European Powers, with its inevitable consequence of the heredity of the English-speaking races, would be for the benefit of the race at large; and the personal and chauvinistic greed of large sections of our States would prefer a very small bird in their own hands to-day to a large flight of larger game in the future. They cannot, or will not, see that England, everywhere she goes, is planting industrial and human interests which are growing and ripening not only for our race, but for all races of men. We have always been a short-sighted nation, and our greatest losses and disasters are due to that.

But there are two questions which ought to appeal to the two influential classes of Americans—those who look at the right and wrong of the thing, and those who regard the direct interests of the United States from any large view of them. I am of the former, but I understand the point of view of the latter. And as to the right of the matter, I have yet to see a broad and unprejudiced statement of the whole question, in which England and the present English Government (of which I am no supporter, but severely critical) does not appear worthy of our entire sympathy. The conclusive testimony may not be yet before us, but waiting for peace to liberate it; but what there is I have seen, and am completely satisfied that the Government neither desired nor contemplated war, but that the Boer Governments had decided before Majuba that they would expel the English authority from South Africa when the opportunity offered. But admitting that all the accusations of duplicity and bad faith on both sides are justified, and that both Governments were trying to deceive each other, the casting vote is in the Boer declaration of war and invasion of the English colony of Natal, with the declared intention of driving the English out of South Africa.

There are three reasons for withdrawing all sympathy from the Boers on account of this movement. The first is, that it is a proof that what they wanted was not independence but domination. If they thought themselves strong enough for an offensive war against England and the conquest of Natal, where is a majority of English, and Cape Colony, where there is only a doubtful majority, they were infinitely more capable of repelling any attack and conducting a successful defensive war. They acted as our Confederacy did in firing on Sumter—to fire the Boer blood in the Colony. In defending their independence against aggression, they would have had an invincible public opinion, in England even, in their favor. The second is, that in their restrictive measures at home they showed that they were not a majority, even in the Transvaal, and, therefore, as a minority seeking to dominate a majority, they deserve no support from a free people. And the third is, that they were, as in the case of our secession, attempting to substitute a retrograde civilization for one which was superior in every respect and more for the advantage of the races concerned. Throwing out all the words, declarations, and negotiations as liable to impeachment and mutually contradictory, the facts put the Boers in the wrong, show them to be aggressive and domineering.

The direct interests of the United States demand the maintenance of the English rule where it is maintained with justice and liberality, as the most just and liberal in government and in commerce of all the Powers that might succeed to the place England holds. Our highest interest all over the world (at home, if we would but see it, as well) is in the maintenance of free trade. Any other Power taking the place of England would be a protectionist Power. The stake of England in this war is at the least her African empire, and possibly that of India. If it were forfeited, the substitution of any other Power for England in either of those cases would be *pro tanto* a loss for American interests. No American political economist ought to question this.

A reason which lies farther in the future and deeper in gravity is, that when, in the normal course of political and commercial progress, England's internal resources fail her, or the development by peaceful growth of the western world passes her in the race, we come in as the principal heir of her commercial supremacy; while the sudden and violent collapse of England not only is the presage of terrible wars and interminable disasters, but must throw that estate into remoter succession and exclude us from our legitimate predominance in the future. The present prostration of England would mean the leaving us out of any account in the immediate future, for we have not yet made any adequate preparation for asserting our claims. The peace of the world in this juncture, and the best interests of humanity in the remoter, depend on the victory of England in this war.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

DEEPDENE, FRIMLEY GREEN, SURREY, ENG., February 9, 1900.

MARY CHAWORTH'S DAUGHTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friend in England writes to me under date of February 1:

"It is strange, but soon after your letter came, I think while I was actually reading it, I heard the church bell tolling, and soon learned, what indeed I had expected, that our dear old lady at the manor house had passed away. I think she would have been ninety-four next May, and she kept her mind and her sweet happiness up to the last. She was out driving last Friday (January 27), and unfortunately opened her carriage window and caught cold. She will be greatly missed here."

The death of this interesting old lady breaks a link with a great past, for she was the daughter of Mary Chaworth, whom Byron loved so hopelessly. In August, 1805, Mary Chaworth was married to Mr. John

Musters, who took the family name of the heiress. Byron saw her but once after the marriage. One day, in the autumn of 1808, shortly before his leaving England on the first Childe Harold's pilgrimage, Mr. Chaworth invited him to dine at Annesley Hall. The little daughter of his hostess was brought into the room. "At the sight of the child," Moore writes, "he started involuntarily—it was with the utmost difficulty he could conceal his emotion; and to the sensations of that moment we are indebted for those touching stanzas—

"'Well! thou art happy.'"

The date of this poem is November 2, 1808, and on the same day Byron wrote to his mother, announcing his intention of sailing for India in the following March.

As is well known, Mrs. Chaworth's marriage was not a happy one; she was separated from her husband, her mind became affected, and she died young, in 1832, from shock caused by the Reform riots in Nottingham.

Her daughter became Mrs. Hamond, and was lady of the manor of Swaffham, Norfolk, her eldest son being lord of the neighboring manor of Acre. It is all historic ground, the manor of Acre containing the picturesque ruins of Castle Acre, the stronghold of John de Warrenne, that Earl of Surrey whom Wallace defeated at the battle of Stirling.

I first met Mrs. Hamond during the winter of 1887, when I was a student at Newnham College, Cambridge. I had gone on a visit to some friends in Swaffham. On the Sunday morning, coming out of the old gray church, my friends introduced me to the lady of the manor as she sat in her carriage. It was a fine, bright, gentle face that greeted me, of a woman over eighty, but still vigorous, and interested in life. One of the ladies told her we had been reading Byron's "Dream" the evening before. "Oh, that was all nearly a hundred years ago," she said, smiling pleasantly. I saw Mrs. Hamond for the last time on a July afternoon a few years later, and before me as I write is her note, neatly folded into a small triangle and sealed with red wax, asking me to take tea with her. I had just then crossed the Atlantic for the third time, and to her, in her old-world village of Swaffham, I seemed to be a great traveller. Two of her sons were in the royal navy, one of them an admiral, and several of her grandchildren had gone to the colonies—Canada and Australia. I remember that as we drank our tea the talk was of distant lands, of America and farthest Asia. Some spicy Indian sweet was produced out of a Chinese jar to top off the feast. Around the room on the eye line there was a row of beautiful miniatures, and, before I left, Mrs. Hamond rose and pointed them out to me, lingering with some entertaining story over nearly every one. She supported herself on a gold-headed cane as she walked about, for she was very stout, with a figure like that of the Queen. There were several portraits of Lord Byron, and quite a number of miniatures of her mother, all representing a lovely woman, with a fair, girlish face. "My mother was a beautiful woman," she said simply.

Standing in the doorway of the elm-shaded manor house, gold-headed stick in hand, and clad in a black satin gown, her sweet old face set off with snowy hair and white lace cap, Mrs. Hamond was herself a picture. The westering sun cast a glamour over the venerable lady and the peaceful landscape, and all about there seemed to throb the greater glamour of an undying romance, of unrequited passion, pain, high thought—the wrack of genius.

MARY AUGUSTA SCOTT.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., February 13, 1900.

MANGLING A CLASSIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just lit upon an instance of liberties taken with a classic in what should be a standard edition that seems to me amazing. Has any one called attention to it, or inquired for the responsible person? It is in Harper's Biographical Edition of Thackeray, and occurs in 'The Rose and the Ring.' That delightful Christmas book is "illustrated by the author," and Thackeray tells us in his introduction how the pictures came to be made, and how the story grew out of the pictures. Yet the publishers have introduced from somewhere several drawings not by Thackeray and not in sympathy with the text, and have done this with no word of warning to the reader, thus making Thackeray responsible for work he did not do. This is bad enough, but it is the tampering with the text which is serious. The page headings to 'The Rose and the Ring' are, as is well known, in rhyme, and form a sort of continuous accompaniment and comment on the story. In the Biographical Edition this begins all right:

"Royal folks at breakfast time.
Awful consequence of crime!
Ah, I fear, King Valoroso,"

and then—nothing; a blank, and the next couplet begins:

"Here behold the monarch sit," etc.

My memory tells me that conduct "but so-so" rhymed with Valoroso, and completed the sentence and the couplet, but I am deprived of any other authority for that fact. Why? Simply because a new chapter begins on the page where this information should appear, and printers do not like a page heading above a chapter heading; so, out goes the line. There are nineteen chapters to the story, and consequently eighteen lines are chopped out, sometimes the first line of a couplet, sometimes the second; and headless and tailless sentences are left to dangle in the air regardless of rhyme or reason. Who does these things? Or who should have seen that such things were *not* done and neglected his duty? One has heard of editing with a pitchfork, but this is editing with a cleaver.—Yours,

CASEY.

AMERICANA MINORA ET MAJORA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The amusing and instructive British publication "Who's Who?" has prided itself for the last year or two on the increased accuracy and fulness of its transatlantic biographies. Far be it from us to be hypercritical. Some slight imperfections in proportion and detail, however, still remain. For instance, if the Hon. Grover Cleveland, who was chief executive for "1885-8," deserves mention still in 1900, why not a half-line for his namesake who officiated in "1893-6"? While Mrs. Burton Harrison has two entries and a careful up-to-date bibliography, a certain Mr. Benjamin Harrison is unknown in England. "His Honour Judge Robert Grant," all whose "frivolities" and "confessions" down to the current year are duly catalogued, will not disdain to shake the judicial ermine with a chuckle when he hears that a certain obscure schoolmaster, whilom yclept "Carolus Gulielmus," is invisible a thousand leagues away. Perhaps, however, some Yale man hath done this out of mere envy. At least, the youthful head of the rival Thinking-shop is carefully included in the conscientious "Addenda."

W. C. L.

ADELPHI COLLEGE, BROOKLYN,
February 10, 1900.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co.'s spring announcements include 'Side Lights on English History,' edited from papers and diaries of the past three centuries by Ernest F. Henderson; 'Leading Documents of English History,' edited by Dr. Guy Carleton Lee of Johns Hopkins; 'The Memoirs of the Baroness Cécile de Courtot,' lady-in-waiting to the Princess de Lamballe, compiled by Moritz von Kaisenberg; 'His Lordship's Leopard,' an extravaganza by David Dwight Wells; 'The Open Road,' poems of the wayfarer, compiled by Edward Verrall Lucas; 'Memory,' by Prof. F. W. Colgrove, of the University of Washington; 'The Art of Debate,' by Dr. R. M. Alden; and 'Spanish Prose Composition,' by Prof. M. M. Ramsay.

'Man and his Ancestor,' by Charles Morris; and 'The Criminal: His Personnel and Environment,' by the Rev. August Drähms, are shortly forthcoming from the press of Macmillan Co., together with 'Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom: A Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters,' by J. T. Cunningham; 'Politics and Administration,' by Prof. Frank J. Goodnow; 'Colonial Civil Service: The Selection and Training of Colonial Officials in England, Holland, and France,' by A. Lawrence Lowell; and 'Home Nursing,' by Miss Eveleen Harrison.

D. Appleton & Co.'s February announcements include 'Municipal Government,' by the Hon. Bird S. Coler, Comptroller of New York; 'A History of the Spanish-American War,' by Richard H. Titherington; 'The Principles of Taxation,' by the late David A. Wells; 'The Secondary School System of Germany,' by Dr. F. E. Bolton; and 'Some Great Astronomers,' by Edward S. Holden.

The Scribners will issue without delay the 'Memoirs of Princess Mary, Duchess of Teck,' based on her diaries and letters; in two volumes, with numerous portrait and other illustrations.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, will shortly publish 'Opportunity and I,' impressions of travel through the Eastern States and Canada, by Nellie Blessing-Eyster.

Mr. Henry Farrar, 36 Essex Street, W. C., London, proposes to publish the Marriage Registers of Saint Margaret's, Westminster (1538-1837), in three and possibly four volumes, super-royal 8vo, at a guinea a volume. This church was the mother church of St. Martin's in the Fields; St. Paul's, Covent Garden; St. Anne's, Soho; St. James's, Westminster; and St. George's, Hanover Square; being as well the parish church of

the House of Commons. There will be a complete index of persons and places for each volume. The edition is limited to 250 subscribers, and volume one will appear in July.

The second issue of Mr. H. Whates's uncommonly useful manual, 'The Politician's Handbook,' comes to us from Vacher & Sons, London. Primarily designed for the English market, this summary and digest of the diplomatic correspondence, Parliamentary papers, treaties, reports, and other Government documents of the year, has a value for student or editor anywhere. Under "South African Republics," for example, we have fifty pages of condensed and impartial information. "China" and "India" are fruitful entries. The editor has an "introductory review" for each leading document, in the nature of an exposition of the course of diplomacy. Here he hazards opinions with which he does not expect "general agreement"; but, in the compilation of material, "absolute impartiality has been attempted." The issue runs to 248 pages, as against 169 in the initial volume. It is a true friend at elbow.

We had a good word, and not brief, seven years ago, for Mr. Frederic Harrison's 'Annals of an Old Manor House' (Macmillan). While it has a technical side that is pretty stiff reading, the human historical is quite otherwise, and it was well advised to abridge the work, as has now been done, by leaving out the expensive colored plates and most of the illustrations and the genealogical matter. The result is a small and still pleasing volume. "And I now," says the author, of this Sutton Place where his father lived and died, "must add to these memories those of my mother and my brother Lawrence," who also successively lived and passed away there.

Nearly twenty years have elapsed since Jowett's translation of Thucydides appeared (in 1881), in two volumes, one of text and one of notes. The Master of Balliol expressed his indebtedness to W. H. Forbes of his college for general collaboration, and for having compiled the material for the dissertation "On Inscriptions of the Age of Thucydides." Mr. Forbes and Evelyn Abbott have now revised the translation and the dissertation in question (as also that on the Geography of Thucydides) in accordance with Jowett's desire, observing his request "to make no change or insertion of which they think he would have disapproved, and to retain the general character of the work." As published by the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde), the reprint fills two octavo volumes smaller than the original and omitting the notes altogether, since the revision of these also would have caused a serious postponement. The historical index fills nearly a hundred pages. This edition is fairly to be called popular, though handsome enough for any library; and it is put forth at a time when the fate of imperial ambition and the misery of war can be most profitably studied in pages of undying interest and power.

Mr. Edward Field adds to his numerous painstaking and authoritative Revolutionary works a transcription and annotation of the 'Diary of Col. Israel Angell, commanding the Second Rhode Island Continental Regiment during the American Revolution, 1778-1781' (Providence: Preston & Rounds Co.). Col. Angell was a brave and capable officer who served in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and in his native State with distinction. His diary throws some added light on important occurrences, such as the evacuation of Newport and Arnold's treason; records familiar routes of travel, civil and military, in his day; affords glimpses of army discipline, and of the genus "patriot" in the service; is strong on the weather (some of it almost past endurance); genealogically alone was worth editing; and orthographically is capable of furnishing much innocent amusement. "La ffiat" and "fu-de-joy" are not more laughable than common deformations of the vernacular. André's name appears as "Andrew" and "Andrews." Mr. Field is naturally strongest in Rhode Island topography. In the last line of page 100 he fails to discern Suffern and Ramapo in "Soverens" (tavern) and "Ranomapough."

Mr. F. Stanhope Hill, Secretary of the Massachusetts Nautical Training School, has been moved to write 'The "Lucky Little *Enterprise*" and her Successors in the United States Navy' (Boston: The Author). The original *Enterprise*, a schooner, was built in Maryland in 1799. The present steam sloop-of-war *Enterprise*, the fourth of her name, was built in Maine, in 1873-76, and, unlike her belligerent namesake, has no recorded engagement. She has been employed in surveying the Amazon, under Selfridge, and deep-sea sounding under Barker, and is now the Massachusetts school-ship. Mr. Hill closes his interesting memoir with the just reflection that the modern *Enterprise* is doing as worthy service to the state as the vanquisher of the *Boxer*.

Volume iii. of the *Anglo-Saxon Review* (John Lane) is arrayed, as were its predecessors, in a gorgeousness quite beyond that of the lilies of the field; its six engraved portraits—Denon's fine Bonaparte, Gainsborough's Canning, Shelley and his wife, Paderewski, Mary of Lorraine—are of a high order of excellence; but when we pass to the letter-press, the distinction of the number seems to end. Perhaps the absorption of the editor, Lady Randolph Churchill, in the Boer war may account for the rather disappointing papers, some of which, like Señor Moret's on Spain, begin well and hold out hopes, only to dash them in the end. Even Mr. Mallock's interesting attempt to serve up Lucretius in Omar's quatrain, must, with its admixture of FitzGerald, Shakspere, the Bible, and Mr. Mallock himself, be pronounced only a *succès d'estime*. For more of translation and less of transfusion the first nine quatrains should be compared with the opening of the second book of 'De Rerum Natura.'

The activities of the classical department of Harvard University are well shown in the new (tenth) volume of the "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology" for the year 1899 (Boston: Ginn). It contains, in all, eleven articles, of which six are the work of members of the faculty. Prof. Greenough writes on "Some Questions in Latin Stem Formations" and on "The Religious Condition of the Greeks at the Time of the New Comedy," an interesting paper. Prof. Howard contributes a note on the mouthpiece of the αὐλός and a collection of metrical passages in Suetonius, while Dr. Gulick considers the Attic "Prometheus" and two passages in the "Birds" of Aristophanes (verses 14 and 167-170). The remaining five papers are by more or less recent students of the University, and constitute by no means the least interesting part of the volume. Especially noteworthy are "The Symbolism of the Apple in Classical Antiquity," by Benjamin O. Foster; "Greek Shoes in the Classical Period," by A. A. Bryant—an extended article which deals with one hundred and sixty citations on this subject from the literature of the fifth and fourth centuries, B. C.; and a "Study of the Daphnis Myth," by H. W. Prescott.

The Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde) has arranged with the Paris house of Hachette to reprint in a single volume on India paper the 'Oeuvres Complètes de Molière,' following the text of MM. Despois and Mesnard in the collection of "Grands Écrivains de la France." The 647 duodecimo pages in double columns of agate type escape being bulky by reason of the famous thin paper of the Oxford Press; but, for those who want to take their Molière more familiarly, the publishers have packed away precisely the same matter in four little 32mo volumes of about 500 pages each, the width of a column, the whole enclosed in a box matching the wine-color binding. In both of these editions, of which the presswork is as clear as possible, the lines are numbered.

John Vanbrugh's life and works form the subject of No. vii. of the *Wiener Beiträge zur englischen Philologie*, edited by Schipper, Luick, and Pogatscher. The author is Dr. Max Dametz, and the book is evidently his doctor's thesis. In some two hundred pages Dr. Dametz reviews the life and personality of Vanbrugh, and follows with considerable detail his work as dramatist and as architect. He thus not only considers the literary activity of the author himself, but also passes upon the judgments of his critics; and he not only describes Vanbrugh's various architectural feats and determines his position among the world's architects, but even goes into minutiæ as to the progress and cost of the erection of such structures as Blenheim Castle. He has made good use of all the resources at his command, but has had to do without some important documents in the case, or to infer their contents from others that were published in antagonism to them. In spite of a certain immaturity of conception and of style, Dametz's work has considerable value, and must be greeted as a real contribution to our knowledge of Vanbrugh and his time.

The Consular Reports for January calls attention to the proposed establishment in this country of a branch office of a Berlin society organized for the reproduction of the masterpieces in the national galleries of Europe. A peculiar process employed "enables the reproducing artists not only to create true facsimiles of the original in every outline, by means of photography and steel etching, but also to produce the depth of coloring and the peculiarities of manner of each master by a special employment of the colors called heliotint, thus reproducing the characteristic handiwork of the artists." By the annual contributions of its more than 16,000 patrons—a list headed by the Emperor and Empress of Germany—the society's productions are introduced "into the homes of subaltern officers, teachers, civic employees, and people in the humbler walks of life, who, however, before becoming entitled to the privilege of receiving such art reproductions, had to sign the society's roll of membership and thus become active

agents in the missionary work of spreading culture in art."' Another aim has been "to foster the love of home and country by giving reproductions from famous masters which represent scenes from history," and this will apparently be the principal work of the American branch. There are also numerous reports on the manufacture of tiles in Europe and Asia, and several relating to South American topics, among others to the successful cultivation of small fruit and oranges in Paraguay, though a great part of the latter crop perishes for lack of means of transportation. Special commendation is given by our Consul-General at Rio de Janeiro to *yerba mate* (Paraguay tea) as a preëminently temperance drink. It has "all the stimulating and sustaining qualities of Chinese tea or coffee, without the detrimental effect caused by their constant and excessive use."

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women is prepared to offer a foreign fellowship of the value of $500 for the years 1900-1901. Preference will be given to Maryland women, or women identified with educational interests in that State. Applications with evidences of fitness should be addressed before March 31 to Dr. Mary Sherwood, chairman, The Arundel, Baltimore.

—There is a movement on foot at the University of Michigan to so organize and coördinate certain courses in history, political science, and related studies, as to meet more perfectly the peculiar needs of certain interests or careers. The faculty of the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts has recommended to the Board of Regents the establishment of five special courses, the titles of which are to be: (1) Diplomatic and Consular Education; (2) Higher Commercial Education ; (3) Preparation for Newspaper Work; (4) Preparation for Pastoral Work and Public Philanthropy; (5) Instruction in Public Administration. Students that elect any one of these courses must see to it that, of the 120 hours required for graduation, 24 are in the field of modern languages and 40 are selected from certain specified courses in history, economics, sociology, statistics, international law, administrative law, general and commercial law, history of education, and philosophy. Except for the recognition of certain work (not to exceed 15 hours) done in the Law Department, these "special courses" are simply groupings of a part of the regular university work of the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts, and the student who elects one of them is a regular matriculate, subject to all the regulations and tests that other students are. The new movement is due, in part, to a recognition of the needs of the times, and in part to a desire to avoid the defects of the system of free elections. It does not mean the introduction of the group system in place of that of free election, but it does mean (in these lines of work) the incorporation, within the elective system, of the advantages of the group system. In other words, students desiring, in their regular university course, to choose their studies in a way most advantageous to them in their future career, will enjoy the advantages of the direction offered by such courses and of the advice and counsel of the committee intrusted with their administration. Whether any special certificate or diploma will be granted in addition to the bachelor's diploma, is undetermined; but it is likely that one will be.

—The *Virginia Magazine* and the *William and Mary Quarterly* for January continue to throw interesting light upon colonial Virginia. The latter prints the will (1767) of Gov. Fauquier, who was an enlightened ruler, still held in esteem in Virginia. In it he said: "It is now expedient that I should dispose of my slaves, a part of my estate in its nature disagreeable to me, but which my situation made necessary for me; the disposal of which has constantly given me uneasiness whenever the thought has occurred to me. I hope I shall be found to have been a Merciful Master to them, and that no one of them will rise up in judgment against me in that great day when all my actions will be exposed to public view. For with what face can I expect mercy from an offended God, if I have not myself shown mercy to those dependent upon me?" He wished the slaves to be allowed six months in which to choose their own master, and expressly stipulated that the women should not be parted from their children. With this humane provision should be read the suggestion of Governor Berkeley, printed in the same number, that all the Northern Indians should be destroyed as a "great terror and example and Instruction to all other Indians"; and further that this may be done without charge, "for the women and children [as slaves] will Defray it," and enough men "from hence will undertake it for their share of the Booty."

—The *Magazine* also contributes something on colonial slavery. In 1672 the magistrates of Surry County decreed that as "ye apparrell comonly worne by negroes doth as well Highten theire foolish pride as induse them to steale fine Linninge & other ornaments, . . . from hence forth noe negro shall be allowed to weare any white Linninge, but shall weare blew shirts and shifts." The term negro-cloth was commonly used in plantation accounts for a coarse and generally colored goods. The punishment allotted as late as 1778 to a slave for murder must be read to be appreciated. The will of the Rev. Orlando Jones, the grandfather of Martha Washington, has value because it supplies definite information on that doubtful genealogy. Some letters written after 1789 give a fair picture of what William and Mary College was, and present a much improved situation over that described by Washington in the early '70s, when he thought of sending young Custis to that institution. President Tyler reviews Dr. Green's 'Word-Book of Virginia Folk-Speech,' and surely is in error when he claims that "agwine" and "high falutin" are "old Virginia speech, survivals of archaic English forms that have been lost in England." A reference to Murray would have prevented such a claim.

—The first volume of a 'History of the Scandinavians, and Successful Scandinavians in the United States,' compiled, edited, and published by O. N. Nelson, Minneapolis, has already been favorably noticed in these columns. This first volume, which originally appeared in 1893, has been completely revised and brought down to the present time, and, with a new edition of the second volume (1897), now forms a book of nearly 900 pages. New material in the work is an article by the editor on the "First Norwegian Immigration, or the Sloop Party of 1825"; matter dealing with Scandinavian settlements, churches, and schools in Minnesota; and additional biographies. Some twenty pages of Scandinavian-American historical bibliography have also been added, and some valuable statistical tables. The work as it now stands contains a reasonably comprehensive account of Scandinavian activity in America, from the coming of the Swedish *Mayflower*, the *Kalmar Nyckel*, to the Delaware River, in 1638, to the important Scandinavian settlements in the Northwest at the present day, particularly in Minnesota, Iowa, and Wisconsin. The editor estimates, on the basis of known statistics, that 1,500,000 Scandinavians have settled in the United States since the beginning of colonization. This immigration reached its maximum in 1882, when a total of 105,326 persons from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden is officially recorded. In 1898 this had dwindled down, however, to a minimum of 19,282. Approximate returns for 1899 show a total of 22,191. The last census shows the largest Scandinavian-born population in Minnesota, with Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa following in the order named. Of the cities, Chicago precedes, with Minneapolis and St. Paul next. The editor explains in his preface that, excepting church organizations, there are scarcely any Scandinavian institutions in this country. A third of the space, accordingly, is devoted to biographical records of individuals, many of them accompanied by portraits, representing almost every calling in the community. The whole work is the unmistakable record not only of the reality of Scandinavian effort in America, but of the sterling value of its influence upon the body politic in the making of a nation.

—With volumes lx. and lxi. the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) takes a long stride towards completion. The latter volume is pretty much given over to Kings and Dukes William, and to the great Williams tribe, including Roger, whose place, says the writer, "as a religious teacher, has, perhaps, been exaggerated by his eulogists. His views were not in advance of those of many of his contemporaries, . . . but he certainly had a firm grip of the necessity of the principle of toleration, and he was one of the very first to make a serious attempt to put that principle into practice." Whitefield, another worthy of both hemispheres, is here commemorated. While Bishop Wilberforce is treated by Francis Legge, his father was fitly assigned to Leslie Stephen, who reminds us that in 1786 William Wilberforce carried through the Commons a bill providing, among other ameliorations of the penal code, that hanging should be substituted for burning in the case of women. It was rejected in the Lords. Edward Wightman, by the way, was, we are told in the sketch of him, the last person burnt for heresy in England (1612), and was twice at the stake; and such curious and not unimportant facts so abound in this Dictionary as to suggest the utility of a subject-index. Take, for another instance, Whiston, author of what is still the accepted translation of Josephus, and one of the first, if not the first, to give lectures with experiments in London. He perhaps, too, furnished Goldsmith with the model for his Vicar of Wakefield. Richard Whittington, again, is singular in having been, though an historical character,

identified with the hero of a popular tale which "has been traced in many countries both of southern and northern Europe, and occurs in a Persian version as early as the end of the 13th century" (Whittington died in 1423). Many will learn for the first time that White's "Selborne" has been "bowdlerised" and so very extensively popularized among the young. The charm of the book, says his biographer, has never been unanimously accounted for. It still remains to explain its wide welcome among readers (like American) to whom "scarcely a plant or an animal mentioned in it is familiar, or even known but by name."

—Part second of *Masters in Art* (Boston: Bates & Guild Co.) deals with a greater and more universal artist than part first, and it is, therefore, natural that the selection of pictures for reproduction should seem less satisfactory. It is quite possible to give a fair view of the art of Van Dyck in ten selected plates, whereas the art of Titian is so varied that the same number of plates can hardly represent him otherwise than partially. The selection given is, on the whole, a good one, though each critic will have his own complaint of certain exclusions or inclusions. The "Assumption" and the Pesaro "Madonna" were, of course, obligatory, though they represent the most factitious and least temperamental part of Titian's production. The "Man with the Glove," "The Entombment," and the "Sacred and Profane Love" are, in their several styles, indubitable masterpieces of the first rank, while the "Madonna with the Cherries" and the "Madonna with Four Saints" of the Dresden Gallery are, if not quite the best, yet among the best of Titian's pictures of that type. There remain, as doubtful inclusions, "Alfonso of Ferrara and Laura Dianti," "Lavinia," and "Charles V. on Horseback." Of course, these are also good pictures, but when one balances them against the omission of any picture of the "Venus" type, of the "Bacchus and Ariadne" and "The Garden of Love"—above all, of the "Flora" and of that most divine of female portraits, "La Bella"—one is not satisfied with the choice. Why this last picture at least, one of the most famous in the world and justly so, was not selected in place of the "Laura Dianti" or the "Lavinia," neither of which is comparable to it either in beauty or technical merit, must remain a mystery. We have criticised the choice of pictures because there is really nothing else to criticise. Let us conclude with the statement that the publication maintains its promise of usefulness. The March number will be devoted to Velasquez.

—As our readers are aware, a commission of inquiry was recently appointed in France for the purpose of determining the steps to be taken in the reorganization of *lycée* studies. The results of this now appear in a volume ('La Réforme de l'Enseignement Secondaire,' Paris: Colin) prepared by M. Alexandre Ribot, President of the Commission, in which are included the points investigated, the conclusions arrived at, and some of the most weighty opinions of educational experts on the principal issues. It need hardly be added that the names alone (Berthelot, Lavisse, Poincaré, Bourgeois, etc.) are ample guarantee of the thoroughness with which the task has been carried out. In the direction of change, classical studies are, it seems, to lose their universally obligatory character through the admissible substitution of living languages taught chiefly on a practical basis; pupils aiming at scientific or commercial pursuits may consequently elect their studies somewhat more freely than heretofore, without the loss of academic status. This change is recommended in view of the altering conditions of modern life. M. Ribot, in the course of his exposition, goes the length of maintaining that want of Greek need be no bar to a useful medical or legal career; the victory of "moderns," therefore, awaits only a final sanction from Government. A more interesting question is involved in the examination of the causes of the diminution of pupils in Government institutions, with corresponding increase of the members intrusted to clerical guidance. While taking full account of the effects produced by local depressions in trade and agriculture, as well as by the raising of fees, etc., M. Ribot freely admits the influence of clerical prestige on numbers of parents who, under politically democratic conditions, still cling to social distinctions for the sake of what these imply in the after-life of their children. But it should also be insisted that the ecclesiastical institution is fully as often sought by shirkers of parental responsibility—because of the absorbingly exclusive attention given to their young charges by men whose profession means total detachment from worldly interests.

FITZGERALD'S EXPLORATIONS IN THE ANDES.

The Highest Andes: A Record of the First Ascent of Aconcagua and Tupungato in Argentina, and the Exploration of the Surrounding Valleys. By A. E. Fitzgerald. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

This handsome volume is a record, of which Americans may well be proud, of a series of expeditions in the Andes of Chili and Argentina around the loftiest summit of the whole range of the Cordilleras, the gigantic extinct volcano of Aconcagua. Mr. Fitzgerald, a young American who had already won his spurs in the Alps, and done some brilliant climbing in New Zealand, where he succeeded in making the first ascent of Mount Cook, or Ao Rangi (as it is sometimes called), set himself in 1896 and 1897 to explore and triangulate the region lying around Aconcagua and reach its pinnacle. Previous mountaineering expeditions to South America had, with one exception, devoted themselves to the remarkable group of peaks which lie near Quito, in the republic of Ecuador. Alexander von Humboldt, as far back as A. D. 1802, reached a height of about 19,000 feet on Chimborazo, the loftiest of these peaks; and, after other attempts, Edward Whymper, a well-known English climber, succeeded in reaching the top of Chimborazo, as well as Antisana, Cayambe, and the still active volcano of Cotopaxi. Attempts had also been made on Illimani, one of the very lofty Bolivian group near the city of La Paz, but it was not vanquished till 1898, when Sir Martin Conway, of the British Alpine Club, climbed it, and attained a point very near the top of its still loftier neighbor, Sorata.

The one exception to the neglect of the Chilian and Argentine Andes was the expedition of Dr. Güssfeldt, a daring German mountaineer, who, in 1883, without any regular guides, attacked the great mountain, and, with one of his untrained Chilian companions, forced his way to a point only thirteen hundred feet below the final peak. He had attacked the mountain from the north. Mr. Fitzgerald approached it from the south, and brought against it a much more adequate siege-train. His staff consisted of Matthias Zurbriggen, a first-rate Swiss guide, and of five Swiss and Italian mountain porters, while with him were three English companions, Messrs. Vines, de Trafford, and Gosse. The party carried with them tents and all sorts of scientific apparatus, as well as an immense supply of portable food. Modern invention has done nothing better for the traveller and climber than in the greatly increased facilities with which it has provided him in the way of nutritious provisions that can be readily carried in small space. Forty years ago such things hardly existed.

The party established camps at several altitudes on the slopes of the great mountain, and, by degrees, accustoming themselves to the rarity of the air and the other difficulties that opposed them, were at last able to make a serious attempt on it. These difficulties proved far more serious than any which climbers in the Alps, or even in the Caucasus, have to face. The extreme rarity of the air is only one among them. Intense heat while the sun shines alternates with frightful cold at night, and even in the day time when clouds cover the sun or a strong wind blows. Violent gales, from the northwest especially, are frequent. (Aconcagua is in latitude 32 degrees 39 minutes south, and therefore south of the area of tradewinds.) The gales carry showers of fine snow in the higher altitudes, and, in the valleys, still more trying clouds of volcanic dust, which blind the traveller and find their way into every part of his stores. The torrents that traverse the cañons are violent, and in the afternoon, when swollen by the melting of the glaciers, so full as to be impassable, or at any rate extremely dangerous. There is no shelter to be had from trees, so that a tent, unless it can be pitched in the shade of a rock, is exposed to a cruel sun. There are no trees (and hardly any vegetation) because the slopes and hollows are intensely arid, the severe climate giving plants no chance, while the springs are so often strongly impregnated with mineral substances that many of them are unfit to drink—that is to say, you drink them, or the streams which flow them, with the probability of an attack of diarrhœa or dysentery.

Such are the drawbacks to mountaineering in the southern part of the Cordillera, apparently even more repulsive than those which Mr. Whymper encountered in Ecuador, and Sir Martin Conway in Bolivia. However, Mr. Fitzgerald persevered. His first attempt failed from bad weather, the wind being exceptionally furious. On the second, Mr. Fitzgerald having got within about one thousand feet from the top, was stopped by exhaustion, want of breath, and violent nausea. His guide Zurbriggen, however, went on alone and reached the summit alone. Another attempt a month later had the same result, but on this occasion Mr. Vines, an English member of the party, accompanied by an Italian porter named Lanti, had just strength enough to push on and gain the top, where, in spite of the intense cold, he

remained for eighty minutes, obtaining a magnificent view, which reached more than two hundred miles north and as far south, and extended far out into the Pacific Ocean, the margin of which is about one hundred and fifty miles from the mountain.

Aconcagua, apart from its vast height and from the extreme difficulty of getting near it (for the higher region of the Andes is here quite uninhabited, except for one or two stations along the track across the pass by which men go from Mendoza on the Argentine side of the mountains to Santiago in Chili), does not present very formidable obstacles of "the climbing kind" to the practised mountaineer. It is an extinct volcano—long extinct, for there is now no trace of a crater at the top, the crater walls having no doubt been, perhaps thousands of years ago, broken down and so vanished. Like most volcanoes, like Chimborazo and Cotopaxi, like Fusiyama and Kilimandjaro and Mount St. Elias, like Elburz and Ararat, like Mauna Kea and the Peak of Teneriffe, like Etna and Hekla, its general slope from top to bottom is not very steep, and there is more than one way by which the summit can be reached without the familiar dangers of seracs, crevasses, ice-walls, and knife-edge arêtes. The adventures described here are therefore adventures of a very different kind from those which fill most of our Alpine books, and the record is one not of steeple-jack agility and steadiness of head, but of physical strength, endurance, and indomitable perseverance in facing the physical sufferings of intense cold, shortness of breath, headache, nausea, and the various maladies to which an abnormal diet, coupled with extreme climatic variations, is sure to give rise. These qualities have perhaps never been shown in higher measure than by Mr. Fitzgerald and Mr. Vines.

The former being obliged by illness to abandon the hope of reaching the very highest summits, Mr. Vines started with Zurbriggen and two of the Alpine porters for the great summit of Tupungato (21,550 feet, Aconcagua being 23,080 feet). He made four valiant assaults upon it, suffering rather less from the want of oxygen than he did on Aconcagua, but even more from hurricanes, the chief trouble of this range, where there seems to be rather less snow or rain than in the Alps and the Caucasus, but more violent and frequent storms of wind. Perhaps this is due to the great diversity of atmospheric conditions on the two sides of the range. The fourth attempt was crowned with a well-earned success. Tupungato is described as a prodigious dome, the sides heavily snowed in parts, but the upper convex almost free of snow—a remarkable fact considering its enormous altitude. There was no trace of a crater on the top, nor indeed of any recent volcanic action, but Mr. Vines saw signs of an eruption on another lofty summit some thirty miles away to the southwest. He describes the view as even more striking than that from Aconcagua.

The reader will naturally ask what sort of scenery these stupendous mountains offer to the lover of picturesque beauty or of grandeur. Though Mr. Fitzgerald does not directly treat of the point, we gather pretty clearly from his description of the district round Aconcagua, and from Mr. Vines's account of Tupungato and the valleys leading to it, what the general character of the landscape is. Evidently it has only one merit, that of savage and desolate grandeur. The proportions of the mountains are so vast, although the base from which they rise is lofty (for the terminus of the Transandine railway on the Argentine side at Las Vacas is 8,000 feet above sea level, and the Cumbre pass over which the track runs and under which the railway is to run to Chili is 12,800), that they make an overpowering impression upon the eye, and some of the precipices on the sides of Aconcagua are described as stupendous. But the valleys, being bare and stony, with no forests and scarcely any vegetation, are dreary to the last degree. The glaciers are not of great size or beauty. There is, in fact, no relief to the universal sternness and grimness of the landscape—less, it would seem, than in the Andes of Bolivia as described by Sir Martin Conway, though that region also seems far from picturesque in the proper sense of the word, and less also than in the Andes of Ecuador as described by Mr. Whymper.

The book is well written throughout, without any of those attempts at florid description or at forced fun which have sometimes been censured in the narratives of mountaineering expeditions. There are a good many reproductions of photographic views, many of them very well done, and greatly adding to the value and interest of the book; while the appendix contains an account of the minerals and fossils collected, from the very competent hands of Prof. Bonney of Cambridge (England) and of Mr. G. C. Crick.

Romances of Roguery: An Episode in the History of the Novel. By Frank Wadleigh Chandler. In two parts. Part I. The Picaresque Novel in Spain. New York: Published for the Columbia University Press by the Macmillan Company. 1899.

The favorite reading for entertainment throughout the world when our sober Pilgrims came to America, and for nearly a hundred years before and another hundred after, was tales of trickery and beggary, based upon the doings of certain merry knaves in Spain. These stories began in 1554, with the account of the blind beggar's assistant, Lazarillo de Tormes, and practically ended there with Periquillo de las Gallineras in 1668; but elsewhere they went on indefinitely, and the one of them which became the most famous of all, Gil Blas, the imitation by the Frenchman Le Sage of the Spanish work, did not appear in full till 1735. Suppose Ginés de Pasamonte, the escaped galley slave, who, as Master Peter, with his learned ape, so amusingly tricked Don Quixote, expanded to the dimensions of a volume, and he would represent the Spanish rogue of fiction at his best.

There is a general agreement as to the causes of the production of rogues on a large scale in Spain and the consequent rise of the Picaresque fiction, and no writer can add much to our knowledge of them. The two principal ones were the closing of the military career to large numbers of persons when Spain declined from the brilliant estate she had enjoyed under Charles V., and the paralysis of industry by the stream of treasure that had flowed in from America. We find Prof. Warren, in his history of the early novel, holding that people took to living by their wits not so much because they could get nothing to do, as because they were no longer willing to do it. Brunetière ingeniously suggests, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, that this may have been a crude and perverted evolution, in a world suddenly become commonplace, of the Spanish feeling of punctilio, which made the point of honor to consist in not working for a living, just as the great paladins and soldiers they admired, and the characters in the current Books of Chivalry, had not worked. If this were the case, a somewhat more lenient view would have to be taken of the rascals in question; their misdeeds would have to be ascribed to a perverted tradition.

The Rogue fiction, too, is represented as having been a reaction against the Books of Chivalry and the Prose Pastorals. Tired of those highly artificial productions, readers began to demand something nearer to life as they actually knew it. A surfeit of paragons of every possible and impossible perfection begot the anti-heroes, paragons of indecorum and iniquity. The Rogue story and the Pastoral, however, appear to have flourished side by side, since the first pastoral, Montemayor's 'Diana,' appeared only two years before 'Lazarillo de Tormes,' the first rogue story. Idealized shepherds, groves, and brooks were one form of relief from the excessive warfare; and humor, for which the ostensibly serious Spaniard has ever shown a great proclivity, was another. Even then the true and perfect knights of chivalry continued to prosper greatly, and the whole truth is that the various kinds of fiction, grave and gay, fantastically romantic and probable, flourished in company, as they always will flourish to suit various tastes and degrees of intelligence.

The period of the Spanish rogue is an interesting one under all aspects, and Mr. Chandler has done well to take it for his contribution to the series of Studies in Literature now being issued by Columbia University. There exists considerable writing on the subject already, and the authorities are quite accessible; little needed to be added, as a general statement of the case, to the chapter on this head in Ticknor's standard History of Spanish Literature. But there was wanting a full, separate treatise, and this want Mr. Chandler's monograph admirably supplies. He writes carefully, seriously, with close attention to his extensive mass of material, and, in spite of his alliterative title, appeals to the scholar more than to the general reader for entertainment. The research has been completed for a second part, to consist of a volume on Spanish influence in the other countries of Europe—France, Germany, Holland, and England—which should be equally acceptable.

The romances of Spanish roguery were the origin of modern realistic fiction, but it is probable that few readers are now able to get much more enjoyment out of the originals than that based on their historic interest. The number of metamorphoses and adventures they contain, in a single volume, is startling. One chapter alone will comprise more than enough to fit out a score of lively modern romances. Reeled off at such headlong speed, naturally the material is spread out very thin. It was apparently produced for persons who were unable to keep their attention upon any subject more than a few minutes at a time. The humor is in large part merely a gross sort of horse-play, which could now amuse only the

coarsest tastes. Noting, for example, that Pablo, the Sharper of Segovia, was once at the University of Alcalá, anybody who should turn to the book hoping to get some account of that famous seat of learning, would find only a lot of indignities, too disgusting to mention, put upon the hero, and then pranks in cheating housekeepers, and stealing from marketmen and shopkeepers that have no connection with any particular place or occupation in life. The favorite subject for joking in these books, beyond all others, is the avoidance of hunger, or, not merely hunger, but starvation. The picture of the boarding-school at Segovia, a school for young noblemen, too, is so cruel and woful that Nicholas Nickleby at Dotheboys Hall seems almost rolling in plenty by comparison. Lazarillo de Tormes, again, speaks of the absolute penury and silence in the house of the poor knight his master. "We would often pass two or three days at a time without opening our mouths to put into them a morsel of food or to speak a word." This situation is so grim and bitter that it is hard to see how it could contain anything akin to humor. It is well brought out in the essay of Arvède Barine (Madame Vincent) in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "The Beggars of Spain." "There are cases of starvation among the poor everywhere," she says, "but what is rare indeed is lords and ladies lacking for food in their noble castle halls. And yet more rare is the calm, heroic, stupid patience with which they endured the pangs of starvation till they fell fainting with weakness. It would have been a derogation from their dignity to go forth and make any active exertions for a dinner."

Mr. Chandler's plan of arrangement comprises a display of the causes giving rise to the Spanish rogue and to his literature; society as viewed through the rogue's eyes; the crude early forms of these stories; the emergence in them of personality, or a definite character in the adventurer as distinguished from his mere adventures; imperfect and allied forms; the decadence; and, finally, a very complete bibliography of the earlier editions of the books and of their translations issued in other countries. The author prints, too, a long list of the authorities he has consulted. The chapter on the decadence of the Picaresque novel is perhaps the best, as being the most interestingly written. The considerable section of the book entitled "Society through the Rogue's Eyes" collects from the entire range of the tales passages showing how each of the typical figures and occupations of the time was regarded. We have a mass of testimony in turn concerning the soldier, the lawyer, the doctor, priest, student, barber, innkeeper, and others, and also concerning those alien members of society, the Jew, the gypsy, and the Morisco or (forcibly) converted Moor. The process is a sort of shredding up of the literature. It is useful for reference, in that one can turn here and become well informed on the points named without ever reading the books themselves. But it is possibly a little too encyclopædic and prolonged; we might have been satisfied earlier of some of the positions established, and more evidence is produced than is needed. Herein, if at all, is suggested the vice of the "thesis," of "original work" under university direction, the mere counting-up or statistical method. But it is only very faintly suggested.

Statistics and Economics. By Richmond Mayo-Smith. Macmillan Co. 1899.

This work constitutes the second part of the author's "Science of Statistics," the former volume being entitled 'Statistics and Sociology.' There is no clear line separating economic from social phenomena, but a rough classification may be made according to the predominance of material elements. Figures concerning births, deaths, and marriages, for example, would not fall under the economic rubric, while it would include the statistics of the production, distribution, and exchange of material goods. Such a division is convenient for descriptive purposes, but it is not of scientific value. If legislation is to be guided by statistical returns toward definite social ends, the whole mass of social phenomena must be considered. In other words, the whole psychological nature and activity of man must be kept in view, if we are to determine the merits of any particular measure.

The purpose of this author, however, is predominantly descriptive. He ventures on few predictions, and confines himself, for the most part, to the classification of statistical returns, and to the selection from them of such as appear most representative. These again are compared, showing variations from period to period, and from place to place. As a result, we have a fairly systematic presentation of the principal economic phenomena, such as the consumption of laborers, the area and products of farms and mines, the quantity of capital, the amount of manufactures, the variations of price, the phenomena of wages, interest, profits, and finance in general. Of course, it is impracticable, in a single volume, to do more than take a cursory view over such a vast field as this, which is withal the scene of numberless conflicts between different observers. To take even such a view implies prolonged labor, and the rapidity of the onward march of industry is so great as to make figures obsolete as soon as they are gathered. The statistics of the past year, for instance, would differ so greatly from those of three years ago as to make the world appear almost to have changed its nature. We get the complete report of the census perhaps four or five years after it was taken, and by the time it is available for scientific use it is practically superseded.

Some valuable results might be obtained by the comparison of successive returns, but here the statistician is confronted by an insuperable difficulty. It is the first requirement of science that observations shall be made by observers trained to accuracy, but this is too commonly the last requirement of our public statistical bureaus. Every one knows how the last census of the United States was taken, and how the next one will be taken. In addition to errors caused by the incompetency of observers, there has been intentional coloring for partisan ends. As Mr. D. A. Wells pointed out, the census of 1890 had the effect of vitiating comparisons by introducing a false term in the series. Its mischief is thus not temporary, but perpetual; and it will continue to vitiate the conclusions of statisticians so long as it is used.

It is not the least of Prof. Mayo-Smith's merits that he frequently warns his readers of the fallacious character of the figures which he is compelled to lay before them, and it is worth while to specify a few particulars. In order to state a value for the land in the United States, the Census Bureau took the assessed values, and then increased them to such a figure as was thought proper by the officials. The results, as our author says, were valueless, and so were those presenting the growth of wealth in successive decades, as they were made on different plans. The statistics of land, of agriculture, and of production, he declares, are very imperfect, and it is doubtful if they can be made much more than estimates. Nor does he admit the possibility of measuring, by crude statistics, the efficiency of either capital or labor. In fact, he maintains, the attempt to get statistics of capital ought to be abandoned, for what returns we obtain are not only uncertain and unreliable, but also positively misleading. So of the gross product of industries, the methods employed in our census lead to most grotesque and irreconcilable results. Prof. Mayo-Smith himself states the total private wealth in France as 225 million francs, while he elsewhere gives the value of landed property in that country in 1882 as 91,584 million francs. For ordinary newspaper use, we fear, one statement would answer as well as the other, and the error, due probably to a slip of the pen, may some time furnish a Congressman with material for an impressive argument. We regret to see that Prof. Mayo-Smith does not allude to that monumental, and, we might say, classical, blunder of our Treasury Bureau of Statistics which was detected by Mr. W. C. Ford.

When the attempt is made to deal with statistics of price, we need not say that disagreement prevails. Jevons, it will be remembered, when he came to average his index numbers, employed the geometric instead of the arithmetic mean; but Laspeyres showed that this method would, in a typical case, prove that prices had not changed, whereas in fact they had risen 25 per cent. On the general subject of index-numbers, and the related one of the quantity theory of money, Prof. Mayo-Smith has much sound criticism to offer; but the subject is too technical for us to examine. The statistics concerning the amount of gold used in the arts and in general circulation are notoriously doubtful, and our Mint report states the recoinage of gold at about $15,000,000 in 1896, and $146,000,000 in 1897. As to wages and profits, the variations in statistical returns are of the wildest character. The census report of 1890 gave the average profit of capital invested as nearly 17 per cent.—a calculation pronounced by Prof. Mayo-Smith to be "a delusion and a snare." There is good reason for applying the same terms to reports in Massachusetts which made the return on invested capital 4.83 per cent. We cannot resist the conclusion that the main work of statisticians at present should be critical in character, and that time spent in drawing inferences from facts not scientifically ascertained is worse than wasted. Hence we must regard the chief value of such a work as this as consisting in the warnings and cautions of which it is to a considerable extent made up.

The Drama of Yesterday and To-day. By Clement Scott. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1899.

There is an ancient yarn, told in many varying forms of prose and rhyme, of a cheap-jack who, when he was asked what possible object there could have been in the manufacture of the articles which composed his stock in trade, replied that they were made to sell. Some such motive, encouraged, perhaps, by a certain joy of authorship, affords the most reasonable explanation of Mr. Scott's two bulky volumes. That they will find many readers is altogether probable. The modern daily press has created a voracious public appetite for the frivolous personal gossip in which they abound, but the real lover of the stage who wades through them in search of information, judicious comment, intelligent discrimination, originality of idea, a comprehensive grasp of salient facts, or, indeed, any of the expected fruits of long experience, will meet with nothing but weariness and disappointment.

Mr. Scott, for many years a voluminous contributor to different theatrical publications, is best known through his long association with the London *Daily Telegraph*, a pioneer in the journalism which deliberately substitutes quantity for quality. From first to last, in editorials and police reports alike, it has distanced all competitors in the trick of cheap and florid verbosity. It is not, therefore, difficult to guess where he acquired the fatal habit of that easy writing which, as Sheridan observed, makes such desperately hard reading. Speaking of his own achievements in the way of rapid composition, he naïvely remarks that a critic who cannot write a review in an hour and a half is not worth his salt. Speed, red-hot speed, is apparently, in his view, the main test of excellence. Upon this principle, evidently, he has compiled his book. Rarely, if ever, has there been published, even on theatrical topics, such an extraordinary mass of confused, irrelevant, and trivial matter. He has not only scoured the highways and byways, but has scraped the very gutters of theatrical life for items. And he has pitchforked all his odds and ends together with the most utter contempt for either order or proportion. Criticism, biography, anecdote, topographical reminiscence, time-worn jokes, Bohemian tittle-tattle, tragedy, comedy, the circus, and all sorts of miscellaneous padding are piled up in the vast heap, of which two-thirds is rubbish.

This is not to say that there is no good matter to be extracted from it by conscientious delving. The novice may discover therein copious quotations from old and modern writers of recognized authority upon dramatic affairs; excellent, if venerable, paragraphs about Macready, Cooke, Edmund Kean, Jerrold, and many other celebrities of the early part of the century, of whom Mr. Scott, of course, has no personal or exclusive knowledge; vast quantities of ill-assorted but generally accurate data about theatres, plays, and companies; and not a few hints as to the unfortunate ties existing between the stage and some of the men who write about it. But all these things are a thrice-told tale, or utterly worthless to the theatrical student, who values the stage mainly for its possible relations to art, literature, and life, not for its opportunities of social joviality. Mr. Scott, to be sure, talks much about the past degradation of the English theatre, and discourses fluently of the enormous improvement in its condition following upon the introduction of the Robertsonian comedy and the establishment of what he calls free trade in art. A good deal of what he says is true enough, but terribly trite, and his ideas about causes and effects seem to be of the vaguest. At all events, the importance which he evidently ascribes to the lucubrations of the *Daily Telegraph* will be mildly amusing to all who know the place which that journal occupies in the estimation of cultivated persons.

Of Mr. Scott's original contributions to his book it is difficult to speak tenderly and truthfully. Nothing is much more exasperating than the spectacle of wasted opportunity. He confesses himself an enthusiast, but enthusiasm for an art is scarcely a justification for writing about all the professors of it in terms of indiscriminate flattery and rhapsody. That he has had wide experience of nearly all branches of his subject is beyond question; that his natural powers of judgment have been quickened by it is only a fair presumption, but there is no trace of this in his expressed opinions. After reading his pages, one would think that there were not half-a-dozen indifferent performers among all the many hundreds whom he enumerates. All of them, in one way or another, are paragons of artistic proficiency. Most of them are veritable birds of paradise. It is to be noted, too, that such American performers as have visited London, or are likely to do so, are glorified with similar extravagant laudation. There is, however, one actress in whom, apparently, Mr. Scott sees flaws. The exception is notable and significant; her name is Eleonora Duse.

It is not worth while to pursue the subject further. It would not have been worth while to devote even so much space to it if the book were not a flagrant example of the worst kind of current stage literature. Nothing has contributed more to the present melancholy condition of the theatre than the misapprehension by the vast majority of writers for the daily press, both here and in England, of the true functions of theatrical criticism, in their absurd flattery of actors and actresses, than whom, as a body, no class of so-called artists is more vain or less competent. If the magnification of them as performers is mischievous, the adulation of them as individuals, simply because they are actors, is ignominious. In the serious theatre it is the play, the work of the author, that is entitled to first consideration, and the achievement of the actor is to be measured by the extent to which he has realized the author's design. The creator is greater than the creature. This is the artistic and true view, and the only one by which those who pretend to be friends of the stage and of actors ought to be guided.

The Cambridge Natural History. Volume V. Insects. By David Sharp, M.A., M.B., F.R.S. 1895. Volume VI. Insects. Part II. 1899. The Macmillan Company.

Though the cover to volume v. reads "Peripatus, etc., Sedgwick," nearly 500 pages of the contents are devoted to insects by Sharp. Almost 100 pages are required to describe the structure, habits, development, and general classification, before the subject is taken up by orders. In this part there is little that is original and at the same time important; but, on the other hand, it would be difficult to set out more concisely and clearly the main facts concerning the various topics that are taken up. The treatment is in popular form throughout, but accurate, showing a wide range of information and an intimate knowledge of the recent literature, which was, indeed, to be expected of the learned author.

"The words of Linnæus, *Natura in minimis maxime miranda*, are not a mere rhetorical effort, but the expression of a simple truth." This quotation shows the spirit in which the author approaches his subject; and, in the effort to set out the great wonders of insect life, he has produced a series of chapters that are never dull, and are free from objectionable technicalities while technical terms are freely used. The distinction is an important one, for there is no greater abomination to the layman than the technical treatment of a subject in a work that is presented to the reader for general information; while the same layman does not object to a technical term that is given a meaning intelligible to him the first time it is employed.

In discussing the separate orders, the author gives, first, a very brief definition of the group at large, and then discusses the characteristics of the main divisions, their peculiarities of development, and the life habits of the species in general. Contrary to the usual practice, the external structures which are used by the systematist are not given the leading place; but there is a free discussion of physiological peculiarities, of methods of reproduction, and of the modifications in alimentation, respiration, etc., induced by the circumstances under which the insects live. Seventeen pages are devoted to the "Aptera," which are ordinarily dismissed in a page or two at most, and it is shown here, following the maxim already quoted, that in these inconspicuous creatures there is a field for study and a wealth of peculiarities that render them worthy of much more attention than they have heretofore received. It is, perhaps, unfortunate that the author holds so closely to the term "Aptera," which, while perfectly applicable to the order intended, is equally descriptive of all the suctorial parasitica and of the Mallophaga. The term Thysanura, as employed by American entomologists generally, seems much preferable, though it does not conform to the terminations based on wing structure.

As the scope of the work embraces the insect fauna of the world, there is abundant opportunity to select as illustrations the most remarkable productions of all life zones, and this opportunity has been used to the full; not that there is a gathering of insect freaks, but of peculiarities of development resulting from local conditions. So, much space is devoted to the peculiar Roaches of the tropics, though in temperate countries they are remarkable for nothing except the numbers of certain species. In almost every case the fossil forms of the order under consideration are mentioned, making possible a connected history of its development. For the benefit of the special student of insects, tabular or synoptic statements in smaller type are given when deemed necessary. The order Neuroptera is retained practically with the Linnæan definition, though the author recognizes it as a heterogeneous aggregation, which he divides into eleven families. In

this he is somewhat out of line with the conclusions reached by American students, who have pointed out good characters for their ordinal separation. The truth is, that we have really a number of left-overs—the results of some of nature's early experiments, which were needed at one time, and which have in part lost connection with the stock from which they came. We may either group these remnants in one space devoted to odds and ends, or we can hold them apart in separate categories as they would have been held had the lines which they represent continued to develop. Hymenoptera deservedly receive the greatest consideration, some 260 pages being devoted to a description of their habits and peculiarities; and here the author is at his best in combining the scattered accounts given of individual groups or species into a connected and interesting whole.

It will not do to close this note without a few words concerning the illustrations. Perhaps the briefest statement concerning them would be that they are by far the best that have ever been published in a work of this extent, and that they really illustrate the text. It is all line and stipple work, clear in every detail. In addition, the pictures are also accurate, characteristic, and original, though some have been redrawn from published illustrations. Paper and presswork are all that they should be, but we have noted several typographical errors. The index is sufficient, and by the references to all orders under certain headings a uniform plan, consistently carried through, is indicated. The volumes form a positive addition to the library of the entomologist no less than to that of the lover of nature in general.

Brook Farm: Its Members, Scholars, and Visitors. By Lindsay Swift. Macmillan. 1900.

Much has been written about Brook Farm, if it is fair to judge from the eighty-six titles of Mr. Swift's "Bibliography," many of which include several or more particulars. It is true, however, that some of the titles and sub-titles touch Brook Farm in but the most incidental manner. Really, we have had, heretofore, only one book devoted to it, and that is Mr. T. Codman's unsatisfactory personal memoir. Mr. Swift has done his work so well that the task seems to have waited for his coming, and there can be no good excuse for any one's taking it up again hereafter. The complaint that is likeliest to be made against him is that of imperfect sympathy with the experiment; but, while it is easy to conceive that a more perfect sympathy might have been combined with an equal measure of critical detachment, Mr. Swift's treatment leaves little to desire. If no humorous aspect of the Farm escapes him, he is quick to find and praise whatever was noble and generous in its inspiration, and whatever was excellent or beautiful in the characters of those who took the leading parts.

Mr. Swift's arrangement of his material is a happy one. After a short chapter on the Transcendental Club, we have a longer one on the organization of the Farm, its buildings, grounds, industries, and household work, amusements and customs; a third on the school and its scholars; a fourth on the members; a fifth on the visitors; a sixth on the closing period. In the first chapter Emerson's criticism on the elder Channing, "His cold temperament made him the most unprofitable companion," suggests that he should himself have been another such, while we know that he was not. Channing's probing of Ripley as to "whether it was possible to bring cultivated, thoughtful people together and make a society that deserved the name," was regarded by Emerson as the original germ of Brook Farm. Its "causal and immediate antecedent, with all its wondrous experiences," wrote Ripley in a passage which seems to have eluded Mr. Swift, was a visit to Theodore Parker at West Roxbury in the summer of 1839. It is an amusing coincidence that the original owner of Brook Farm was the same Charles Ellis who brought Theodore Parker to Boston to lecture in the fall of 1841.

The account of the organization, work, play, and buildings of the Farm is sufficiently explicit on its several heads. That of the school and its scholars is mainly devoted to the Curtis brothers, George and Burrill, and Isaac Thomas (later known as Father) Hecker. It is Mr. Swift's habit to follow each of his *dramatis personæ* through their careers subsequent to their Brook Farm experience, and in this way he adds much to the bulk and interest of his book. His last word about Curtis is unfair. It is that he was never "so wedded to a cause that he was willing to suffer for it"; that he would do his reformatory work in "a comfortable manner." His experience in 1884 was not particularly comfortable, and he suffered sooner and later (thanks to his honorable and reformatory disposition) the loss of political honors to which he was not by any means indifferent. The treatment of Father Hecker is particularly kind, passing over silently his assault on Emerson, the most brutal upon record, except, possibly, one of Brownson's in his later writings. But when Mr. Swift comes to Brownson among the visitors at Brook Farm, he does not use him as if he loved him.

It is significant that so many of the Brook Farmers have attained to separate biographies, but Mr. Swift's comments upon Ripley, Hawthorne, W. H. Channing, Parker, Alcott, and so on, are as interesting as if he had had the first squeeze of the grapes. Margaret Fuller's progressive development is set forth in terms with which her most loyal champion, Col. Higginson, can find no fault, and Mr. Sanborn should be almost as well pleased with the treatment of Alcott. Charles A. Dana is handled just a little as if Mr. Swift were fearful of his ghost, but the last arrow in his quiver is one that sticks: Of all the associates of Brook Farm, "he departed furthest from its aspirations." Parker's relations to the Farm were more pecuniary and personal than social and ideal. One of Mr. Swift's few mistakes is that Parker died in 1859. May 10, 1860, is the right date. Mr. Swift's knowledge is in general so thoroughly assimilated that so strange a slip as that on page 130 is unique. Dr. Hedge is there spoken of as one of Ripley's "revered instructors in the Divinity School." Hedge was three years younger than Ripley, and graduated from the Divinity School two years after him. Mr. Swift's appreciation of Ripley is full and warm enough to satisfy the more exigent. For a last word we have reserved our due praise of the delicious humor of Mr. Swift's characterizations. It is abundant, with but here and there a little forcing of the note.

Pen and Pencil Sketches of Shipping and Craft All Round the World. By R. T. Pritchett. London: Edward Arnold.

The author of this little volume, who is marine painter to the Royal Thames Yacht Club, had the good fortune to make a long cruise in the yacht *Wanderer*, and around the world with the Brasseys in the *Sunbeam*. As a consequence, he has seen and sketched the craft of many countries and of many types, both savage and civilized, and in this book are reproduced in a pleasing manner a number of the sketches thus made. It is much to be regretted that the letter-press is not as agreeable to the eye as the representation of the limner's art.

The book begins, as becomes a loyal Englishman, with the royal yacht, the paddle-steamer *Victoria and Albert*, soon to be replaced by a craft of the latest design. The Victorian era is represented by many comparisons, but there are none more significant than those shown by the Queen's yachts at the time of her accession, and the one built for her in the last year but one of the century. When she succeeded to the throne, the royal yacht was a sailing vessel, ship-rigged, launched in 1817, and named the *Royal George*, of 330 tons burthen, and but 103 feet in length. The steam yacht just built, a new *Victoria and Albert*, for the Queen, has twin screws, forced draught, telephones, and electric appliances, with a length of 580 feet and 4,700 tons displacement.

After giving a typical sailing yacht in the *Britannia*, and the *Sunbeam* as a British auxiliary steam yacht, the writer represents the tea-clipper and cotton-brig of days gone by, and follows these with some interesting types of English coasting craft. Not the least successful of these crafts is the steam turbine life-boat, of a length of fifty feet and a method of propulsion which does not allow an entanglement with the wreckage of a stranded vessel. This type might be tried upon our own wintry coast with success when our ordinary methods fail, as they at times do. When our craft come under discussion the yacht *Vigilant* is chosen as a typical racing-craft, and the schooner, river barge, and pinkie as specimens of our coasting craft. The pinkie was not confined to the coast of Maine, as our author suggests, but was the characteristic craft of Block Island up to the sixties and afterwards. Ice-boats are not presented as exclusively American craft, but are also charged to Holland and, strange to say, to St. Moritz. The cat-boat of Newport and Long Island is not mentioned, though even more typical than the pinkie, and such characteristic steam craft as the Herreshoff launches and the whalebacks seem beyond the writer's ken.

The characteristic sailing craft of Bermuda, Norway, Denmark, Holland, and other European countries and waters are sketched and described, including the Venetian fishing-boats, with their richly colored sails; the rich dahabeahs and gyassi, with their graceful sails. It is but a step from the latter craft to the Arab dhows of the Indian Ocean, some of which do the slave-trading afloat that is left in the world. Of the other craft of the Asiatic waters the lateen-rigged Bombay yachts appeal

to the eye, while the sketch of the Ceylon outriggers brings us to a boat not distantly related to the catamaran of Brazil and the outriggers of the South Pacific Ocean. The Burmese rice-boats, however, are in sail, rig, and hull of their own kind—a singularity heightened by the system of reefing forward, viz., by taking out alternate cloths vertically from the bellying sails. Some of the many varieties of Chinese and Japanese junks and sampans are given. We miss, however, the Chinese dragon-boat and the Ningpo lumberer, while the house-boat, which has been so acclimated in China as to become a different species from the house-boats of the Thames and elsewhere, is worthy of mention. The Grand Canal of China alone exhibits a flotilla of water-craft that appeals to the eye, in furnishing both the strange and the picturesque.

However, the world is full of craft, and the choice made by the writer of the opportunities afforded him was, on the whole, excellent and interesting.

L'Allemagne Nouvelle et ses Historiens. Par Antoine Guilland, Professeur d'histoire à l'École Polytechnique Suisse. Paris: Félix Alcan. 1899. Pp. 356.

In this very readable book Prof. Guilland examines the characters and writings of Niebuhr, Ranke, Mommsen, Sybel, and Treitschke in the first line and of a number of other German historians in the second. In sketching the personal traits and estimating the personal qualities of the five writers whom he selects as chief representatives of the German school, the Swiss author is generally good-natured and sympathetic, and his criticism of their work is, in the main, appreciative. Of the political tendencies of the school, however, he disapproves strongly, and the exhibition and castigation of these tendencies is the chief purpose of his book. He regrets the disappearance of the cosmopolitan spirit of the eighteenth century, when Herder spoke of ancient patriotism as something "monstrous," and Lessing declared that love of country was "a heroic weakness which I am very glad not to possess." Between this attitude and the narrow and bitter nationalism of Treitschke there were many gradations; but the downward movement, in the author's opinion, began with Niebuhr and Ranke, "the forerunners," the one of whom traced the expansion of Rome in order to encourage the expansion of Prussia, while the other, in writing world-history, emphasized as its chief lesson the importance of nationalities and of their separate civilizations. Mommsen, too, according to Prof. Guilland's theory, wrote his Roman history with the incidental object of glorifying the ancient Germans and vilifying the Celts and their descendants; while his contemptuous treatment of the Roman republicans and his exaltation of Cæsar paved the way for Bismarck's realism and for Prussian militarism. Sybel further stimulated the narrow national spirit by reducing the French Revolution to the proportions of a raid upon property; and Treitschke, with his hatred of everything not German and his deification of success, is simply the logical product of the process that began with Niebuhr.

This whole movement, in Prof. Guilland's opinion, has been equally prejudicial to German historiography and to the German national character. German historians have become increasingly partial and untrustworthy. They have concealed the defects and exaggerated the merits of all the Prussian heroes from the Great Elector to Bismarck. They have caricatured the great men and falsified the history of other countries. At the same time, in teaching their countrymen to distrust theories and admire action, they have bred a realism that has deprived German science of its authority, and has thus undermined their own position. When the decision of the Berlin Academy, awarding the Verdun historical prize to Sybel, was quashed by William II., because, in his histories, Sybel had exalted Bismarck at the expense of William I., and when William II. himself assigned the prize to an obscure panegyrist of the Great Elector—then, in the author's opinion, Sybel fell into the ditch that he and his fellows had digged.

One at least of Prof. Guilland's main theses is open to question. A historian may be pardoned for magnifying his office; but we do not think that the German historians are so largely responsible as he holds them either for the creation of a German national sentiment, or for the national bumptiousness that has been manifested since the victories of 1866 and 1870. To us it seems that the German national movement, with all its results, good and bad, was not so much excited by the German historians as reflected by them. Again, his indictment of all the school, from Niebuhr to Treitschke, reminds us strongly of an indictment for conspiracy when the prosecution possesses direct evidence against but one or two of the accused, and the case against the others rests upon an assumption of complicity. Treitschke, we think, must be found guilty; but Sybel and Mommsen must be acquitted, and Niebuhr and Ranke should be discharged without a stain upon their scientific character.

The Augustan Ages. By Oliver Elton. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The present contribution to "Periods of European Literature," edited by Prof. Saintsbury, comes from Owens College, Manchester. Its design is to present a comprehensive, yet sufficiently detailed, view of the ground on which, as a critic has said, literary order strove for more than a generation to coerce literary freedom, and ultimately succeeded for a time. In this review the author passes from the France of Louis XIV. to the England of the Restoration and Queen Anne, and thence pushes his investigations into corresponding and contemporary areas of literary activity in Germany, Holland, Scandinavia, and Latin or Southern Europe.

According to Mr. Elton, the influence of æsthetic convictions, or of arbitrary formulas, during this period was fundamentally identical in all these countries, although various local conditions subsequently obscured the retrospect for students too near the field to view it in suitably critical and historical perspective. Critics who deal with comparative literature are nowadays in substantial agreement in the broad conclusion that the spirit of "classical" rationalism, distinctive of the so-called Augustan period, told upon thought chiefly by limiting the scope of artistic interests and effort, while expression was, by logical inference, subjected to a doctrine of steadily narrowing rules. To use M. Lanson's concise summary, "la raison dominatrice et directrice de l'âme humaine" is the key-word of the situation. The merit of Mr. Elton's volume, therefore, lies less in the incontestable soundness of its main propositions than in its endeavor to extend the process of generalization to writers so far asunder as Holberg and Filicaia. It is unfortunate that the small compass of the volume forbade the ampler use of illustrative quotation which its author's wide reading could so easily have supplied. But in this, as in many other works of kindred nature, we look in vain for that wider solution of literary problems which rests on a psychological basis. With the abundance of literary material at one's disposal, there is at the present time no very great difficulty in establishing the causes which determined and directed an artistic current in any one country at a specific moment or during a specific epoch. But the singular fact remains that in other countries, neighboring or distant, a similar wave of thought or feeling passes over the face of things, and, under apparently different conditions, makes for uniformity in the nature, and often the quality, of artistic productions. We have consequently still to seek the philosophical explanation of an almost simultaneous receptivity or mobility in widely distributed human intellect, not to be accounted for by the obvious influences of the imposing energy of genius, the combined efforts of a school, the tyranny of opinion, or the mere fluctuations of taste.

Throughout the course of his inquiry, Mr. Elton misses no opportunity of expressing his comprehension of treatments and methods which found but meagre sympathy with English students of a generation or two ago. "The ignorant dogmatism of Schlegel and some other Germans, who tried to sneer Racine out of court" (p. 100), sufficiently indicates the spirit of the author's criticism, in so far as France is concerned. And Mr. Elton is elsewhere equally undisguised in his dislike of cognate work in his own country, in which he sees nothing more than imitation, rhetoric, artificiality. Leaving the drama out of consideration, we may select the following example of his judgment on what others have taken as the supreme triumph of Dryden's lyrical power in the ringing measures of "Alexander's Feast":

"The deafening clatter of its shallow harmonies, commonest and heaviest in the anapæstic parts, the profusion of antithesis and Latinisms, and its violent trying to be strong, make it the type of rhetorical lyrics, and its popularity measures that tastelessness in the higher matters of poetry which distinguishes the age of good taste" (p. 237).

The above passage may serve to introduce the little we shall say of Mr. Elton's style, of its originality and emphasis. A narrower rhetoric than his finds difficulty in so shaping its canons as to include in their recognition "a mixture of supple adaptiveness and strong will" (p. 50), "the union, in a single regular sheet, of a rigid *cadre* with continual freshness of handling" (p. 296), "shapeless ebullience" (p. 386), or the more elaborately intermingled figures of the following sentence: "His [Malebranche's] vision and his tide of rapt devotion, his reference of all things and thoughts to a central fountain of light and warmth that bathes them, give him his glow and ease, and wing his ample and beautiful rhythms—perhaps the most po-

etical in French before Rousseau, yet never, like those of another prose Platonist, Giordano Bruno, foaming over with a tide of unmastered emotion" (p. 17). The same habit of mind, however, elsewhere suggests to the author the many apposite comparisons that so frequently brighten and color his pages.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeane, Jane H. The Early Married Life of Maria Josepha Lady Stanley. With Extracts from Sir John Stanley's 'Præterita.' Longmans, Green & Co.
Alden, R. M. The Rise of Formal Satire in England under Classical Influence. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania. $1.
Alexander, Mrs. Thro' Fire to Fortune. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Bailey, C. Lucreti de Rerum Natura Libri Sex. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Bailey, Prof. L. H., and Miller, W. Cyclopedia of American Horticulture. Macmillan Co. Vol. I. A-D. $5.
Bardeen, C. W. Authors' Birthdays. Syracuse, N. Y: The Author. $1.
Barrow, Elizabeth N. The Fortune of War. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Baumbach. R. Sommermärchen. Henry Holt & Co. 35c.
Beddard, F. E. A Book of Whales. Putnams.
Benton, Kate A. Geber: A Tale of the Reign of Harun al-Raschid, Khalif of Baghdad. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Bentzon, Th. Femmes d'Amérique. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50c.
Betts, C. L. A Garland of Sonnets. A. Wessels Co. $1.25.
Bonsal, S. The Golden Horseshoe. Macmillan. $1.50.
Boutwell, G. S. The Crisis of the Republic. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.
Brandi, K. Die Renaissance in Florenz und Rom. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Brontë, Charlotte. Shirley. Villette. [Haworth ed.] Harpers. 2 vols. $1.75 each.
Brooks, N. Henry Knox: A Soldier of the Revolution. Putnams. $1.50.
Bruncken, E. North American Forests and Forestry. Putnams.
Budge, E. A. Egyptian Magic. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Budge, E. A. Egyptian Ideas of the Future Life. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Budge, E. A. Easy Lessons in Egyptian Hieroglyphics with Sign List. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Buffum, W. A. The Tears of the Heliades, or Amber as a Gem. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Putnams.
Burnet, J. Platonis Opera. Henry Frowde. 6s.
Burns, J. J. The Story of English Kings according to Shakespeare. Appletons.
Burrage, S., and Bailey, H. T. School Sanitation and Decoration. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.
Caffyn, Mrs. M. The Minx. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Chambers, R. W. The Cambric Mask. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Chapman, R. C. Legalized Wrong. Fleming H. Revell Co. 50c.
Choral Songs by Various Writers and Composers in Honour of Her Majesty Queen Victoria. Macmillan. $8.
Churchill, Lady R. S. The Anglo-Saxon Review. John Lane. Vol. III. $6.
Clark University: Decennial Celebration. Worcester, Mass.: Clark University.
Collection of Forms and Ceremonies for the Use of Liberals. The Truth-Seeker Co. 25c.
Conte, J. Le. Outlines of the Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals. Appletons.
Coulter, J. M. Plant Structures. Appletons.
Crashaw, R. English Poems. Great Fencote, Yorks: The Editor. Vol. I. 3s. 4d.
Croker, Mrs. B. M. Terence. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Curtis, Elizabeth A. One Hundred Quatrains from the Rubaíyát of Omar Khayyám. Gouverneur, N. Y.: Brothers of the Book.
Dahn, F. Sigwalt und Sigridh. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Dryden, J. Poems. Cassells. 10c.
Dudeney, Mrs. H. Folly Corner. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Dugard, M. De l'Education Moderne des Jeunes Filles. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1 fr.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Monopolies and Trusts. Macmillan. $1.25.
Field, E. Diary of Col. Israel Angell, Commanding the Second Rhode Island Continental Regiment during the American Revolution. Providence, R. I.: Preston & Rounds Co. $2.50.
Gray, E. Nature's Miracles: Familiar Talks on Science. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 60c.
Hertz, H. The Principles of Mechanics Presented in a New Form. Macmillan. $3.25.
Hill, F. S. The "Lucky Little Enterprise" and Her Successors in the United States Navy. Boston: The Author.
Hooper, Rev. J. A History of St. Peter's Church of Albany. Albany, N. Y.: Brandon Printing Co.
Hurll, Estelle M. Rembrandt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Ireland, Alleyne. The Anglo-Boer Conflict: Its History and Causes. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
"Ivory." Apes and Peacocks. A. Wessels Co. $1.75.
Jacobus, Rev. M. W. A Problem in New Testament Criticism. Scribners. $1.50.
Jones, H. S. Thucydidis Historiæ. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Kemp, Prof. J. F. The Ore Deposits of the United States and Canada. The Scientific Publishing Company.
Kingsley, G. H. Notes on Sport and Travel. Macmillan. $3.50.
Lamson, Rev. D. F. History of the Town of Manchester, Essex County, Massachusetts. Published by the Town.
Mersereau, W. T. The Waif Tones and Undertones. New York: The Waif Company. 75c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 1, 1900.

The Week.

The Puritan conscience of New England found its first expression in the discussion of the Porto Rico tariff bill on Thursday, when Representative McCall of Massachusetts uttered his indignant protest against it. On Friday the same conscience again found expression in the vigorous speech made against the pending bill by Representative Littlefield of Maine, "because it is un-Republican, un-American, unprecedented, unwarranted, and unconstitutional." All accounts agree that this speech, like McCall's the day before, was one of extraordinary force and impressiveness, the two constituting a fine reassertion of Republicanism as it was in the earlier days—the Republicanism of Abraham Lincoln, John A. Andrew, and William Pitt Fessenden. It was characteristic of the change which has come over the party that Mr. Littlefield should have been followed by a Republican who objected to the statement of conscientious views, on the ground that such an expression of principle would do harm. Mr. Gardiner of Michigan said that "the speech of Mr. Littlefield and those of others in opposition would do mischief in spreading doubt and discontent among Porto Ricans." The President has pointed out to the people "our plain duty"; the Secretary of War, the Governor-General of Porto Rico, the President's Commissioner to the island, and the United States Consul to Porto Rico all agree with this view. But the protected interests have turned the Ways and Means Committee around, and forced the reporting of a bill directly opposed to that which was first favored by the Committee. And now any Congressman who believes that plain duty remains as much plain duty in February as in December, is told that he ought to keep quiet, because if he stands up for principle it will "spread doubt and discontent among Porto Ricans"!

In his speech defending the tariff bill for Porto Rico, Chairman Payne said that his original bill of January 19, granting the island free trade, had been changed "after consultation with Gen. Davis." This leaves certain awkward mysteries, on which we wish that Mr. Payne would throw light. Gen. Davis was before the House committee on insular affairs on January 8. He then advocated free trade for the island, and said that, under it, the people would be "quite able to support themselves." He must later have appeared before Mr. Payne's committee, for that gentleman distinctly said, when introducing his free-trade bill on January 19, that it was "along the lines *suggested by Gen. Davis.*" Chairman Payne added: "I think the bill expresses the general view of those who have followed the hearings. The essential point is that the legislation will aid Porto Rico without in any way injuring American interests." Now, what kind of "consultation" it was which induced Mr. Payne to execute his right-about we discover in the press reports of the later hearings before his committee. Thus, on January 31, Mr. Oxnard spoke against the bill as "a menace to the American beet-sugar industry"; Mr. Hill of Louisiana attacked it as a dangerous "entering wedge" for free sugar from Cuba and the Philippines; and Mr. H. S. Frye opposed it in behalf of the American League of Producers and the tobacco-growers. Mr. Payne would thus appear to have made a slip of the tongue on February 19; and his speech should read, instead of "after consultation with Gen. Davis," "after having the riot act read to us by the protected interests."

The argument of ex-Senator Henderson on the power of Congress to lay special taxes on Porto Rico, which was read at the anti-Imperialistic meeting at Philadelphia, is a singularly concise statement of the law of the Constitution as heretofore interpreted by the Supreme Court. The leading cases on the subject have been now pretty clearly stated, and it is evident that the chief reliance of the Imperialists will be on the principle that our government has sovereign powers beyond and outside of the Constitution. On this point Mr. Henderson makes some observations that may well arrest the attention of those who regard our Constitution as having outlasted its usefulness. Absolute sovereignty, he admits, rests with the people of the United States, but, he adds: "As an American, I am proud to know that the government of the United States is *not* unlimited in its sovereignty. . . . The Constitution was made by the people as a check upon their representatives. . . . A nation which possesses the power to govern itself, without dependence upon any foreign power or state, is properly denominated a sovereign state. The form of its government is wholly immaterial." As Judge Story puts it, the sovereignty of a nation or state may be absolute and uncontrollable in all respects, except the limitations which it chooses to impose upon itself. But the sovereignty of the government organized within the state may be of a very limited nature. And these limitations are designed to protect the rights of the people against the arbitrary acts of their rulers.

The imperialist or despotic theory of government, as stated by Representative Dalzell, ignores these distinctions. He expressed his sorrow that Mr. McCall thought that the American people could not be trusted to do justice unless "tied down by the terms of a written instrument." But it is not the people that are tied down; it is Representative Dalzell and his fellow-Congressmen, and President McKinley and his Commissioners, when they propose to disregard those fundamental rights of mankind which the Constitution was framed to protect. According to Mr. Dalzell, it is idle to inscribe the principles of liberty "on any parchment." The "flag" is enough to preserve these great principles. The guarantees of liberty "do not depend upon the Constitution for their strength and perpetuity." They do not need the support of the Constitution, for "no American Congress would dare to violate them in the face of the American people." It is evident that, according to this theory, all the praises that have been bestowed on constitutional, as opposed to absolute, government have been misplaced. Bills of rights and constitutional checks are superfluous. If they are unnecessary when Congress undertakes to govern colonies, they can certainly be dispensed with when it legislates for our own people. It would seem to follow that the Supreme Court is no more needed than the Constitution which it was created to expound. This doctrine may be convenient for the present purposes of the Republican party; but what would Mr. Dalzell say were the Democrats to get control of the government, and proceed to legislate in accordance with their views of what the people desired?

Prof. E. G. Bourne of Yale University raises in the *Evening Post* the question whether the pending Porto Rican tariff bill is not in conflict with that clause of the Constitution which provides that no tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. The question is an interesting one. It is evident that articles imported into Porto Rico from any of the States of the Union must be articles exported from those States. It is equally evident that if Congress lays a duty on such articles when they enter Porto Rico, it is laying a duty on exports from this country, which it is prohibited from doing. The doctrine of the imperialists, as announced by Representative Dalzell, is that the Constitution does not apply to Territories, and that there is nothing to hinder Congress from laying duties on imports into New Mexico or Alaska from the rest of the country. Any one who adopts this view of the Constitution would probably find no difficulty in maintaining that when Con-

gress lays duties on articles imported by Porto Rico from this country, it is not taxing our exports. The best way out of the difficulty is to let the Porto Ricans govern themselves, and lay such duties as they think best.

We regret to see that President Schurman, in his Chicago speech, has landed on the commercial basis of our doings in the Philippines, and finds a justification for them in the supposed fact that we shall sell more goods by virtue of our occupation of the islands. This is the Beveridge argument over again, to which Senator Hoar responded with the Saviour's reply when he was offered all the kingdoms of the world if he would pay homage to the spirit of gain: "Get thee behind me, Satan." We agree with Senator Hoar that no amount of trade or of pecuniary gain can compensate us for what we have done and are doing in the Philippines, and we deny that any net pecuniary gain will come to us from that quarter. Mr. Schurman's economical argument is entirely destitute of foundation. In order to show how needful it is commercially for us to hold the Philippines, he points to Africa as an illustration of the smallness of our foreign markets, and uses what is substantially an argument for grabbing any territory that we can lay our hands on. It certainly implies that we were remiss in not seizing some portion of Africa before it was all gobbled up.

Now, what are the facts about our trade possibilities in Africa? The chief trading countries of that continent are South Africa, where the war is now raging; Egypt, the Sudan, the Congo Free State, and the British possessions on the Niger. These countries embrace nine-tenths of the foreign trade of Africa, and every one of them is open to us without any discriminating duties or regulations of any kind. The only African countries worth mentioning which in any way justify Mr. Schurman's remarks about our "exclusion," are Algeria and the French Sudan and German East Africa. The French possessions have cost France ten times as much money as she has ever got out of them, and German East Africa has thus far been worthless to Germany. If we were offered as a free gift all the African possessions of both those countries, we could not afford to take them. Except as furnishing places for needy politicians, they are of no use. Even Great Britain has found her African colonies a losing game. Not only have they brought upon her numerous costly wars in Egypt, the Sudan, and Ashantee, but she is now engaged there in the bloodiest conflict she has seen since the war in the Crimea, and, according to the best financial authorities, the cost of it will wipe out all savings she has been enabled to make since 1879. In the latter year she began systematically to pay off the national debt. She set apart a fixed sum annually for this purpose. She will be obliged to borrow all this money afresh, and some of her statesmen say that her greatest troubles will come after she reaches Pretoria. Yet Great Britain is far superior to us in tact and experience in managing distant colonies and getting on with troublesome neighbors.

The Chinese Minister to this country has frequently indulged in his childlike and bland humor at our expense; and in his address in Philadelphia on Washington's birthday, he added a few more delicious touches of it. One was his account of the consular system of other nations, as built up and operative in China, and his dry suggestion that it would be "not unwise" for the United States to endeavor to secure trained consuls, who know something of the language and habits of the people among whom they are stationed. He did not refer to the fact that the bill for consular reform, urged by our leading commercial bodies, had just been ignominiously shelved in Congress; but it must have been in the minds of many of his hearers. The Minister was at his humorous best, however, in advocating an extension of the Monroe Doctrine to China. With grave show of argument, he reasoned it out that China is now much nearer to American possessions than Patagonia was in Monroe's time, and that really it is high time the Chinese empire were included in the American system. An appearance of Oriental innocence, veiling sly sarcasm, could no further go. The "late Col. Monroe" would appear very late indeed in the guise of stern moralist warning the Powers to keep hands off China.

We have the best of reasons for believing that Secretary Hay will soon inform Congress and the country of the details of his successful Chinese negotiation. As we understand the matter, what he has obtained from European Powers is a guarantee of our trade rights in China, not under the form of a treaty, but by means of an exchange of official notes. To have negotiated treaties would have been the work of months or years; the method adopted was both expeditious and effective. Of course, no other sanction than a moral one attaches to the agreement, but no other sanction, after all, binds nations to maintain treaties inviolate, or to respect the rules of international law. It is much to be hoped that Mr. Hay will speedily publish a full account of his highly important achievement. It would show the war-at-any-price men how vastly more renowned are the victories of peace than those of war. It would also, we think, by its heightening of the prestige of the State Department, help on the ratification of the Hay-Pauncefote canal treaty, upon which the Jingoes have been breaking their teeth.

The Senate currency bill has been substantially accepted by the House conferees, and there is every reason to suppose that the report of the conference committee will be adopted. The gold standard is enacted without any equivocation, and the Secretary of the Treasury is *required* to keep all kinds of money issued by the United States at a parity—this being a more explicit declaration than that of the Sherman act, which merely declares it to be the policy of the United States to do so. For this purpose the Secretary is authorized to sell 3 per cent. bonds to whatever amount may be necessary to maintain a gold reserve of $150,000,000. A division of issue and a division of redemption are established in the Treasury Department to have the sole charge of the currency function of the Government. No bonds can be issued to meet current expenses of the Government without special authority of Congress. These provisions are somewhat less satisfactory than those of the original House bill, but they will accomplish the object, which is to put the question of the monetary standard out of the field of controversy. This is so great an achievement that it is not much dimmed by the refunding scheme which the House conferees accepted after some resistance. The Republican party has in this respect reversed its own financial past, and endorsed the policy of a permanent national debt. This is one of the issues it will have to meet in the next campaign. It is true that the Secretary is only authorized, not required, to issue the new thirty-year bonds. He may elect not to do so, but in that event it will be a matter for wonder why the party should be willing to incur the odium of the permanent debt policy without availing of it.

The Republican and Independent newspapers which supported McKinley on the financial issue in 1896 are coming to perceive that this issue is settled by the assured enactment of the gold-standard law at an early day. Some of the party organs can hardly disguise their chagrin at the loss of an issue which once served them so well, and which until recently they had counted upon using as effectively again. Occasionally one takes the position of the Hartford *Courant*, that it is "real mean" for people to act upon the understanding, which has been maintained by every Republican in Congress, that the new law makes the gold standard permanent, whoever may be the next President; as the *Courant* puts it, it is "abominable politics" for Democratic newspapers to

say that it removes the country from danger from Bryan's heresies on the money question. But most editors do not waste any time in vain regrets over the abominable politics of the Democrats in this case, because it is a part of their creed that Democratic politics are always abominable. They are considering how the Republicans can carry the country after they have made the people believe that the money question is settled.

The central West was carried for McKinley on the financial issue only after a very hard struggle, four years ago. Republican and Democratic journals in that section do not conceal their feeing that the policy pursued by the McKinley-Hanna syndicate, of running the government in the interests of the protected classes, the subsidy schemers, and the Trusts which are protected by the tariff, is playing into the hands of the Democrats. The Indianapolis *News*, for example, says that "the thing to do is to kill the subsidy bill," alleging as one reason that "the Republicans are not so strong in the confidence of the country that they can afford to take chances." The *News* also confesses that "the Democrats are going to have the advantage of the Republicans in the approaching campaign on the Trust question, unless the Republicans do something at this session of Congress." It holds that "one thing at least they could do—unless the power of combined wealth really has the upper hand in the party: they could remove the tariff from every product which in this country is now controlled by a Trust." But, of course, the *News* knows perfectly well that the power of combined wealth which refuses the appeal for humane treatment from Porto Rico, will never allow the tariff to be overhauled in order to diminish the profits of the Trusts.

The decision of the Senate to take up the Quay case, by a vote which is regarded as assuring him the seat that he claims upon the appointment of the Governor of Pennsylvania, is no surprise to those who understand the potency of personal considerations in club life. For it is in their capacity as members of the finest club in the United States that a majority of men who do not consider Quay's claim a valid one, are going to pronounce it good enough to justify his return to fellowship. During his long term of service, the Pennsylvania boss has made many firm friends on both sides of the chamber, and has put many Senators under heavy obligations. He simply insists now that they shall show their friendship and acknowledge their obligations. Enough of them are apparently ready to comply, so that he may regard the matter as settled. That the Senate, in taking such action, will turn its back upon an interpretation of the Constitution which it affirmed less than two years ago, is a consideration which counts for nothing with the majority of the eighty-odd members of the club.

It is a great triumph for civilization that the leaders of the opposing parties in Kentucky should have agreed to submit all the questions at issue to the courts, and then abide by their decision. There is to be a speedy trial in the Jefferson Circuit Court of cases which involve the title to the Governorship; the matter will then be taken to the State Court of Appeals; either party will then be at liberty to carry the questions involved up to the Supreme Court of the United States, with a prayer from all concerned for the earliest possible hearing and determination; and, finally, "they will submit to and abide by all the orders and judgments of the courts made in said suits." In other words, the whole controversy is to be settled in an orderly fashion by the tribunals constituted to decide all such questions, and not by the resort to force which was so long threatened and so narrowly averted.

The sudden termination of the movement in the Bar Association to investigate the action of Justice Fitzgerald in appointing a receiver for the Brooklyn Wharf and Warehouse Company will, no doubt, cause exultation in Tammany Hall. It will probably be described as a vindication of the course of that Justice, although, when properly understood, it is nothing of the kind. The resolution presented proposed that an investigation should be made by the Assembly of the State. To the question asked by Mr. Boardman, if there was a man present who believed that any substantial result would be gained by taking the charges to Albany, there could be but one answer. The public understands the character of the Assembly and the character of the bosses who control it, and it has had recent experience of the character of investigations carried on under such auspices. If an impeachable offence had been committed, it would by no means follow that an impeachment could have been secured; and, in fact, the offence committed was rather morally than legally impeachable. To appeal to the Legislature under such circumstances would be useless. What is needed is an investigation such as the Bar Association could make, if it had the legal power to summon witnesses and compel them to give evidence—but that, unfortunately, it has not. It by no means follows, however, from the defeat of the proposed resolution that no good has resulted from the agitation. The fact that some 500 of the better class of lawyers attended the meeting, and the vigor of the opinions expressed by a number of those whose standing is of the highest, show how strong is the feeling that has been aroused. They indicate that whenever the opportunity comes to revolt against the present system of selecting judges, men will be found ready and eager to take part in the struggle.

Assemblyman Stewart has introduced a bill at Albany to prevent the publication of scandalous matter found on the person, or in the possession, of suicides, or persons dangerously wounded. It provides that all papers so found shall be sealed up and delivered to the county authorities, and that they shall not be published except by the order of a competent court. The need of such a law has been felt many times in this city. Persons who take their own lives are presumably insane. They have strange ideas of the conduct of their most intimate friends and relatives. They conceive that plots have been formed against them. They put these disordered fancies into writing, and, when they commit suicide, the papers found upon them are published in the yellow journals without the smallest regard to the feelings of the living. The charges made, or the reproaches uttered, by the dead cannot be refuted. The dead person cannot be cross-examined, and most frequently the persons injured by such communications are reluctant to make any defence of themselves. In fact, their only legal remedy would be by an action for libel against the offending newspaper. Mr. Stewart's bill ought to pass, and it ought to be supported by appropriate penalties for any unauthorized publication of such posthumous matter.

Gen. Roberts's success could not well be more complete. Since his movement began, he has swept on with swift energy and without a single check. Not only did he break through the Boer defences and raise the siege of Kimberley; he so massed superior forces that Gen. Cronje was forced to hurried flight eastward, and then, wonder of wonders, the British commander showed that he had an army more mobile than the fabulously mobile Boers; ran them down, surrounded them, beat off the columns coming to their relief, and finally compelled an unconditional surrender. Considering the magnificent distances, the nature of the country operated in, and the other difficulties, it is a feat of arms for which it would be hard to find a parallel in brilliant conception and overwhelming success. To the Boers the blow must be staggering. The best they can hope for now, if they persist in fighting, is the prolonged agony of an essentially guerilla defence, sure to be broken down in the end by the attrition of an enemy vastly stronger in men and resources. It is on all accounts to be hoped that an honorable peace may be arranged without further waste of life; but we fear the contrary.

THE PRESIDENT AND PORTO RICO.

The framers of the Federal Constitution took pains to give the President of the United States great power of initiative regarding legislation by Congress, and even greater power of thwarting attempted action by the legislative department which he should consider unwise. Much as they had suffered from the tyranny of a king, they realized that the National Executive must possess a large measure of authority if the new republic were to succeed. As Hamilton said in the 'Federalist': "A feeble Executive implies a feeble execution of the government. A feeble execution is but another phrase for a bad execution." In further discusion of the subject, Hamilton laid stress upon the dangers of "an unbounded complaisance in the Executive to the humors of the Legislature," saying on this point: "The latter may sometimes stand in opposition to the people, and at other times the people may be entirely neutral. In either supposition, it is certainly desirable that the Executive should be in a situation to dare to act his own opinion with vigor and decision."

For these reasons it was made a duty of the President that "he shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient"; and he was vested with the power of vetoing any bill passed by Congress, in which case it could not become a law except by passage a second time with a two-thirds vote in each branch. Of the first prerogative, Story says:

> "The duty of giving information by the President to Congress of the state of the Union, and of recommending measures, would seem almost too clear to require any express provision. But it is not without its use. It fixes the responsibility on the President; and, on the other hand, it disables Congress from taking any objection, that he is impertinently interfering with their appropriate duties. His knowledge of public affairs may be important to them; and the people ought consequently to have a right to demand it. *His recommendation of measures may give Congress the benefit of his large experience; and, at all events, may compel them to a just discharge of their legislative powers.*"

In accordance with this injunction of the Constitution, President McKinley, on the 4th of December last, gave Congress information respecting the condition of Porto Rico, and recommended the measure of legislation for that island which he judged necessary and expedient. His conception of national duty in the matter was clear, and his language was explicit. He concluded his discussion of the subject with these positive words:

> "The markets of the United States should be opened up to her products. Our plain duty is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets."

In due course of time the Republican majority of the House Committee on Ways and Means reported a bill carrying out the President's conception of national duty by giving Porto Rico free trade. Within a month, however, some influence compelled all of the Republicans on this committee except Mr. McCall of Massachusetts to eat their own words, and report a substitute bill imposing a tariff. Hardly had this change of base at the capitol been executed before it was reported that the President had also altered his position. Next day it was announced that he had not changed; then that he had; then that he "adhered to his views," but would sign a bill directly opposed to those views. Throughout the debate last week in the House, he was quoted first one way, and then the other. Supporters of the new tariff scheme declared that he was for taxing the people of Porto Rico; advocates of the original free-trade policy insisted that he talked as though he believed that plain duty remained the same in February as it had been in December.

So humiliating a spectacle as this has never before been presented by any President. It disgusts alike the members of his own party in Congress, and the people throughout the country. The nation has been educated to expect and demand from its Executive a clear statement of national duty, and the exercise of his great influence to secure the discharge of that duty by Congress. It admires and respects the President who thus exercises his high prerogative—who does what Grover Cleveland did in 1893, when he convened Congress in special session to rescue the national finances from threatened ruin by demanding the repeal of the Sherman silver-purchase act, and then stood firm as a rock when intriguers of the Gorman brand in his own party cooked up a scheme to evade duty by a weak compromise, letting it be known that he would never give his consent to anything short of the absolute repeal which the exigency demanded.

There was one course open to Mr. McKinley by which he might have saved his self-respect. It was pointed out, the other day, when Mr. Bromwell, a Republican Congressman from Ohio, who favors the policy advocated by Mr. McKinley in December, said in the House: "If the President of the United States, since his message to Congress in December, has obtained information which shows that conditions are different to-day from what they were then, it is a solemn duty that he owes to this house and the other house of Congress that he should communicate that additional information to us, that we should not be dependent upon conversations and interviews of individual members of this house with the Chief Executive for the information upon which we, as a legislative body, are to act." But Mr. McKinley has not done this. He has simply made it plain that he has no will of his own; that he is ready to declare his conviction of duty to Congress, and then sign a bill utterly opposed to the course which he advised; in short, that he is the nerveless creature of the syndicate which is now running the government for its own selfish ends, and that the people no longer have that great safeguard of our institutions—an Executive who knows his duty, and who is not afraid to do it.

THE ISSUE OF IMPERIALISM.

The address delivered by Carl Schurz on Thursday evening in Philadelphia, at the conference of the Anti-Imperialist Organization, was, of course, characterized by that clearness and vigor of expression which always distinguishes one of his speeches. It shows the remarkable comprehension of the principles upon which this republic was founded, and of real "Americanism" as it was understood from Washington's day to Lincoln's, which has repeatedly enabled this citizen of foreign birth to illuminate the national situation and to expound the duty of the country.

Beginning with some references to Washington which were appropriate to the anniversary, Mr. Schurz went on to apply the principles of action which governed his conduct to the problems that have grown out of the war with Spain. He first pricked the bubble of that familiar humbug that "Providence" is responsible for our having the Philippines on our hands, and showed that the conquest of those islands "was deliberately planned with a cool calculation of profit." He proceeded to set forth the way in which the policy thus initiated has been carried out. He demonstrated the fact that the Filipinos were at first deceived as to the attitude of our Government toward them, and were led to believe that we meant to help them to freedom and independence, precisely as we had helped the Cubans to reach the same goal. The evidence which he collated is convincing, and fully justifies the conclusion that to all intents and purposes the Filipinos were our allies; that they were entitled at our hands to every consideration due from one ally to the other; that they expected their independence because they believed the American people to be an honest people, and the American government to be an honest government; and that we permitted them to entertain that belief while acting as our allies against the common enemy.

Mr. Schurz repelled with righteous indignation the Imperialist claim that the Filipino war is due to those in this country who have from the first insisted that we should live up to our pledges, instead of to those who have attempted that "annexation by force" which President McKinley himself declared, in a message to Congress two years ago, "could not be thought of, because, according to our code of morals, it would be criminal ag-

gression." It was for the maintenance of this, the old American code of morals, that Mr. Schurz pleaded in the closing portions of his address. He insisted that "the case is *not* finally settled, and that it will not be finally settled until it be settled aright."

Bishop Potter early pointed out that the vital question in this whole controversy was not what we should do with the Philippines, but what they would do with us. Mr. Schurz set forth some of the things which they are doing to us —how we already "hear the scoffing levity with which the Declaration of Independence and the high ideals of liberty and human rights which so long have been sacred to our people are made sport of; how the teachings of Washington and Lincoln are derided as antiquated nursery rhymes, and how the Constitution, when it stands in the way of grasping schemes, is lightly brushed aside with the flippant word, that 'constitutions are made for men and not men for constitutions.'" He laid stress, but none too much, upon the great principles which many good people are losing sight of, that there are things—among them the arbitrary ruling of foreign populations as subjects—which may be done by monarchical or aristocratic governments without making them less strong as monarchies or aristocracies, but which cannot be done by a democracy based upon universal suffrage without fatally demoralizing it as a democracy; and that what a democracy needs most, to insure its stability, is that element of conservative poise in itself which can be furnished only by popular faith in the principles underlying democratic institutions, by popular reverence for high ideals and traditions, and by popular respect for constitutional forms and restraints.

Mr. Schurz concluded by warning the Imperialists not to delude themselves by thinking that if those who oppose them are beaten now, they will surrender. He declared that the appeal for the righting of this great wrong will be taken to the people; that it will be kept there, and, if need be, renewed year in and year out; and that "it will give you no rest, as the slavery question gave us no rest, until finally settled aright." The Anti-Imperialists will wage this fight, because the upholders of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution, the followers of Washington's and Lincoln's teachings, although they may be called "traitors" or "bores," will not give up the belief that the American people are an honest people; and, like the anti-slavery men, they will not cease to appeal to the popular conscience.

It was a happy coincidence that, on the very day when this appeal for justice was made by Carl Schurz at a meeting of Anti-Imperialists in Philadelphia, the same appeal was heard on the floor of Congress from a Republican member who represents that district of New England which is peculiarly distinguished for independence of conviction and adherence to conscience. The whole issue of Imperialism is involved in the pending controversy in the House over the imposition of a tariff upon the starving people of Porto Rico. Mr. McCall of the Cambridge (Mass.) district made an earnest protest against our adoption of the very policy which England so long pursued toward Ireland, with such results that "generations will fail to obliterate the bitter memories of the oppression and wrong which rankle in the hearts of the Irish people"; and asked his party colleagues, "Do you want to make Porto Rico our Ireland?" He "branded with all his energy this hateful notion, bred somewhere in the heathenish recesses of Asia, that one man may exercise absolute dominion over another man or one nation over another nation." He closed with this fine expression of confidence that the right will at last prevail:

> "A half million men gave up their lives that their country might stand clothed in the resplendent robes of constitutional liberty, and that we might have a government of laws and not of men for every man beneath the shining folds of the flag. All the sweet voices of our history plead with us for that great cause to-day, and I do not believe, sir, that this nation will tolerate any abandonment of that principle which has made her morally, as she is physically, without a peer among the nations."

REFORM IN PHILADELPHIA.

The result of the election that took place last week in Philadelphia is extremely encouraging. The difficulties to be overcome by the Municipal League, a body of independent voters, were very great. The machinery of the Democratic party in that city has fallen under the control of the Republican politicians, and the law providing for minority representation has thus become a means of making the power of the majority more absolute. Under this law, the Republicans named ten candidates for city judges, and the Democrats six. The leaders of both parties being in collusion, under ordinary circumstances the sixteen candidates whom they nominated would be sure of election. Relying on the advantage given them by the law, these leaders determined to have magistrates of their own stripe. The Republicans refused to renominate a judge who had ventured to hold Mr. Quay for trial on the charges growing out of the People's Bank failure, although his merits were unquestioned, and substituted another candidate for one who had shown signs of independence. The Democrats, adopting the same course, refused a renomination to two judges, one of whom had been active in seeking to bring to trial some election officers who had been accused of allowing false voting.

In addition to the advantages which the law and the collusion of their leaders gave to the politicians, they had vast resources in the shape of fraudulent votes. The actual falsification of elections is not now a serious evil in New York. No doubt a certain number of votes are cast by those having no right, but the understanding between the leaders of the opposing parties does not often go to the extent of arranging for fraudulent voting. In Philadelphia, however, the evidence is conclusive that outrages of this character have been systematically perpetrated. No one remembers an honest election, and in some wards the number of illegal votes has probably been as great as that of the legal ones. In one division of the Seventh Ward, the number of legal voters is computed at about 100; but the election officers returned 252 votes as cast at the election last year. At the election last week, last year's election officers being now in jail, the total vote was 99. In another division, which last week gave the "Quay" candidate 216, the Republican vote last year was 332.

We lately commented on the purchase of poll-tax receipts by the party managers, their practice being to have these receipts used as evidence of the qualification of the bearer to vote. Out of some 30,000 receipts of this character turned in by the Republican city committee, all but 2,557 were finally rejected by the Receiver of Taxes as invalid. So vigorous was the attack of the Municipal League on this abuse, although its representatives were not permitted to inspect the lists, that the Republican committee withdrew its applications for receipts in several wards. In the month of January, 1900, while the Municipal League was bestirring itself, about 7,500 of these poll-tax receipts were given out. In January of the previous year 21,000, and in November nearly 35,000 were issued. In spite of this reduction, it is computed that in one of the corrupt wards there are still outstanding several hundred more of these receipts than there are voters in the ward. Fortunately, sufficient evidence was procured before the late election to justify the arrest of one of the officers who had certified to the genuineness of the signatures to one of these fabricated lists, which probably led to their abandonment by the Republican politicians.

In spite of all these obstacles, and of the still more formidable one arising from the apathy or hopelessness of the well-to-do citizens of Philadelphia, the Municipal League won a notable victory. It elected four magistrates, three of whom had been refused renomination by the politicians. The Republicans, of course, elected their candidates, but by reduced majorities, the highest vote obtained by any of the candidates being about 100,000. The highest Independent vote was over 45,000, and the straight Municipal League candidates averaged 26,500; while the Democratic vote was

about 32,000. An analysis of the vote cast shows that the Republican managers must have contributed about 15,000 votes to the Democrats, leaving the regular party vote only about 20,000. In fact, the Municipal League appears to have displaced the Democrats as the minority party in Philadelphia, and it will thus become entitled to a portion of the offices under the law giving minority parties representation.

This result shows, incidentally, that even so poor a measure as that for the representation of minorities in Pennsylvania may become available for independent voters, if they are sufficiently in earnest; at least, when the managers of the regular parties are so unprincipled as they have shown themselves in Philadelphia. It shows also what can be accomplished by a few earnest reformers who have sufficient virtue to disregard the sneers and ridicule of "practical" men, and who will make no bargains with politicians known to be corrupt. Perhaps in no city in the country is the work of reform so difficult as in Philadelphia. The control of the Republican party has been so absolute, both in the city and in the State, that the Democratic party has almost ceased to oppose it. In New York the contests between the parties are, to a considerable extent at least, genuine struggles, in which each party may make some appeal to Independent voters. But in Philadelphia the Independent voters have had to form their own organization and fight their own battles, and the fact that they have succeeded so well will encourage the friends of good government everywhere.

EQUALIZING THE STATE TAXES.

A bill has been introduced in the New York Legislature by Senator Elsberg which offers a very happy solution of the problems arising from the present system of collecting State taxes. This system is theoretically correct, and complies with the maxim that taxes should be collected with the least possible expense to the taxpayer. To put it briefly, the State Tax Commissioners now ascertain the assessed value of property in the several counties of the State, and then apportion the State tax accordingly. The local authorities then simply add their proportions of the State tax to their levies, and pay over these percentages, when collected, to the State treasury. Nothing could apparently be more equitable; and nothing could be in practice more unjust.

The mischief arises from the fact that the system makes it for the interest of every county or local taxing authority to make its assessment as low as possible. The lower its assessment, the less the proportion of taxes to be paid to the State, and the temptation to which assessors have been subjected has been irresistible. In spite of the fact that they are required by law, under the penalties of perjury, to assess all property at its fair market value, they have persistently undervalued real property to an outrageous degree. In many of the rural counties, real estate has been systematically assessed at less than one-half and sometimes at less than one-fourth of its value. Until recently there was a kind of unwritten law that real estate in New York city should be assessed at not more than two-thirds of its value, and similar customs prevailed in other cities. Hence it became necessary for the State Tax Commissioners to revise these local assessments in order to correct the grossest of the inequalities—a process in which the city of New York regularly had its assessments raised, although it is quite probable that they were more nearly just than those of most of the communities whose burdens were lightened. The task, although necessary, was invidious, and its performance has been invariably attended with complaints from every quarter.

While this abuse has attracted public attention, there is another, and more serious one, which has passed unnoticed. It arises from the taxation of bonds and mortgages. Whatever opinions may be held concerning the propriety of taxing mortgages, no one contends that they should be taxed at a higher rate than real property. But the practice of assessing real estate at less than its value unavoidably led to the over-taxation of mortgages. No assessor was willing to declare under oath that a good bond for the payment of $1,000, secured by a mortgage on real estate, was actually worth only $500, or $666. Hence whatever bonds the assessors discovered in the possession of taxpayers were listed at their face value; and as the rate of taxation is the same for both real and personal property, such mortgages were taxed at a rate materially higher than that imposed on real estate. As the mortgages discovered were generally owned by women and children and lunatics, while other owners felt justified in evading such unfair taxation, the burden imposed on helpless people has been even more onerous and inequitable than it would in any event be while real property is undervalued.

The remedy proposed by the bill to which we have referred is very simple, and whatever opposition the other tax bills before the Legislature may encounter, this one deserves general support. What the bill proposes is to make the Commissioner of the Land Office and the Commissioner of Taxes a State Board of Apportionment. This Board is to determine the proportion of State taxes in each county, "in the ratio of the gross amount of taxes for all purposes (except State and school purposes) laid in each county in proportion to all the counties, on assessed values of property, during the tax year immediately preceding the imposition of such State taxes." In other words, the State becomes altogether indifferent to the vagaries of local assessors. They may make out their counties to be rolling in wealth, or on the verge of starvation, as they please; all that the State requires of them is a statement of the amount of their tax levy, and on that amount the State collects its percentage. It goes without saying that expenditure is practically the best test of income, and the presumption is irresistible that a community which taxes itself heavily is able to bear a corresponding part of the expenses of the State government. In fact, this system is practically an income tax on the counties, with none of the possibilities of evasion which make income taxes ordinarily objectionable. No doubt communities raising large sums by taxation would complain, but it can hardly be denied that such communities are presumptively wealthy, and better able to contribute to the revenues of the State than those where the taxes are small. But it is quite possible that such communities might find that their burdens were no heavier than before, while the perennial quarrels between State and local officials concerning assessments would be terminated.

The West End Association of New York city, which advocates this bill on the ground above set forth, contends also that it will not only encourage, but almost force, economy in every tax district of the State. "If a county is economical it pays less State tax, and if it is extravagant it pays more. If the State is extravagant every county will pay more, and every taxpayer will know just how much more." Possibly this view is too hopeful as to fostering the disposition to economize in local governments, but it is certainly highly desirable that the attention of taxpayers should be constantly called to the great increase in the expense of the State government. In no way can this be more effectually accomplished than by having the cost of this government appear on every tax bill, and the measure under discussion should contain a provision to that effect. The measure also provides that every county and city shall have power to prescribe the class or classes of property upon which taxes shall be imposed. This is a desirable application of the principle of local option in taxation, and if it can be adopted it will be a great gain. But it has nothing to do with the main feature of the bill, and should be sacrificed if necessary to secure that most desirable reform.

ÉMILE FAGUET.

NEW YORK, February 21, 1900.

The French Academy, having elected a politician, a vaudevillist, and several men of the world, has at last bethought itself to

take in a man of letters. For several days, in fact, M. Émile Faguet, already a brilliant critic and eminent professor, has found himself an Immortal to boot, thanks to the election which assigns him, beneath the cupola of the Palais Mazarin, the place held by Victor Cherbuliez.

Those who have seen, on the Boulevard St. Michel, the singular outlines of this careless and jolly bachelor, as he daily comes along, with swinging gait and elastic step, balancing his cane and whistling a tune, to seat himself on the terrace of the Café Vachette, will no doubt be surprised at the Academy's reception into its "salon" of a man so little decorative, with such a bad figure, and who so often forgets to brush his hat. Those, however, who have followed the literary movement of the past twenty years will be still more surprised that the Academy waited so long to choose a writer who is both the most intelligent and the most popular representative of contemporary French criticism.

Americans who judge of the place that certain critics occupy in French public opinion by the importance of the rôle which chance has made them play in the United States, are in danger of committing a slight error of perspective. M. Brunetière (to cite but a single name) does not absolutely exercise all the influence which many ascribe to him. Outside of the Catholic seminaries and universities and the Vatican, where he has just been lecturing so brilliantly before the cardinals, M. Brunetière has more readers than disciples. His imperious and dogmatic eloquence impresses more than it persuades the public, and his talent inspires greater admiration than his judgment does confidence. Many read or listen to him only to contradict; and what authority he possesses he has arrogated to himself rather than gained by way of recognition.

M. Faguet, on the contrary, owes his to the spontaneous suffrages of students and the literati who, in reading his books, discovered that this writer was a master, erudite, delicate, witty, full of original and, what is better worth, of just ideas. He had struck, in speaking of classic writers like Corneille and Racine, so fresh a note and so personal a tone that the attention of students was instantly arrested by this critic, so little resembling bygone professors such as Villemain and Nisard, and still less certain professors of the present day. Thus when, about 1890, the university youth, in an inexplicable fit of disorder, amused themselves by *conspuer* the masters who displeased them, amid the various cries with which they filled the amphitheatre of the Sorbonne that of "Vive Faguet!" resounded not infrequently. M. Faguet was then professor of rhetoric in a Paris lycée. The pressure of public opinion as well as the choice of the administration carried him with a rush to the University, where he was received with enthusiasm, and where, ever since, his popularity has been on the increase.

Hitherto his career had been that of the majority of French professors. Born in 1847, at La Roche-sur-Yon in La Vendée, where his father, too, had been a professor, he attended the École Normale Supérieure, where he earned a fellowship. He then taught in different provincial lycées, passing as chance promoted him from La Rochelle to Poitiers, Moulins, Clermont-Ferrand, Bordeaux, and finally Paris, which in France is the aim and goal of almost all functionary ambition. He seems to have been in no hurry to enter letters. When his first work, on 'French Tragedy in the Sixteenth Century,' appeared he was thirty-five years of age—two more than M. Brunetière, six more than M. Lemaître. But it was not this erudite book (his Doctor's thesis, too) which made him known, nor even his earliest articles as journalist and dramatic critic, produced in the intervals of his teaching, after the manner of so many French professors whom journalism has attracted and absorbed, like About, Prévost-Paradol, Sarcey, for example. His book on 'The Great Masters of the Seventeenth Century,' which came out in 1885, had, on the contrary, a serious success in University circles, and revealed to the expert the birth of a new critic. But the "great public" knew him not. To arouse the distraught and lazy attention of the great public, in France as elsewhere, something more than a good book is needful—a book which, in one way or another, excites the passions, shocks the prevailing sentiment, and provokes a bit of scandal. To obtain this result, a critic has but one means—to attack somebody violently. M. Brunetière owed his first notoriety to his vigorous campaign against naturalism. M. Lemaître was a celebrity the morning after he had written a ferocious article against the favorite novel-writer of the unlettered bourgeois, George Ohnet. In French slang this is called a slashing (*éreintement*). M. Faguet chose for his *éreintement* a man who, although he died a century ago, is more alive than many contemporaries, in virtue of the animosities he excites and the admiration he has retained—Voltaire.

Voltairianism has been one of the religions of our century. The university generation of 1848, that of Edmond About and Sarcey, the freethinking bourgeoisie, the provincial anti-clericals, fanatical and rather narrow-minded men, of whom Flaubert immortalized the type in M. Homais, have never ceased to swear by Voltaire; and it was they whom M. Faguet was to wound in touching him. Now he handled Voltaire familiarly and even brutally, scandalizing them as if by sacrilege. The book, 'The Eighteenth Century,' which contained his attack, and which appeared in 1890, tended, for the rest, in a general way, to depreciate the eighteenth century in favor of the seventeenth. He defined it as a childish century (*siècle enfant*), and taxed it with having the "impulsiveness, indiscreet ardor, curiosity, malice, intemperance, verbiage, giddiness," etc., of that age. As for Voltaire, who formed the subject of one of his principal chapters, he showed him unveiled, with his defects, his pettinesses, his meanness, while not denying a single one of his merits. "He was," said M. Faguet, "a very primitive man of his sort; he was profoundly ignorant of the distinction between good and evil. His was the dryest heart that was ever seen, and the nearest to a non-existent conscience on record."

This judgment aroused tempests. Old Voltairians were grieved by this irreverence, and some accused M. Faguet of being animated by confessional prejudices and reactionary passions. Sarcey was distressed, and Anatole France appeared surprised. Voltaire's enemies, on the other hand, uttered shouts of triumph, reckoning on a new and brilliant recruit for their party. But M. Faguet did not deserve the rage of the one or the felicitations of the other. Although by temperament and perhaps by education, he seemed rather to lean to the side on which M. Brunetière was already doing battle, he soon showed that he was a free spirit, saying what he thought true without regard to the party which applauded. At the same time that his book was denounced by Voltairians, it was interdicted in the Jesuit colleges. Since then his studies on the sixteenth century and the nineteenth have assuaged wrath, and proved to his readers, daily a greater number, that the new critic wished merely to be a critic, and to bring to the appreciation of works that impartiality and "clarity of conscience" only to be had by one who, in M. Faguet's words, "is strong enough to detach and abstract himself." This independence and freedom of mind permits him to study with the same serenity, and almost the same sympathy, men as different as Bossuet and Calvin, Proudhon and Joseph de Maistre. These qualities, too, have been the source of the authority which he has won, and the confidence shown him by a public that knows him to be not seeking to maintain theses, but to explain and define men and books.

In this he succeeds marvellously, thanks to a penetrating intellect and a gift of exposition which renders clear the obscurest systems, and comprehensible the most enigmatic men. Auguste Comte and Taine, Renan and Stendhal, have been both analyzed and defined in a manner to satisfy the most exacting. His portraiture is faithful and true, without condescension and without rhetoric, but not without an ironical indulgence. One feels that he sees justly and sees the whole. Some weeks ago, having to deliver at the École Normale a eulogy on Sarcey, he did it so completely and finely that nothing could be added to it. When Victor Cherbuliez died, M. Faguet was the only writer in the French press to produce an article on him worthy of the subject, and this article was a masterpiece.

His style has sometimes been criticised; and indeed I should not advise a foreigner to imitate it. It is, like M. Faguet himself, a little "irregular," capricious, and eccentric. Speaking of Calvin, he said: "I have a weakness for writers who have, in writing, somewhat of the spontaneous freedom of speech." In this phrase he defined his own style, which is precisely conversation: free, brisk, animated, with unexpected hits, hardy familiarities, and charming eccentricities. In this vein he chats at the Café Vachette, or in his courses at the Sorbonne, or in that brilliant weekly feuilleton in the *Journal des Débats* in which, talking of the dramatic art, he has succeeded in consoling readers for the loss of Jules Lemaître. And to this spontaneous and offhand mode of writing or speaking we owe those piquant formulas, those improvised definitions, which abound in him, and which give his style something animated and direct that few writers possess in the same degree. Thus, for instance, wishing to characterize Stendhal, he calls him "un déplacé," who is, "in the first half of our nineteenth century, as if in a house where he doesn't know his way about, and in a dress which he wasn't made to wear." And he adds: "And he nurses an ill temper, and thereby contracts a certain oddity and pretty bad manners." Of Théophile Gautier he says everything in the sentence, "He sets out from nowhere, and just there he arrives." He writes incidentally of Balzac:

"Balzac had no wit at all." Finally, in his celebrated chapter on Voltaire, this phrase suffices to explain the emotion of the Voltairians: "The prince of wits became the god of imbeciles."

It is sometimes said, regarding contemporary French criticism, that France has no longer a Sainte-Beuve; and truly, for Sainte-Beuve is, as a matter of fact, dead. But if one chooses to observe that France possesses to-day critics named Brunetière, Lemaître, Gaston Deschamps, Gustave Lanson, and Émile Faguet, who, each in his own vein and with his special talent and temperament, have continued the work of the author of the *Lundis*, it must be allowed that France can await without too feverish impatience the rising of a new Sainte-Beuve.

OTHON GUERLAC.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME OF '73.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Col. John S. Mosby contributes to the *Nation* of February 22 extracts from letters of Hon. William E. Chandler (now one of the few Republican champions of bimetallism) and Ernest Seyd, written to the Comptroller of the Currency in 1870 or 1871, in reference to changes then contemplated in our mintage laws, most of which Congress proceeded in 1873 to enact; Mr. Chandler's letter commending the new coinage code generally, while Mr. Seyd especially addressed himself, deprecatingly, to the "abolition of the silver dollar."

These letters, as Col. Mosby explains, were part of a large volume of correspondence of the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency with other persons entitled to deference, which was laid before the House of Representatives by the Secretary, George S. Boutwell; all relating to those proposed changes in the coinage. Other portions of that correspondence are quite as instructive, but no part of it is as widely known as it should be; the communication in which the Secretary of the Treasury forwarded it to the House being now a very rare document indeed. The pendency in Congress of the gold bill gives a certain momentary vitality again to the old story of the "crime of 1873"; possibly it will win a momentary hearing for a few other selections from those views of authorities on finance and coinage which the Congress of 1873 had before it.

Several letters which the Secretary communicated to Congress were written to him by Robert Patterson, formerly Director of the Mint, and at the time connected with the Fidelity Trust Institution of Philadelphia. In one of these letters Mr. Patterson observed:

> "The silver dollar, half-dime, and three-cent piece are dispensed with by this enactment. Gold becomes the standard money, of which the gold dollar is the unit. Silver is subsidiary, embracing coins from the dime to half-dollar; coins less than the dime are of copper-nickel. The legal tender is limited to the necessities of the case."

Dr. H. R. Lindeman, another ex-Director of the Mint, writing to the Secretary, advised against a suggested increase of the size of the silver dollar, and added: "It would be better, in my opinion, to discontinue its issue altogether. The gold dollar is really the legal unit and measure of value." (He recognized that the gold standard had been enacted into law by the act of 1853.)

J. Ross Snowden, also ex-Director of the Mint, wrote a letter in which he commented on the proposed demonetization of the silver dollar. He did not favor this, but he confessed that the silver dollar had disappeared, and that, if longer coined, it would "not be used as a circulating medium, but only for cabinets."

Franklin Peale, formerly chief coiner at the Philadelphia Mint, commended the abolition of the half-dime and three-cent piece, and added: "Neither is the silver dollar desirable; its coinage should be discontinued. It is not wanted for change, which a proper silver coinage would supply."

George F. Dunning, lately Superintendent of the United States Assay Office at New York, noting the proposed abrogation of the legal-tender quality from the silver dollar, suggested that the dollar, if still issued, would be only a subsidiary coin, and would best, therefore, be reduced to 384 grains. James Pollock, who was then and for a long time had been Director of the Mint, was of the same opinion, and cited an expression to the same effect in his annual report of 1861.

Four officers of the San Francisco Mint, joining in one letter, combated the suggestions of changing the weight of the silver dollar, and advised that it be dropped entirely.

It should be remembered that the text of this discussion was a House bill dropping the silver dollar, with the silver coins smaller than the dime. The House committee which reported the bill proposed, by an amendment, the substitution of the larger coin which was actually adopted afterwards and received the popular name of "trade dollar"; whereupon the House referred the whole new scheme to the Secretary of the Treasury, with directions to obtain and report the views of authorities on finance and coinage respecting each of the proposed changes. Part of the result was the letters mentioned above and the Secretary's letter to the House transmitting them. My recollection is that most of the letters to the Secretary and the Comptroller were written in 1871. I have before me only memoranda of their contents which I made in 1896.

The only copy I have ever seen of this communication of the Secretary of the Treasury, containing the copies of letters which the House desired, was in the hands of the Hon. John P. Irish of California, who used it with much effect in speeches for the gold standard in the Presidential campaign of 1896. He said that, after a long search for the document in Washington and elsewhere, he had by chance found this one copy at the San Francisco Mint. I have heard of a very few other copies since. BENJ. CARTER.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 26, 1900.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish directly Count Tolstoy's new novel, 'Resurrection,' and 'The Transvaal Outlook,' by Albert Stickney.

Fresh announcements from the Macmillan Co. are 'Essays in the Monetary History of the United States,' by Prof. Charles J. Bullock of Williams College; 'Economic Crises,' by Edward D. Jones; and 'An Outline of Political Growth in the 19th Century,' by Edmund H. Sears.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon make a volume of the late Edward Rowland Sill's prose and letters.

'The Essentials of French Grammar,' by Prof. C. H. Grandgent of Harvard, will be issued directly by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The tiny "Beacon Biographies" of Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have suggested a parallel series of "Westminster Biographies" which this firm will issue in conjunction with Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., London, beginning with lives of Defoe, Wesley, and Dryden. In time for the Exposition will be 'A Woman's Paris,' with directions about living, service, cabs, churches and theatres, shopping, dressmaking, etc., with illustrations.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'The Private Memoirs of Madame Roland,' edited, after Bosc's translation, by Edward Gilpin Johnson, and 'Historical Memoirs of the Emperor Alexander I. and the Court of Russia,' by the Countess de Choiseul-Gouffier.

Stebbing's Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, which made its appearance some eight years ago, has just been reissued by Macmillan, with a frontispiece portrait of its subject after the Duke of Rutland's miniature, and fourteen pages of the abundant authorities, carefully indexed for the pertinent sections or passages—a real service to the student. There is also a page of corrigenda, for which we find it hard to account, since, if the original plates are before us, some of the corrections (as of single letters or figures in a date) could easily have been made in them.

Mr. Charles A. Keeler's 'Bird Notes Afield' (San Francisco: Elder & Shepard) is a collection of thirteen popular essays on the birds of California, followed by an appendix containing a "Key" to the Land Birds of California, and brief descriptions of the 204 species here formally treated. During the last five or six years we have had popular bird books galore, treating of the birds of the eastern United States as a whole, or of some particular sections of them, each after its own kind, mostly good and some excellent, and each no doubt filling its niche in a "long-felt want." But Mr. Keeler's is the first book of this kind relating to any part of the Pacific Coast region, and is in its way most excellent. The style is graceful, and the author writes because he has something to say. He is not only a bird-lover, but a full-fledged ornithologist, and his charming descriptions of bird-life in nature are tempered with accuracy of statement. His opening essay, "A First Glance at the Birds," is a delightful presentation of the general features of the bird fauna of California, while the other essays relate to special seasons or localities, as "A Trip to the Farallones," "A Day on the Bay Shore," "March in the Pine Woods," etc., and are each of unusual merit and interest, as regards both their ornithology and their literary style. The "Key" and descriptive list forming the appendix should be a welcome aid to those who "wish an introduction" to the "familiar birds in their native haunts" of the State of California. It is a surprise, however, to

find such a book as this without an index.

What has been already done in some schools, and what may be looked forward to, in beautifying the school-room, is well described in a little book, 'School Sanitation and Decoration' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), by Prof. Burrage of Purdue University, and the Supervisor of Drawing for Massachusetts, Mr. Bailey. The chapters on sanitation are rather slight, but they will serve to call the attention of committees of women's clubs (who are largely carrying on this good work) to what is essential on this subject. On color schemes for walls, and on the right pictures to choose for holding the attention of the children, the book is an excellent guide—as also in the difficult problem of what can be done for the country school, where interest is hard to awaken. But the most interesting feature of the book is the reproductions which it gives of school-work done by children of different grades under the influence of the art atmosphere to which they have been accustomed. The difference in beauty between the ordinary written exercises of the school-room and those which are here exhibited, must be seen to be believed in. It is difficult to predict what a change may be made in the hard practicalness of the American nature if the children in the schools are thus to have aroused in them a feeling for the beautiful.

By choice of a committee appointed by the town on the eve of the 250th anniversary of its incorporation, Rev. D. F. Lamson has written a 'History of the Town of Manchester, Essex County, Mass., 1645-1895,' and the town has published it. The book is not one of the best of its kind, less through the fault of the historian than through the defect of his material; Manchester not presenting so many points of historic interest as some other towns. The emphasis is where it generally is in such local histories—on the several wars to which the town has contributed men, and on ecclesiastical matters. In 1838 Edward Everett claimed for the town a survivor of Braddock's defeat, but Mr. Lamson cannot authenticate the doubtful honor. In the Revolutionary war the town seems to have done its full part, both in the preliminary Committee of Correspondence and on the embattled field. Quite as proud was its distinction in the anti-slavery time when, before the days of the Republican party, there was a Manchester Abolition Society more than one hundred strong. As in Marblehead the fishing business made way for shoe-making, so here it made way for cabinet-making, the growth of Gloucester as the great fishing centre operating in either case injuriously to the fishermen. Later the cabinet-making succumbed to the competition of the Boston market, and the town suffered a decay from which it has been only partly rallied by the influx of summer residents. The first of these was Richard H. Dana, the poet, to whom four generations of his descendants have succeeded; but to Dr. Cyrus A. Bartol is given the credit of having been the chief Uitlander, a child of light, whose wisdom in his generation has not been surpassed by the children of this world. The sea change which the name of the town has undergone began with James T. Fields. But "Manchester by the Sea" is a title which has no legal standing.

In his 'History of Trade between the United Kingdom and the United States' Mr. Sydney J. Chapman has merely outlined the subject, and, therefore, gives an impression of not having mastered the multitude of facts necessary to a full comprehension of it. It is true, in a sense, that tariff legislation in the United States has been directed against the industries of England, but it is more true that commerce has overcome such an artificial barrier, and the English market has ever been our best market. The rise of Germany as a great manufacturing nation, and the adoption of protection by the Continental Powers, have modified the ascendancy of England's commerce, but have not been able to alter its preëminence in the trade of the world. If the United States is to take the first place, as seems inevitable, it will be through its natural advantages and not through its tariff. We wish Mr. Chapman had dwelt upon the causes of the commercial power of both countries. It is not enough to quote figures, and to take a few references from Wells and Taussig, while neglecting the history of commercial policy on both continents. The all too sketchy quality of the work is evident when the later chapters are compared with those of Noyes, who understands his subject thoroughly, and maintains a just balance between the natural and the political elements involved in the development. The publishers of Mr. Chapman's book are Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London (New York: Macmillan).

Prof. W. Watson of the Royal College of Science in London has produced 'A Text-Book of Physics' (Longmans), which, by means of full explanations of matters of difficulty, sets the principles of the subject in as clear a light as a one-volume treatise could well do. Here and there it becomes almost brilliant. We notice in it, too, sundry recent items that probably here make their first appearance in a text-book. Yet we cannot say that it is the ideal treatise we are awaiting from the hands of some man born for such sort of work. In his 896 pages of fine print, the author might have found room for less meagre tables of constants and for references to the classical memoirs. In places the distinction between words and facts is not sharply drawn. Occasionally we meet with such statements as that "Thales, who lived about the commencement of the Christian era, discovered that amber, when rubbed, acquires the property of attracting light bodies." Possibly some German higher critic may have suggested that the report of Diogenes Laërtius about that discovery may refer to some later, unknown Thales. But, if so, this late Thales was not the first discoverer of a fact mentioned as well known by Plato, in that passage of the "Timæus" which almost anticipates Le Sage's conjecture about attraction; and no critic has impugned the authenticity of the "Timæus" since Schelling abandoned his doubts about it. To say that Thales of Miletus lived about the commencement of the Christian era is like saying that Roger Bacon lectures on physics in the Royal College of Science with mediæval exactitude about ancient history.

Drs. Fowler and Godlee's 'Diseases of the Lungs' (Longmans) opens with many good plates and diagrammatic drawings, showing the anatomy of the chest-walls and their contained viscera, and their relations one to the other. Following this is a chapter on general physical diagnosis, and then the diseases are taken up one by one in the usual order and minutely gone into. The chapters on tuberculosis, as was to be expected, are particularly full. The value of the open-air treatment and of sanatoria is fully recognized, but the value of the "sanatorium treatment" in addition to the fresh air does not seem to us sufficiently so. All possible processes that may occur in the lungs or elsewhere as the result of lung trouble are described at greater or less length. We were much disappointed to find no mention, even, of the value of the X-rays in the diagnosis of diseases of the lung and pleura; though there is a skiogram of the hand in the chapter on pulmonary osteo-arthropathy.

The third volume in A. Parmentier's 'Album Historique,' published in Paris by Armand Colin & Cie., deals with the 16th and 17th centuries, of which fifteen hundred engravings after contemporary prints, paintings, and other works of art or of useful manufacture, buildings, etc., exhibit the popular dress, lodging, furniture, weapons, religion, education, commerce, agriculture, industries, fine arts, etc. Many of these facsimiles or engravings could, of course, be replaced by better copies by means of modern processes, but they serve well enough the purpose of comparison for a large number of European countries. The accompanying text gives a general view of the civilization of the period, and as heretofore there are very full indexes.

An historical account of the teaching of speech to the deaf, by Dr. Alex. Graham Bell, is begun in the *Association Review* for February. The earliest attempt in this country seems to have been at Rowley, Mass., in 1679, when, according to the church records, a Mr. Philip Nelson pretended to cure a deaf and dumb boy. Francis Green of Boston, however, was "the pioneer promoter of free schools for the deaf—both in England and America, the first parent of a deaf child to plead for the education of all deaf children"; and an interesting description of his efforts to this end, beginning in 1781, is given. They included two anonymous publications, one entitled 'Vox oculis subjecta'; the other, a translation of the Abbé de l'Épée's 'Method of Educating the Deaf and Dumb.' Among the other contents are extracts from the report of Mr. Lars A. Havstad, who was sent by the Norwegian Government to inspect the schools for the deaf in this country, and a suggestive paper on the use and abuse of the memory in education.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for February opens with a description of some geographic features of southern Patagonia, with a discussion of their origin, by M. J. B. Hatcher. Particular stress is laid on the unique position of the continental watershed, which, nearly throughout Patagonia, lies far to the eastward of the main range of the Cordilleras, and in many instances extends even beyond the lowermost foothills of the mountains. It was the ignorance of this fact which led to the boundary dispute between Argentina and Chile. A summary is given of the three years' kite work of the Weather Bureau. Nearly four thousand observations were taken at elevations of from one thousand to eight thousand feet, with the result, among other things, that "the mean rate of diminution of temperature with increase of altitude was found to be five degrees for each one thousand feet." Prof. W. M. Davis

contributes a suggestive paper on practical exercises in geography, in which he shows how high-school scholars may be led to form, through simple observations, right conceptions of the shape, rotation, size, and orbit of the earth, latitude and longitude, and the seasons.

The only article of general interest in the *Geographical Journal* for February is Mr. Weld Blundell's account of his notable journey last year through southern Abyssinia to Khartum. He dwells upon the pitiful condition of the people under Menelik's rule. The march of an Abyssinian army (and war is chronic) means the laying waste the country through which it passes, leaving the inhabitants reduced to semi-starvation. The valley of the Blue Nile, now a part of the Egyptian Sudan, is described as an immense range of country, producing "cotton, coffee, tobacco, and iron, copper, and gold, with a healthy climate, and above all an industrious population, with nothing wanted but greater inducements and improved communication to be brought within the circle of British commercial enterprise, and developed to the highest degree of prosperity." Among the scientific results of the expedition was a collection of three hundred different species of birds, fifteen being new to science—an extraordinary exploit, since, as there was a shortness of cartridges, each bird had to be examined with a field-glass before it was shot, to make sure that it had not already been secured.

The leading article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 1 is by a member of the States-General of Holland, Dr. A. Kuyper of Amsterdam, who writes on the "South African Crisis" from the fulness of his knowledge, and with the eloquence flowing from deep-rooted faith in the cause which he defends and in the ultimate triumph of justice. His candid admiration for the English character adds to his horror and regret for the moral depth to which the besetting charm of national imperialism has dragged that great people: *Bien bas choit qui était monté le plus haut.* But "through the [moral] decadence of England human progress would lose one of its finest organs." In an interesting passage the striking analogies between Roman Cæsarism and the British imperialism of to-day are pointed out with a warning finger. Dr. Kuyper believes that nothing but extirpation of the people can prevent the final freedom of the Boers. England may succeed in disarming the men, but she cannot destroy the fecundity of Boer women; and "as long as the lioness of the Transvaal, surrounded by her cubs, shall roar against England from the summit of the Drakenberg, the Boers will not be for ever subdued."

M. von Brandt, the well-known German diplomatist, writing on the same theme in the *Rundschau* for February, takes the view that a final defeat of the English would seriously harm the cause of civilization. He does not deny that the war might have been avoided without hurting the vital interests of either party, nor does he palliate the motives or the ways and means of the English Government. But he believes that the success of the Boers would give rise to graver apprehensions for the future than a dearly-bought victory of the British arms. In the latter event, he reasons, the price paid would, for a long time to come, check the imperialistic tendencies of ruthless statesmen and slacken the pace of British politics, and the world's peace would not be endangered. In the interest of humanity he wishes that, after the first military successes of the English, a disinterested Power, like the United States, may, by its mediation, put an end to the dishonorable war, on the basis of the maintenance of Boer independence and the assurance of sufficient rights to the outlander population.

It is becoming evident that the modern current in the higher education in Prussia, signal instances of which were mentioned in our recent notes on the Technische Hochschule of Berlin and the University of Göttingen, is spreading over the Empire. Not only have technical institutions in other States, like Karlsruhe (Baden) and Darmstadt (Hesse), been granted the *Promotionsrecht*, in imitation of Berlin, while Munich and Stuttgart are expected soon to follow suit, but Strassburg is planning to enlarge its university by the addition of a technical faculty, and Jena is in receipt of a gift, from members of industrial firms, for the establishment of an institute for technical physics and technical chemistry, after the pattern of Göttingen. All this is in accordance with the Emperor's wish to move the technical schools into the foreground, because "they have great problems to solve—not only technical, but also great social problems."

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a remarkably fine imperial panel photograph of the late John Codman Ropes, the military historian. The intellectual strength and honesty of the man combine with the reflective mood and attitude to make an exceedingly attractive memorial of him.

—President Eliot's annual Harvard report is exceptionally stimulating reading. It has to tell of new admission requirements which enable high-school pupils to postpone deciding whether they will go to college or not; of two-fifths of the students now achieving their A.B. in three years without any falling off in the standard; of the putting in operation of a scheme of retiring allowances for the teaching corps; of the latest (Randall Hall) experiment in cheap commons, with students for waiters. The benefactions of the year 1898-99 to the University exceeded a million and a half, but 15 per cent. of the great Edward Austin bequest, or $76,500, "went to pay the civil and military expenses of the United States Government"—thanks, perhaps, to the strenuous Harvard alumni, Roosevelt and Lodge, as much as to any two men that could be named. "The ill-considered legislation which produces such inexpedient results ought to be at once repealed," justly remarks President Eliot, who has also to record the docking of the bequest of Mrs. Carolin Brewer Croft by $7,975, "the amount of the legacy taxes paid in England." The woman question reappears in the application of a Bryn Mawr graduate to be admitted to the Law School. She was told that she might, via Radcliffe, take the course and the examinations, but neither be registered nor receive a degree; and it does not appear whether she was satisfied with the half-loaf. On the other hand, "Mrs. Williamina Paton Fleming was appointed Curator of Astronomical Photographs, and in that capacity her name appeared in the University Catalogue for 1898-99. It is believed that Mrs. Fleming is the first woman who has held an official position in Harvard University. She is well known to astronomers as the discoverer of a remarkable number of new variable stars."

—The Doubleday, McClure Co. give us in excellent book form Miss Ida M. Tarbell's 'Life of Lincoln,' begun as a series of articles in *McClure's Magazine*. The striking feature of the earlier papers was a painstaking effort to gather new facts concerning Lincoln's ancestry and his childhood. Although many of the discoveries were of slight importance, the aggregate made a story considerably softened from that which had commonly been accepted. There is much less of extreme penury in his early circumstances, and the life and early education are more nearly the average of that of pioneers in the settlement of the great West. The nature of Miss Tarbell's task naturally led to the careful saving of minutest bits of evidence, and the collection of letters and oral statements almost indiscriminately; but so much had been done in that direction before, that there is a distinct value in gathering counter statements and corrections. The chaff can be winnowed out later, and the result will ultimately be a Life searched microscopically as almost never before. The same method applied to Lincoln's later years has brought to light many letters, his own and those of collateral acquaintanceship, and in an appendix of two hundred pages the official records have yielded up the shortest and most trifling telegrams along with more important matter. The author then worked over the whole, and, by putting Nicolay and Hay, Herndon, Lamon, McClure, and others under contribution, has filled out all periods to proportionate fulness. Miss Tarbell has shown no little skill in doing this, and has used good taste as well. She has intelligently appreciated the attractive traits of Lincoln's character and made them properly dominant. A judicious reader may skip the less important details in the two octavo volumes, and keep in current sympathy with the development of a great character. This is aided by the typography, which distinguishes plainly the compiled material. The book deserves, on the whole, the popular welcome which its earlier form received, because it satisfies in an honest way the craving for details of Lincoln's wonderful career. The most important of the illustrations are a series of photograph portraits of Mr. Lincoln at different ages. The publishers' part is well done. The only noteworthy slip in proof-reading is the repetition of a whole line at the top of page 25 of the first volume.

—Those who will not admit that all knowledge is confined within the British Museum and the Bodleian Libraries, have recognized for some time that the real successor to Henry Bradshaw as the working master of English bibliographic lore is in charge of the Althorp and other bookish treasures recently housed in the beautiful Rylands Library at Manchester. In his volume on 'Early Printed Books,' Mr. Gordon Duff proved his right to this position, and his command of the new data and the new deductions which have added so materially, within the last few decades, to our knowledge of the productions and the workmanship of the fifteenth-century printers. In the Sanders lectures delivered last year at Cambridge, England, Mr. Duff took the opportunity to bring together and explain the details upon which is based our increased acquaintance with the English "fifteeners." The result is an important

addition to the history of the beginnings of printing and bookselling in England. Blades's exhaustive volumes remain, of course, the authority of prime value, but Mr. Duff adds seven books to those enumerated by Blades, giving a total of ninety-eight printed by Caxton in England. It is now thought that three of those in Blades's list were produced after Caxton died, and that two of those printed at Bruges did not appear until after his departure for England. Two varieties of type have also been added to those represented by Blades. There can be little doubt that the list of Caxton's books is still incomplete; but, as Mr. Duff points out, it is not the mere number of books he printed between 1477 and 1491, but the fact that he edited almost every book he issued and translated twenty-five or more of them, which makes Caxton's career so remarkable.

—The probability that we know of only a part of the output from Caxton's press is very nearly a certainty as regards his successor, Wynkyn de Worde. De Worde printed at least sixty-eight small tracts, in addition to his larger books; of forty-seven of these, only a single copy, often imperfect, is known to be in existence. The manner in which these books have been preserved is well illustrated by the 'Sarum Horal,' printed by William de Machlinia about 1485. Eight leaves of this little service-book exist at Oxford, seven are in the British Museum, four at Lincoln, and two at Cambridge. All of these came from worn-out copies of the book which had been used as waste by a contemporary binder in stiffening the covers of other books. Competition in the printing trade began in London in 1480, and the result was a very marked immediate improvement in the quality of Caxton's work. Presses had been set up at Oxford and at St. Albans a year or two earlier, and before 1501 there were at least six master-printers who had tried to supply the English demand for books. Their efforts seem to have been unsuccessful, for many commissions were sent to printers at Paris, Venice, Rouen, and elsewhere for books wanted by the English buyers. They also had to meet the competition of the stationers, who imported books printed to their order and with their imprint, and also of travelling salesmen from the Continent, who seem to have distributed considerable numbers of foreign printed books in the provincial towns.

—The author of 'Kraft und Stoff,' recently deceased, at the age of seventy-five, was not only a thoroughly scientific man, but also an exceedingly interesting personality. The healing art seems to have been a sort of professional patrimony of his family: his grandfather, father, uncle, his oldest brother George, and he himself were medical practitioners. There was also in their mental constitution a rich poetic vein, an heirloom of the Frankish-Alemannic Odenwälder, still famous for the wealth and beauty of their traditional sagas. George was only twenty-one when he wrote a tragedy, entitled "Danton's Tod: Dramatische Bilder aus der Schreckenszeit," a work revealing great imaginative power and replete with vigorous and vivid descriptions of the "Reign of Terror," but with the lack of artistic moderation peculiar to the productions of the transitional storm-and-stress period in German literature. There is no doubt that he would have achieved distinction as a man of letters if he had not died at the age of twenty-five, as a political fugitive in Switzerland, just as he was beginning a course of lectures on comparative anatomy at the University of Zurich. Also his sister Luise, who was fifty-one years old when she died on November 28, 1877, attained considerable celebrity as a poet and novelist, and, by her popular treatise on 'Die Frauen und ihr Beruf,' which has passed through half-a-dozen editions, became one of the most efficient social reformers and pioneers in opening new fields of industrial activity to women in Germany. A younger brother, Alexander, still living, professor at Valenciennes, and afterwards at Caen in France, has embodied the results of his special studies of English and French literature in two works, 'Geschichte der Englischen Poesie' and 'Französische Literaturbilder,' each in two volumes.

—Ludwig Büchner, the fifth of seven children, and as a boy remarkable for his clear intellect, tender feeling, and lively fancy, showed in early youth a strong love and critical appreciation of literature, and it was expected that this latter proclivity would determine his future career and secure for him a prominent place near the summit of Parnassus. His younger brother Alexander and his sister Luise had already appeared before the public with some success as authors when Ludwig suddenly produced his 'Kraft und Stoff,' which was at once accepted by the Frankfort publisher Meidinger and made a great sensation. A fierce controversy arose over it, and the wiseacres in the senate of the University of Tübingen put their heads together and decided that the author of such a work should not be permitted to lecture in the medical faculty of that institution, and that the *venia legendi* should be withdrawn; thus furnishing another illustration of the inviolability of German academic freedom as expounded by Prof. Münsterberg. It is not possible here to follow Büchner's scientific career from this first brilliant success to the time of his death. There is, however, a collection of his lyrical poems and dramas and critical essays entitled 'Der neue Hamlet,' which reveals another feature of his intellectual character, and to which we call attention because it was published under the pseudonym of "Karl Ludwig," and is therefore not generally known as his literary production, although it contains the fragment of an autobiography. The title of the volume is well chosen, for there was in his nature, as here disclosed, a strong conflict between the born idealist and the philosophic materialist, which often gave him pause and made him think that he had missed his calling. His last two works, just issued by Emil Roth in Giessen, are 'Am Sterbelager des Jahrhunderts: Blicke eines freien Denkers aus der Zeit in die Zeit,' and 'Im Dienste der Wahrheit: Ausgewählte Aufsätze aus Natur und Wissenschaft.' The first of these volumes is a second revised and enlarged edition sent by the author to the press just before his death, and adorned with his portrait as frontispiece. The second volume was found among Büchner's posthumous papers, and consists of fifty-one articles, which had appeared in different periodicals from 1891 to 1899 and been arranged by him chronologically for publication under the title they now bear.

—Vittorio Bersezio, whose death at Turin was announced last week, was one of the most eminent Italian men of letters of the past half-century. Born near Coni in 1830, he displayed such precocity that at the age of eleven he wrote the *libretti* of lyric plays which were performed. Going, while still a lad, to Turin, he began to write for the press, and was at different times in the employ of Valerio and Brofferio, the radical leaders. When the Revolution broke out, in 1848, he enlisted and served in the campaign in Lombardy. Then he resumed his literary work, writing for several journals, from the dignified *Rivista Contemporanea* to the satirical *Fischietto*. His "Political Profiles," sketches of the leading Italian public men of the early fifties, gave him a reputation. But mere journalism did not content him. He wrote a series of novels ('La Famiglia,' 'L'Amor di Patria,' 'L'Odio,' etc.) which were successful in Italy, and were translated, some of them at least, into French and German. He also tried his hand at writing plays, of which "Micca d'Andorno," "Romulus" (acted by Salvini), "Le Pasque Veronesi," and "Il Perdono" were written in literary Italian, and several others, more popular still, in Piedmontese dialect. Finally, he devoted himself to writing the Life of Victor Emanuel II., which he published in eight volumes (1878-'95), under the title 'Trent' Anni di Vita Italiana'; a work too diffuse to rank among the first, but still full of valuable matter, with the impressions and reminiscences at first hand of an observer of the period described. In these days, when one short story in a magazine is supposed to confer perpetual fame on its author, it is wholesome to record, even briefly, the career of Bersezio, who excelled as journalist, novelist, playwright, and historian, but always went forward in search of higher achievement, and never contented himself with applause for work completed.

—In writing on Bábar for the 'Rulers of India' series (Clarendon Press), Prof. Stanley Lane-Poole deals with a career which centres about Samarkand quite as much as about Delhi. The early ambition of Bábar was to found an empire in the valleys of the Oxus and Jaxartes. He bent his course to the southward only after repeated failures in the land of his birth had proved that the route to India offered the line of least resistance. The life of this hero and conqueror falls, then, into very distinct sections. For the historian of India only the last twelve years are available, while the biographer finds in Bábar's earlier struggles and vicissitudes a subject which, though of comparatively little political consequence, is full of dramatic personal interest. No leader of Islam during the first century which followed the death of the Prophet showed more dash and intrepidity in spreading the Koran than Bábar displayed during the twenty years, 1494-1514, in his attempt to create for himself a state after his own heart. When every effort had failed, he changed his purpose with the utmost versatility, and in less than a decade brought millions upon millions of Hindus beneath his sway. Bábar is eminently a hybrid character, and Prof. Lane-Poole, in a single paragraph, thus brings out the complexity of the elements which he represents: "He is the link between central Asia and India, between predatory hordes and imperial government, between Tamerlane and Akbar. The blood of the two great scourges of Asia, Chingiz and Timúr, mixed in his veins, and to the daring and restlessness of the nomad

Tatar he joined the culture and urbanity of the Persian. He brought the energy of the Mongol, the courage and capacity of the Turk, to the listless Hindu; and, himself a soldier of fortune and no architect of empire, he yet laid the first stone of the splendid fabric which his grandson Akbar achieved." No reference to Bábar, however fragmentary, should pass over unmentioned the celebrated autobiography which he left to be edited by his son Humáyún, and which has furnished all writers on his period with the best part of their facts. He wrote his memoirs in his native tongue, Turki, but the work was soon translated into Persian and exists in many codices. The English translation by Leyden and Erskine has put within the reach of those who are unlearned in Oriental languages one of the most delightful books of adventure ever written by a conqueror. Prof. Lane-Poole has drawn largely on this prime source for the materials of his excellent handbook.

—Part ii., vol. xxvii., of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, contains matter of great interest to students of the Japanese language, of the Romanization of Asiatic tongues, and of the history of printing. It is a study of the work of the Jesuit Missions Press in Japan, the result of the researches of Sir Ernest Satow in the public libraries of England and the Continent, concerning those books printed in Japan at the end of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries. Mr. Satow came to Japan in the early sixties as a student-interpreter. He is now British Minister in the Japanese Empire. In a pamphlet privately printed he gave the full results of his researches up to the year 1888, but since coming to Japan he has been fortunate enough to discover two other works printed on the same press, probably at Nagasaki. The first of these is an abridgment of the 'Tai-Héi-Ki,' a celebrated historical work of the fourteenth century. The second is a small volume of fifty-eight leaves printed in Roman type, and bearing the imprint "In Collegio Iaponico Societatis Iesu, Anno 1600," and is identical in substance, but not in type, with that numbered eleven in his pamphlet, and preserved at Rome; but the one edition in Chinese characters and *kana* script was for the use of native converts, and the other in Roman letters for missionaries not familiar with Chinese characters or the Japanese syllabary. It is a compend of Roman Catholic theology and doctrine, and was evidently intended for the Samurai or educated classes. The spelling of the Romanized Japanese words is that of the Portuguese grammar and lexicography of the period. After five pages of introduction, Mr. Satow gives a glossary of six pages, a photolithographic reproduction of the title-page of the book, and sixty-one pages of its text. Japanese versions are here found of the Lord's Prayer, the Apostles' Creed, and the Ten Commandments, which, with the articles of the Roman ritual, may be useful for comparison with modern translations. It is an interesting question whether the Jesuit missionaries in Japan, some of whom had also been in Korea with the Japanese army of invasion, took the hint for the use of movable or "living" type from the Koreans, with whom they had been common centuries before they were known in Europe. The first ascertained use of movable type by the Japanese was in 1598. A private reprint of Sir E. Satow's paper has just been deposited in the Boston Public Library.

GRAHAM'S SOCIAL LIFE OF SCOTLAND.

The Social Life of Scotland in the Eighteenth Century. By Henry Grey Graham. London: Adam & Charles Black. 1899.

The social and economic sides of history are comparatively new subjects of inquiry and description. Ancient chroniclers and modern chroniclers, too, till the present century, were so much occupied with political events and with the personal incidents relating thereto, as hardly to notice the modes, habits, and practices of daily life, or to describe the beliefs and notions which men entertained. If they wrote of what passed in their own time, such matters were too familiar to seem to need description. If they wrote of the past, they held it beneath the dignity of history to take account of such trivialities. Macaulay was one of the first to depart from this hallowed usage, and the famous sketch of English social life in the time of Charles the Second with which his History of England opens, has stirred many authors to imitation, so that the English are now pretty familiar with the ways of their ancestors from Tudor times to the present. Mr. McMaster and Mr. Edward Eggleston are among the American writers who have trodden the same path with success. For Scotland not much has been done, save in one or two of Walter Scott's novels, where incidentally the features of social life are touched upon. The subject lay out of the beaten tracks; and though there was a considerable Scottish literature in the last century, from which an impression of Scottish life might be drawn, the ornaments of that literature, with the exception of Allan Ramsay and Robert Burns, were all Edinburgh men, and reproduced the manners of their city rather than of their country. However, there comes now a new writer, a Scotchman, and indeed (as we gather) a Scottish clergyman, who gives us in these two solid volumes a large mass of information about his country in the eighteenth century, the first century in which that turbulent little country had enjoyed comparative peace, and the opportunities which peace gives of advancing in material prosperity.

He covers a good deal of ground, passing in review the society and manners of the rural districts, those of the cities, and especially of Edinburgh and Glasgow—the latter a very small town past the middle of the century; the land system, with the relations of rural classes and care of the rural poor; the Church and the various dissenting bodies which broke off from it and went on apart from it; education in schools and universities, crime and social order, the progress of industry and trade. On each of these topics a great variety of matter, often curious, has been brought together with commendable diligence, so that the book is really a valuable repertory of facts, most of them drawn from books which, in this country at least, can hardly be procured. The merit of the work lies in the abundance of the facts collected. It is clearly written, with few efforts at literary display; and (except perhaps in the ecclesiastical part) it betrays no bias either national or sectional. It might perhaps have been improved by the introduction here and there of summarizing paragraphs, presenting the generalized conclusions to which, in the author's view, the facts he has collected point. However, the main thing was to bring together the facts. The reader, having an ample store of them here provided, can generalize for himself at his pleasure.

Mr. Graham justly remarks on the great unlikeness of Scotland to England at the time of the Union. To the traveller of to-day, the two countries seem to present few points of difference. The dialect of the common folk is no doubt unlike that of southeastern England, but not more unlike than is that of Lancashire or Devon. The landscape is generally rougher or sterner in its character, and the towns are built rather of stone than of brick. The parish churches are less picturesque, for the Presbyterian Reformers dealt less tenderly with the old fabrics in Scotland than the Episcopalian reformers did in England, and the country was so much poorer that the churches were at all times inferior. But perhaps the most patent difference between the countries is that in Scotland it is chiefly whiskey, in England chiefly beer, that is the drink of the people—a difference which Mr. Graham shows to be not very ancient. These are trifling divergencies when compared with the broad and striking contrast which the poverty and squalor of Scotland, its plain form and rigid practice of religion, its social habits and ideas, furnished to the wealth and comfort of England, to its easy-going ecclesiastical ways, to its different ideals of life and thought, as these two countries stood in A. D. 1707, when the Treaty of Union welded them into one kingdom, and when, according to Mr. Graham, the diversity of speech was so great that Englishmen and Scotchmen scarcely understood one another. The fact is, that in 1707 Scotland was one of the most backward countries in Europe in every respect but one. Her population was very small, scarcely exceeding a million, and was almost entirely rural. It was extremely poor, for only a small part of the land was tilled, and the industries were insignificant. There was little trade and practically no shipping. But the race was highly intelligent and energetic, having in the two preceding centuries produced a surprising number of men of literary distinction; and the provision of education for the people, albeit scanty, and far inferior to that which the enlightened policy of John Knox and his friends of the great reforming era had planned, was yet better than that which existed in England, or in most parts of Continental Europe. Accordingly, when peace was assured in the Lowlands after 1689—for the Jacobite rebellions of 1715 and 1745 caused only temporary perturbations—and when the union with England in 1707 had thrown open trade with the English colonies, and brought the two parts of the island into closer commercial relations with one another, there began a progress which, slow at first, had in twenty or thirty years increased the value of property, raised wages as well as rents, and given a stimulus to every department of national life.

The steps by which this took place, and the remarkable parallelism in the development of industry and trade on the one hand and the growth of theological enlightenment on

the other, are well traced by Mr. Graham. He notes one fact of interest to tourists in Scotland. In the first half of the eighteenth century it was one of the barest and dreariest parts of Europe, the old forests having been, especially in the Lowlands, almost entirely cut down for firewood, so that house timber was hardly procurable. But about 1760 the now more progressive landowners began to plant trees on a great scale, and the large woods which may now be seen in all parts of the Lowlands, except, of course, on the higher and steeper hills, are entirely due to the taste for forestry which then grew so popular. Scotland has to-day less of the aspect of a wooded country than the centre and west of England, because few clumps of trees stand about in the fields, and there are hardly any hedgerow trees at all. But the woods are both extensive and fine, though Scotland must admit one serious inferiority to England: she has no pieces of really old forest, dating from the Middle Ages. There is nothing more beautiful in England than the sylvan scenery of the New Forest in Hampshire, of Wychwood Forest in Oxfordshire, of Savernake Forest in Wiltshire, of Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire, not to speak of others which, like Needwood in Staffordshire, have preserved fewer fine trees. In Scotland the traveller finds nothing to compare with these, nor indeed any relics of really ancient wood, save here and there among the huge clumps of fir trees in the Highland glens.

Religion and ecclesiastical affairs have been a conspicuous factor in Scottish life ever since the Reformation of the sixteenth century. It was in Scotland far more than in England a really popular movement, and left a deeper impress, which was still further deepened by the struggle against prelacy from 1638 till 1690. Calvinistic theology has done so much to mould the character of the people that Mr. Graham very properly devotes to this part of his subject a large share of his space. He paints in colors perhaps almost dark the fanaticism, the dogmatism in matters of belief, and the vehement intolerance of the Presbyterian masses in the opening years of the century —phenomena which were the natural result of the ferocious persecution to which the Covenanters had been subjected by the later Stuart kings. He remarks, with perfect truth, that, so far from the clergy having led or terrorized the laity, as Mr. Buckle (who was sometimes almost as ignorant as he was self-confident and positive) supposed, the clergy were really controlled by the laity, who displayed an interest in theology greater than that of any other contemporary European people, and hardly to be paralleled even in rural New England. He describes the gradual decline of Calvinistic stringency which went on from 1720 to 1770, and which, in the Presbyterian Church established by law, was accelerated by the growth of the Seceders and other Dissenting bodies. All the free churches in Scotland have arisen, not from any spirit of change, but from adherence to old ideas and customs. The same remark has been made of most of the Dissenters in Russia. The Cameronians held to the Covenants of the seventeenth century, and disapproved the Established Church because it had not renewed those Covenants. The Seceders of 1737 quitted the church in protest against the intrusion of ministers into parishes by lay patronage against the will of the people; and the later and greater Secession of the Free Church in 1843, commonly called the Disruption, had the same cause.

As the seceding bodies were those which clung most tenaciously to the Calvinistic dogmas and the ancient simplicity of worship, their departure gave a freer course to latitudinarianism in the state church, so that by 1780 no small part of its more educated clergy as well as laity were deemed to be virtually Arians or Socinians. With these men, of whom Dr. Blair and the historian Robertson, principal of Edinburgh University, are the persons now best remembered, and with a knot of cultivated lawyers and some university professors, such as Adam Smith and Thomas Reid, began the brilliant literary era of modern Scotland, which lasted down till, in the first decades of the nineteenth century, the influence of London drew the bulk of Scottish literary talent away from Edinburgh, leaving comparatively few men of science and learning in Scotland, except those who were kept there by university chairs. And this epoch (1770-1810) was, by an interesting coincidence, that which saw the meridian of Scottish poetry in Burns, and the dawn of Scottish romantic fiction in Walter Scott. Before it closed, a change came over the spirit of the Scottish church. The so-called "Evangelical Revival," beginning about 1790, a little later than it had begun in England, drove out the "moderate" theology of Robertson and his contemporaries, and it was not till about 1870 that the influence of German and Dutch theologians, and especially of the new school of Biblical criticism, began to tell powerfully on Scotland. At present that school is dominant there, and the Scottish Presbyterian clergy stand amazed at the stringent orthodoxy and intolerance of critical methods which they note in the Presbyterians of the United States and of Ireland.

It is in this part of his book that Mr. Graham may perhaps be thought to fall rather below the level of an objective and dispassionately philosophical historian. Recounting with grim pleasure the instances, numerous enough, of bigotry, superstition, and harshness among the fanatical and ultra-orthodox ecclesiastics and laity of the first half of the eighteenth century, he makes too little allowance for the causes which had made them what they were, and does less than justice to the earnestness and devotion which half redeemed their faults. Puritanism, with all its drawbacks, has been a potent force in stimulating Scottish intellect and strengthening Scottish character.

There is much else in the book that well deserves attention and commendation, and many of the facts it notes are full of significance. Though Scotland was so rude, there was far less highway robbery there than in England; and the much greater mildness of the criminal law was accompanied by a much greater rarity of crime (except infanticide). But serfdom among coalminers and salt-workers lasted down till 1799. Political liberty scarcely existed, and the representative system was a farce. There was very little coin in circulation, and the roads were impassable till after the middle of the century. Indeed, it would be hard to imagine a region more unlike the prosperous industrial lowlands of to-day than Scotland was one hundred and fifty years ago. To have brought out so clearly and so fully the condition of his country, and the beginnings of the process by which she emerged from her misfortunes and became one of the most progressive and cultivated parts of Europe, entitles Mr. Graham to the gratitude of historical students, and enables us to recommend his book to American readers as one of the best of its kind that have appeared for a good many years.

SKRINE'S HEART OF ASIA.

The Heart of Asia; A History of Russian Turkestan and the Central Asian Khanates from the Earliest Times. By Francis Henry Skrine, formerly a member of H. M. Indian Civil Service, and Edward Denison Ross, Ph.D., Professor of Persian in University College, London. London: Methuen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1899. Pp. xi+444.

There has long been much need of a scholarly yet readable account within reasonable limits of space of the Russian advance in Central Asia and of the past and present condition of the Turkoman tribes. The older history of Central Asia, too, has been a picturesque blank for most of us. Vague ideas of the conquests of Alexander, of the Oxus and Jaxartes—*amnes fabulosi*—of Prester John and Tamerlane with his "pampered jades of Asia," of sultans of Casgar from the 'Arabian Nights' and "Merou's bright palaces and groves" from 'The Veiled Prophet of Khorasan,' have jarred against newspaper paragraphs about Merv and its mervousness, Afghan and Pamir boundary squabbles, trans-Caspian petroleum, and railways to China. We have had books of travel, more or less untrustworthy and biassed; we have had Sir Henry Howorth's great 'History of the Mongols,' and others of lesser repute; Col. Yule illumined Marco Polo and Cathay; ten years ago Lord (then Mr.) Curzon's 'Russia in Central Asia' appeared; but there was nothing by which the ordinary reader could arrange his jumbled ideas and string his facts, real and ideal, on a thread solid enough to carry them. 'The Heart of Asia' undoubtedly fully meets this need. It sums up past history and present condition with admirable thoroughness and clearness. The amount of detail which its learned authors have packed into a single volume is equalled only by the scholarly accuracy which they show, and the readableness which they have attained. The sources upon which they base are excellent. Both Prof. Ross and Mr. Skrine have personal knowledge of Central Asia; and Skrine's part of the work, the description of government, of development of railways, of commerce, and of the social life, is from his own observations throughout. Prof. Ross has made the fullest use of Russian and Mongol authorities, which in itself would give the book high value; he has used at first-hand the Arabic and Persian chroniclers, though with a leaning to the Persian which neither the scientific historian nor the Arabist will much approve—the Persian version of at-Tabari, for example, can have no authority beside the original—but which is excusable in a professor of Persian; students of the later Roman Empire generally find it expedient to get behind Gibbon to his sources, and D'Herbelot is respectable but

antiquated. But such points are of slight importance; the thoroughness and first-hand quality of Prof. Ross's work are a credit to English scholarship.

The first part of the book consists of a history of Central Asia from the earliest time to the Russian occupation. From the oldest mention of Bactria in the inscription of Behistun the story is briefly traced through the conquests of Alexander and the vicissitudes of his successors, through the Huns, the Parthians, and the Romans, and the Sasanides to the Arab conquest. From that point much greater detail is given, and what may fairly be claimed to be a hitherto unwritten chapter in the history of Islam is unrolled before us. The work of the great conqueror Qutayba b. Muslim is given at length, and then the story of eastern Islam is told, as it might have been followed from the basins of the Oxus and the Jaxartes. The ground covered is in part common to all Muslim historians, but the standpoint is novel. In other books we see the Arab waves of conquest flowing out into darkness among races we know nothing of; some echoes of China and of wandering Turkoman tribes reach us, but it is as of the land beyond the mountains. Our thoughts bear most upon the valleys of the Euphrates and the Nile and upon the Inner Sea. And when, in later times, there come the waves of Mongol invasion—the Seljuqs, Chingiz Khan, Timur Leng—they break out of darkness we know not how. What they are, whence they come, why they come, are mysteries. But in this book all that is clear. We are put among those very tribes in their own camping-grounds. The tangled skein of their genealogies is unravelled. The causes of their migrations, this way and that, are made plain. We see Chinese and Muslim envoys meeting in diplomatic warfare at their courts, and the Great Wall of China turning them from the east to flood the west. Then the long course of Russian conquest begins, and is traced in its development of fatal necessity till Geok Teppe falls and the boundary of three empires is fixed in the Pamirs.

The only pity in all this is that the great compression of space produces a false feeling of Central Asian life as though it had consisted of nothing but wars and rumors of wars, of alarms and excursions. We have to remember that, from time to time through it all, the weavers were busy in Samarcand, Muslim law was expounded, endless commentaries on the Quran written, and poetry and art flourished. Otherwise it is as though we had a history of the squabbles of the Italian republics which took no thought that Dante and Petrarch and Boccaccio were living then.

The second part of the book is by Mr. Skrine, and is a description of Central Asia as he has seen it, and of the work which Russia is accomplishing there. The railway system is traced in detail, and the history is given of how it has been built up until now a gap of only 450 miles separates it from that of India. The province of Transcaspia is described, with the method of government and of administering justice which has been worked out for the nomad Turkomans. The railway is then followed from Askabad to Merv, thence to the protected native state of Bokhara, and finally to Samarcand. These are names full of old romance, and all the magic has not passed from them under Mr. Skrine's pen. Samarcand itself is a word to conjure with. Alexander was here, and here he killed Clitus; Timur lies buried here under his slab of dark-green jade. Naturally, this part of the book has not the original interest of Prof. Ross's work. Travellers have been there before and have told what they saw; no one before has written the history from beginning to end. Yet Mr. Skrine's impressions have an interest of their own. The Russians, for him, are not Mr. Kipling's Bad People, nor does he think with Vámbéry that their government is tyrannous and a failure. He is almost enthusiastically pro-Russian, believes that Russia has been compelled by its circumstances to advance, and that it has no designs upon India. As to this, the latest events on the Persian Gulf and the Afghan frontier may hint a doubt. Much that he says has value for us in our present straits. Some things illuminate especially the logical impossibility of our position. For example, he quotes Skobeleff: "Our Central Asian policy recognizes no pariahs. Herein lies our superiority over the English." And Kurapatkin: "The assumption of sovereignty over alien nationalities must not be attempted without very serious deliberation, inasmuch as such become, on annexation, Russian subjects, children of the Tsar, and invested with every privilege enjoyed by citizens of the empire." All this only illustrates the old fact that the more autocratic a government, the better it can assimilate foreign elements; and the less citizenship amounts to, the more easily it can be bestowed. The value of Roman citizenship had fallen low when it was extended over the Roman world, and the value of Russian citizenship must be equally low when it can be given to the Tekke Turkomans. When the English Parliament has vanished, the Indian "fellow-subject" may become a full British subject, but it may be a question if his status will be much raised by that. And when the American Congress has finally ceased from troubling, then, perhaps, a great white Tsar at Washington may bless subject children of half-a-dozen shades invested with every privilege that will be left to American citizens.

Again, here are two passages in no connection, but interesting when brought into connection: "The Romans had entered on the career of foreign conquest which seems inevitable in the case of a powerful republic." This is somewhat cynical, and also commonplace; but what about this? "For communities which have arrived at a high pitch of civilization, conquest is an anachronism, and assimilation with a subject race an impossibility." Either no powerful republic is highly civilized, or it is inevitable for every powerful republic to attempt the anachronistic. This is an exercise in formal logic, but it has also some claim to consideration as sense.

To return to Mr. Skrine, he would gladly see an Anglo-Russian alliance, but he finds two great obstacles: there can be no permanent alliance between an autocracy and a system of popular government; nor between a system of close protection and a system of free trade. Here, too, is sense: *de te fabula narratur.*

Of detailed criticism of this book, there can be little; it is far too good to have faults picked in it. Yet the following points may be worthy of consideration in the new edition, which we trust will soon come. On pp. 131, 133, we have the old story that Omar Khayyām, Nizām al-Mulk, and Hasan b. as-Sabbāh—the Old Man of the Mountain—were schoolfellows together. If Prof. Ross will look at the matter again, he will probably find that the story is chronologically impossible — Nizām al-Mulk was assassinated, an old man of 77, in A. H. 485, Omar died in A. H. 515, and Hasan in A. H. 518—and that the supposed evidence for it is very late. The note on p. 366 gives the impression that the Shī'ites have no *Sunna.* That is not so; they have a *Sunna,* but it is different from that of the so-called Sunnites. As to the note on p. 35, it must be a distinctively Persian idea that "Hijra" refers to Muhammad's *separation* from his family. The root permits that interpretation, but the word is regularly taken as meaning *migration, i. e.,* Muhammad's migration from Mecca to Medina. We should be glad to know Prof. Ross's authorities for his view. The character assigned on p. 69 to the Umayyad Khalifa Omar b. Abd al-Aziz is very dubious; Prof. Ross might consult Von Kremer's 'Culturgeschichtliche Streifzüge.' On p. 93, line 19, Ustādsīs should be read for Khazim; a volume reference is needed in the note on p. 225; p. 240, foot, Amu Darya should be read for Sir Darya, and a reference would be in place to De Goeje's paper on the old course of the Oxus. The first sentence on p. 388 is obscure to unintelligibility—its face-meaning is the opposite of what is wanted. On the religious tolerance, and even anti-Muslim tendency, of Chingiz Khan and Timur it is possible to refer now to the paper by Smirnow in the *Actes du onzième Congrès Internat. des Orientalistes,* troisième Sect., pp. 143-157. Joseph Stylites on p. 26 should be Joshua the Stylite, so far as that unknown author has any name for us.

The book has 34 excellent illustrations. Nineteen of these are from sketches by Verestchagin, and the rest from photographs. There is a very good general map of Central Asia, and a sketch-map of the Russian advance. A special map to illustrate the Muslim conquest and mediæval times would be of service; Spruner-Menke is not always at hand.

A Thousand Days in the Arctic. By Frederick G. Jackson. Harper & Bros. 1899. 8vo, pp. xxiv, 940. Maps and illustrations.

The expedition of which this is the diary, was fitted out by Mr. Alfred C. Harmsworth, the well-known English newspaper proprietor. Its object was originally Polar exploration; but when the supposed northward extension of the Franz-Josef archipelago was disproved, and the expected base of operations thus shown to be non-existent (much to the credit of all concerned) work was not discontinued. The author of this volume and his companions devoted themselves most successfully to the survey of the archipelago, the recording of meteorological and magnetic observations, and the exploration of the natural history and geology of the region.

This work was carried on under difficult conditions. In addition to the usual discomforts of the Arctic regions—low temperature, storms, darkness, and isolation—the swift currents between the islands kept the ice constantly in motion, while rapid and extreme changes of temperature, from intense

frost to the slush and humidity of a sudden thaw, were experienced to an extent not known in other parts of the Arctic. The expanses of open water due to these changes, on the other hand, were beneficial in attracting animal life, especially polar bears and walrus, which gave the explorers frequent opportunities for hunting and large supplies of fresh meat, to which their very general exemption from ill health was probably due. The number of bears killed the first year was over sixty, but the second year only twenty-five, and the third year only twelve, showing, as the author justly remarks, that hunting had greatly reduced their numbers, and that if it were continued it would take but a few years to kill off all the large game of the vicinity.

The expedition sailed from the Thames July 12, 1894, on the *Windward*, a bark-rigged vessel with very feeble auxiliary steam-power, and drawing somewhat less than eighteen feet when loaded. They proceeded to Archangel for supplies, and then to Yugor Strait, where thirty dogs were taken aboard. After some delay, due to grounding on a mud-bank, the party finally sailed for their destination August 16, and reached Cape Flora, Northbrook Island, September 7. This is near the southern and western end of the group, and winter quarters were established with the utmost practicable speed. The season proved early, and, the *Windward* being unable to get away, her crew were obliged to winter, adding considerably to the responsibilities of the commander of the expedition.

The exploring party consisted of Mr. Jackson, Dr. R. Koettlitz, surgeon and geologist; Harry Fisher, naturalist; J. F. Child, mineralogist; and four men. Except the commander, none of them had had any Arctic experience, and his had been but moderate. A novelty was the employment in their sledging of three small Russian ponies, which proved to be superior to dogs, and are regarded by Jackson as eminently adapted for Arctic work. Two sledge journeys were made in the spring of 1895, and on the 3d of July the *Windward* was released from the ice, and started on her homeward voyage. A little later, explorations were attempted in a whaleboat, and the party, after some successful work, were very near disaster in stormy weather, but finally reached the winter quarters in an exhausted state. A very singular phenomenon was observed on the 30th of July, when the sky, between nimbus clouds and the horizon, seemed to be filled with white non-luminous strips resembling laths, irregularly distributed, and for which no explanation is even suggested. Another sledge journey was undertaken in March and April, 1896, when some new land was discovered and much surveying done.

On June 17, 1896, the great event of the expedition occurred. A man was seen on the floe three or four miles south southeast from Cape Flora, and Jackson hurried to meet him. It proved to be Nansen, and his faithful companion Johansen was not far off:

> "They had a lump or two of evil-looking walrus meat and two or three draggled-looking looms (guillemots) in their kayaks, which was all the food they had with them, poor chaps. . . . . A more remarkable meeting than ours was never heard of. Nansen did not know I was in Franz-Josef Land, as I did not leave England till a year after he started on his expedition, and I had not the smallest idea he was then within hundreds of miles of me; in addition to that, Nansen was very uncertain indeed as to what part of the world he was in" (p. 513).

Jackson believes that if their ammunition had held out, Nansen and Johansen might have lived through another winter in Franz-Josef Land, but that they could not have crossed in their leaky canvas canoes the belt of open water and moving ice which separates the western extreme of the group from the nearest part of Spitsbergen by a distance of more than one hundred and sixty miles. In this opinion we think him entirely justified. In fifteen months the Norwegians had travelled seven hundred miles, or an average of fifty miles or less per month, over comparatively solid ice. Allowing for storms and other delays, three miles a day was a good average for their progress when actually travelling. At this rate the minimum time of crossing to Spitsbergen would have been fifty-three days, if we take no account of wind or currents. They could not have carried food for this period in their canoes, nor is it likely that they could have supplied themselves by the way. In fact, the meeting with the English party at Cape Flora must be regarded as providential, and, humanly speaking, the salvation of the two wanderers from the North.

On the 26th of July the *Windward* arrived with news, provisions, and other supplies, but, to Jackson's disappointment, instead of more ponies some useless reindeer were sent, which died almost immediately. On the 7th of August she left, taking Nansen and his companion to Vardo. Another winter passed, and in March, 1897, another sledge trip was made, reaching latitude 80° 56′ and involving the usual hardships. The mass of the western land of the archipelago was encircled by the explorers' track. The last of the faithful ponies succumbed on this occasion. Open water, slush, and wet were the cause of much discomfort and delay. On the 8th of May they reached Cape Flora on their return. On the 22d of July the *Windward* arrived for the last time, and the expedition started home August 6, and on the 3d of September arrived in the Thames.

The work is written without literary skill, and might have been condensed in some parts with advantage. The ordinary statistics which might have been formulated in a few pages have to be searched for, and are often not to be found; for instance, the tonnage of the *Windward* is nowhere stated. For reference the book would have been much improved by fuller headings to the chapters, since the index, though voluminous, is far from good. The weight of the volume amounts to a positive discomfort, as it cannot be held for more than a few minutes in the hands. These criticisms made, we can freely express our admiration for the courage, persistency, and good fellowship which seem to have animated the whole party; the frank and unaffected manner in which Mr. Jackson has related his adventures; and our appreciation of the solid results obtained, in spite of the inexperience of practically the whole party. The work done, if less brilliant, is far more useful and serviceable to science than much of that which has been widely praised and lavishly rewarded.

The volume is generously illustrated, and contains excellent appendices on the ornithology, botany, geology, palæontology, and meteorology of Franz-Josef Land. The record of auroras is remarkably complete. A chapter on scurvy supports the theory that this disease is due to the ingestion of ptomaines in minute quantities, in connection with salt food. That this may be one of the causes is entirely probable, but that ptomaines alone are capable of producing scurvy will hardly be believed by those who have had the opportunity of observing the diet of many northern tribes. The observations of this expedition have put a quietus on plans for using the Franz-Josef archipelago as a base for polar research. Taken in connection with the work of the *Fram*, they go far toward proving that these islands are simply a cluster on the border of a deep polar sea, and that there is no reason for supposing that any other land of consequence lies to the northward of them. The elimination of an unfit route is almost as great a boon as the discovery of a possibly fit one. At present (barring drifts like that of the *Fram*, not to be counted on as necessarily successful), practically only the Smith Sound route remains advisable. This has been for some time the belief of many Arctic experts, and Jackson's discoveries go far toward making the consensus of opinion unanimous in this respect.

History of the Civil War, 1861-1865; Being Volume VI. of the History of the United States of America under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. 647.

Mr. Schouler's new volume is a successful effort to condense the history of the civil war into the compass of a single handbook. Such a plan excludes the extended debate of open questions whether of fact or of policy, and demands rather the narrative of events as the author conceives them to have been, without the presentation at large of the evidence or the reasoning which underlies his conclusions. It is only in this way that handbooks can be made, and history brought within the scope demanded for textbooks in colleges and secondary schools. The sources and the discussion of them will be reached in another way.

Mr. Schouler's work is marked by an earnest national spirit, inspired by undoubting faith in the cause which Mr. Lincoln represented, and a full conviction that the President's course was that which the outcome proved as wise as it was patriotic. The book represents, therefore, the general conclusions to which the mass of the people have come who heartily upheld the national cause against the great rebellion. This is not done in a perfunctory way, but is based upon broad study of the period, assisted by personal recollection and experience of the author.

Anticipating the real usefulness of the book in the scope above indicated, a few minor errors may be noted by way of assisting in making it more complete. Speaking of the period of the assembling of forces preparatory to the first battle of Bull Run, the author says: "Johnston and Beauregard were two of the five generals now ranking highest in the Confederacy" (p. 77). Only four "generals" had then been appointed. Beauregard was a brigadier in the Southern Provisional Army, and was promoted to the rank of general later, for his services in this battle. (The same error is repeated on p. 88.) Mentioning Sherman, Keyes, Hunter, Burnside, Heintzelman, Franklin, and Howard, as officers who took part on the national side in the same

battle and afterward attained distinction, Mr. Schouler adds, "But Daniel Tyler, the brigadier under whom these served on the present march, although himself from West Point, had seen little active service, and gained no later renown" (p. 78). Only the first two of the list given were subordinates of Tyler. The army was constituted of five divisions, of which Tyler's was one, and all these were under the immediate command of General McDowell.

We are told (p. 85) that after McClellan's campaign of Rich Mountain in West Virginia, "Rebellion never again penetrated the Kanawha Valley, but was forced eastward of the mountain frontier into Virginia proper." The actions at Rich Mountain and Carrick's Ford were not in the Kanawha Valley, from which the Confederates were not driven till McClellan had assumed command at Washington. They reoccupied the Kanawha Valley in the early fall of 1862, and were again expelled in October of that year.

The statement that Gen. Harney was relieved of command in Missouri because he did not comply with a request of Gov. Yates of Illinois for arms from the St. Louis arsenal (p. 91) is inaccurate. Neither Harney nor Lyon had authority to fill requisitions from State Governors except upon orders from the War Department. Yates asked Secretary Cameron for such an order, and got it. Meanwhile Harney had been relieved for other reasons, and Lyon, being in command when the order to supply Yates arrived, obeyed it. In the scramble for the best arms for the volunteers, in which the executives of all the States took part, it was a necessity to keep the distribution in the Secretary's own control.

On page 204 it is said that "when Johnston was disabled [at Seven Pines], Lee, who had counselled much at Richmond headquarters, now took the Virginia command for the rest of the war." Lee was already, by order of President Davis, in command of all the forces in Virginia, of which the Army of Northern Virginia was a part. He now took personal command of that army in the field. The somewhat obscure relation of these officers was analyzed in the *Nation* of December 23, 1897, under the caption, "Lee, Johnston, and Davis."

The battle-field of the second Bull Run is said (p. 211) to have been "in the Wilderness." We think that proper name was always confined to the small region around Chancellorsville, south of the Rapidan. The name, whether a proper or common noun, would not apply to the battle-field about Groveton.

In the footnote to page 315, the author says: "Sherman and some other commanders found fault with agents of the Sanitary Commission for coming to the front with local gifts to distribute, and refused them entrance unless they would divide their good things among all the troops." By "the Sanitary Commission" should be meant the United States Sanitary Commission, *par excellence* the great agency of private philanthropy in the war. This never discriminated in favor of troops from particular States or places. Local organizations for aiding special troops were comparatively small, when they existed, and should be carefully distinguished from the great one.

In describing Lee's preparation for the campaign of Gettysburg, we are told (p. 351) that "Longstreet had now brought back his contingent from the West to the Rappahannock line." Longstreet did not take his corps to the West till after the Gettysburg campaign, and they did not return till the spring of 1864. Longstreet had been personally detained by operations on the south side of the James, near the Atlantic Coast, so that he was not at Chancellorsville, but was on his way to join Lee.

Mr. Schouler has not unravelled the vexed question of the immediate cause of Hooker's request to be relieved, June 27, 1863. He says: "Halleck overruled him, . . . by refusing to let him abandon Maryland Heights and use its garrison elsewhere," and, "piqued to the quick, Hooker, after a brief discussion by wire, gave vent to his ill-smothered anger by asking to be relieved at once from his command" (p. 356). It is necessary to distinguish between Harper's Ferry in the angle of the Potomac and the Shenandoah, in Virginia, and Maryland Heights on the north side of the Potomac, opposite the Ferry. Maryland Heights, overlooking and commanding Harper's Ferry, had been regarded as a citadel to the latter since Jackson's capture of that place in the previous year, and had been carefully fortified to be held by a small garrison. The Ferry was a large post of some ten thousand men. On the 24th, Halleck had informed Hooker that the troops in Harper's Ferry and vicinity were subject to his orders. On the 26th, Hooker asked if there was any reason why Maryland Heights should not be abandoned. Halleck answered on the morning of the 27th that the Heights had always been regarded as important, and much expense and labor had been used in fortifying them; he therefore could not approve their abandonment except in case of absolute necessity. Hooker's dispatch asking to be relieved gave, as the ground, that his original orders required him to "cover" Harper's Ferry and Washington, which he was now unable to do. It said nothing of the previous question as to Maryland Heights. A separate dispatch, sent immediately before, assumed that Halleck had refused to allow him to use the garrison at Harper's Ferry, which was not true. No better is the common statement, which Mr. Schouler repeats, that Meade was, in this respect, given authority refused to Hooker. Meade asked on the 28th, "Am I permitted, under existing circumstances, to withdraw a portion of the garrison of Harper's Ferry, providing I leave sufficient force to hold Maryland Heights against a *coup de main*?" Halleck answered: "The garrison at Harper's Ferry is under your orders. You can diminish or increase it as you think the circumstances justify." Not a word in this was inconsistent with Hooker's instructions.

The mention of a gunboat "under Col. Ellet of the Marines" running the gauntlet at Vicksburg (p. 381) is not exact. The Ellets did not belong to the corps of marines, but were army volunteer officers. Gen. Ellet's fleet of gunboats was organized by him under special authority from the Secretary of War.

Burnside is said (p. 442) to have entered Knoxville "by slow marches." His march from Kentucky over the mountains was remarkable for its steady, long marches, every day, making a high daily average. The statement on p. 455 that "a prime object" of his movement was "the reinforcement of Rosecrans toward Chattanooga" is incorrect. Had that been the purpose, the union of the two columns might have been made before starting, for they moved simultaneously. The liberation of East Tennessee was Burnside's task. His protection of Rosecrans's flank as both advanced was an incidental result.

After retreating from Gettysburg and crossing into Virginia, Lee made his way up the Shenandoah Valley, not down, as is said on p. 481.

These are mostly trifling corrections, but a book which may deservedly be a guide to the studies of the young and to the general reader, will be made still better by removing even the little blemishes in the narrative.

The County Palatine of Durham: A Study in Constitutional History. By Gaillard Thomas Lapsley, Ph.D. (Harvard Historical Studies, vol. vii.) Longmans. 1900.

It is hardly to be wondered at that the study of mediæval history should never have flourished in this country. It has seemed too remote from the interests of practical life; and it has been usual to say that the materials are inaccessible. That this latter difficulty is not insuperable has been shown by the repeated rummagings in the archives of Simancas by American scholars, who have hit upon subjects attractive to their people; and with regard to very many matters which certainly need investigation, the difficulty has been greatly exaggerated. For the current respect for "unprinted documents" is rapidly becoming a mere superstition. As the long rows of the "Monumenta," of the "Rolls Series," of the "Patrologia," of publications like those of the Surtees Society or the École des Chartes creep further and further round our library shelves, the dust begins to settle upon them, and it will soon be as notable an achievement to find something hidden in Pertz as to print a new fragment of material. It is, therefore, chiefly the apparent want of connection between mediæval and modern life which explains the phenomenon to which we refer; and that it should have this result is the most natural thing in the world. It may be doubted whether even scholarly Germany has produced any considerable treatise on the Middle Ages which has not been prompted by some supposed bearing of the subject on the fortunes of the German people itself.

And yet there is one mediæval field in which American scholars have already done substantial and fruitful work, and that is the domain of English legal institutions. The 'Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law' of Mr. Henry Adams and his associates, the 'Anglo-Norman Procedure' of Mr. Bigelow, and 'The Common Law' of Mr. Holmes, preceded the rise of the new school of legal history in England; and Mr. Chief Justice Holmes, in particular, may in some sort be looked upon as the spiritual parent of Professor Maitland. But this exception illustrates the rule, for legal history is the one part of mediæval life which is of interest to any large number of cultivated Americans. Even the most utilitarian of law schools cannot altogether dispense with history. Yet even this particular impulse seems almost exhausted just now; certainly Mr. Thayer's 'Development of Trial by Jury'

stands almost alone among the legal publications of the last few years.

Mr. Lapsley's treatise on the County Palatine of Durham, now before us, marks, let us hope, the beginning of a fresh movement towards historical investigation which shall not be limited to law and legal procedure, but shall concern itself with the whole range of mediæval English life. It is the literary first-fruits of the labors at Harvard of Prof. Gross, whom Mr. Lapsley very properly refers to as his "friend and master." This means—and the point is important—that it is the direct outcome of college and graduate school training; for it is as part of the ordinary work of the historical departments of our universities that the study of the Middle Ages must find its home, if anywhere. Only if the ordinary intelligent American undergraduate can be made to realize that modern history is but half understood without some knowledge of its background, can we expect mediæval studies to flourish in this country.

Certainly it is a matter for congratulation that so important a feature in the constitutional structure of mediæval England as the Durham palatinate should have been first critically examined and elucidated by an American scholar. Mr. Lapsley's production is a model of what such work should be. First thoroughly grounded in general constitutional lore; next becoming master of all the printed sources accessible in libraries; then collecting a great mass of additional information at the Record Office; and finally, with infinite patience, disentangling the involved threads and systematically arranging his material so as to answer every question that the subject can well suggest, Mr. Lapsley has produced a treatise which is likely long to remain authoritative, and which will enormously facilitate the toils of future historians.

The three English palatinates of Durham, Chester, and Lancaster enjoyed an amount of local independence quite unknown in the rest of England. They were, indeed, the nearest analogues to the great fiefs of France that England produced; and the question of their origin and character is really one of wide significance, since its answer throws light on both sides of the Channel. Mr. Lapsley shows good reason for believing that it was Bishop Hugh de Puiset or Pudsey—the name is just the same as that of the Dr. Pusey of our own time—who was the real founder of the palatinate. Dr. Stubbs long ago, with one of his happy phrases, referred to this great prince prelate of the early years of the thirteenth century, who "lived in three-quarters independence between the Kings of Scots and English." We now learn what exactly was the conjuncture of circumstances which enabled Hugh de Puiset to place his court on a level higher than that of any other feudal court in England. As to the sources of the Bishop of Durham's authority, Mr. Lapsley comes to the familiar conclusion in these evolutionary days—foreshadowed in the autobiography of Topsy: like everything else, it "growed." Reverence for St. Cuthbert and the needs of border defence combined to create a great franchise; and when, in the time of Henry III. and Edward I., the lawyers felt the need of some special term to describe the situation, they borrowed from Champagne and the Rhine the word "palatinus," which had the additional merit of being vague.

The one overmastering intellectual influence discernible in almost every page of the book is that of Professor Maitland. It is this which gives it the legal turn that is so very noticeable. It is the growth of the palatinate judiciary, and all the difficult questions which arose from its position at once of parallelism and of subordination to the royal courts—from the largest issues concerning competence down to the details of enforcement—which mainly engage our author's attention. And here, so far as we can judge, his conclusions are usually solidly supported and soundly argued. It is true that there are other aspects of the position of the one princely bishopric of England which deserve some attention; but Mr. Lapsley has probably done well to limit his field. As it is, his range is wide enough; and within that range—though there are points on which we might be inclined to interpret somewhat differently the evidence with which he presents us—his success is as nearly as possible complete.

The Redemption of Egypt. By W. Basil Worsfold, M.A., Barrister-at-Law. Longmans. 1899. Pp. xvii+333. Illustrations.

Pyramids and Progress: Sketches from Egypt. By John Ward, F.S.A. With an Introduction by the Rev. Professor Sayce. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. 1900. Pp. xx+288. Illustrations.

Egypt has proved of late a fertile mother of books. "With notes and preface, all that most allures the pious (*lege* patriotic) purchaser," England pours them out like the Nile stream itself. They range from excellent through very indifferent, but each may fairly claim to have brought out some one fresh aspect at least of a strangely monotonous and simple yet many-sided and many-colored life and land. In no other country do the old and the new, the East and the West, join so nearly. Scraps of the epigram and the moralizing of the Greeks and Romans rise involuntarily as we turn the pages of each new book. The superstitions teeming from the soil, the something always new from Africa, the land the gift of the river—all the worn old phrases of the schoolroom—come back and range themselves with railroad bridges of American iron, guard-tents with kilted Highland sentries, *kūkī*-tourists in swarms, and donkeys that answer to Washington and Yankee Doodle. With each new book the picture grows in some details; fresh colors come out; present and past become more real. Seldom has a country been so described and fared so well with its describers. From the classic works—classic in senses which seem different and still are the same—of Herodotus and Lane, through all the ruck of tourists with an itch for proof-sheets and immortality, the spirit of the land—a spirit, in spite of all, of beauty and strangeness and peace—has shown its power, and even the merest turner of a hackneyed phrase is touched and changed to something less commonplace. The old soil from century to century makes its people for itself, and makes over, too, the ever-gathering crowd of describers for its people.

Mr. Worsfold is an English barrister with a taste for sketching and architecture, a keen eye for industrial developments and possibilities, trained experience as a traveller and book-maker, and a not too insistent personality. He does not bore his reader with the hairbreadth escapes of the tourist in hotels and on donkeys; he writes of what he has seen as artist and publicist. His book is one of great external beauty. His drawings, both those in black and white and the chalk and water-color sketches, have been admirably reproduced. Scattered among them are only a few photographs of the machine-made and process-cut order. His own work is marked by a curious combination of architectural drawing and impressionism which is original and refreshing. His matter, also, has high interest and value. As a lawyer Mr. Worsfold is naturally attracted to legal things, and his account of the different courts in Egypt and of the extent to which the English reforms have succeeded and have failed is the work of a specialist. With the courts administering Canon law, he tells us, only the merest beginning has been made; and yet their need is plain when we learn that the judges in them prefer to hear a string of claims in five, ten, or twenty cases, and will then adjourn to a future sitting the hearing of the corresponding string of defences. Even in the civil courts the education of the native judges can only be slow. Referring to Nubar Pasha's famous dictum, "Justice and water," Mr. Worsfold sums up with truth, "The great reservoir of Shellâl with its ancillary canals will speedily give Egypt 'water'; but the Egyptians must give themselves 'justice.'" In describing the educational system—an excellent chapter—he similarly brings out an essential point, the necessity of education for girls. It is useless to educate the boys so long as their future wives are left untaught; after marriage the one pulls the other hopelessly down. This is the true solution of the old problem how the washed and taught Oriental can be kept from returning again, as he always hitherto has done, to his Orientalism. And these are things which we, too, must now learn, and which make the value for us of books like this. We have not space to pursue further details.

Nor can we delay over the account of cotton as king, of the condition of the Fellahin, who seem very well able to take care of themselves, of railways under the burden of the *Caisse*, of sugar and finance, of local government and irrigation. There is little in all that of beauty and peace, though much of learning, of balanced good sense, and of observation. But the real book for the author, we are persuaded, lay in that charming half which tells of the architecture of Egypt, ancient and mediæval, as art and history, and which lingers lovingly over the work of long-dead craftsmen who had wrought in a sad sincerity. Mr. Worsfold is no great antiquary, and we may be thankful for it, though he occasionally, as an educated Englishman must, tells us things that he has found in his Strabo or his Herodotus. But it is evident that for him ancient, just as mediæval, Egypt is a study in art and not a jumble of Pharaohs, mummies, and pseudo-comparative religion. He gives us an exquisite crayon sketch of the Pyramids, and labors to analyze their æsthetic impressiveness. Before this problem we must leave him with regret and commendation.

Mr. Ward is a different man and has written a different book. It has a very useless three-page introduction by Prof. Sayce, a facsimile of a fourteen-word letter from

Lord Cromer accepting the dedication, and an immense store of illustrations from the publications of the Egypt Exploration Fund, from photographs, and from sketches and paintings. These have in no way the distinction and freshness of Mr. Worsfold's drawings, and yet they constitute the chief value of the book. In it the appeal to the patriotic public is more pronounced. It tells us about the Sirdar and Lord Cromer until we are weary, and Dr. Petrie becomes like to Aristides the Just. It takes thought also for the tourist; to him it may prove very useful. Mr. Ward is curiously swayed between the Pyramids and the Sphinx and the comforts of the Saltmarket to be found in the Mena House hotel. He has roughed it in Egypt, and he gives entertaining tales of those adventures—the best part of the letter-press of his book; but his eye is keen for strategic hotel sites, and Mr. Thomas Cook is a potentate of only lesser sway than the Sirdar. To others than tourists it is his last thirty pages that will most appeal. These give a really full account, with plans and photographs, of the modern "binding of the Nile" with its three curbs of stone, the great reservoir at Assuan, the lesser at Assiut, and the Cairo barrage. It is the most complete and detailed description of the actual work that we have seen as yet in popular form.

The Caroline Islands. By F. W. Christian. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. 8vo, pp. xiv, 401; maps and illustrations.

The author of this work was at one time a resident of Samoa and associate of Robert Louis Stevenson, a cultivator of economic plants, and a student of Polynesian philology. His studies led him to Tahiti and the Marquesas and, in 1895, to Micronesia. The present volume contains an account of the last named journey with a summary of its results.

The Caroline archipelago extends for nearly two thousand miles between the parallels of 5° and 10° north latitude, east of the meridian of 134° east from Greenwich. It comprises more than thirty minor groups of coral or volcanic islands, a number of which exhibit notable eruptive masses of columnar basalt. It is inhabited by a mixed race, a cross between round-headed, light-colored Malay folk and the long-headed, almost black, crisp-haired, earlier islanders, the so-called Melanesians. The people of different islands exhibit marked differences of character, some being hospitable, kindly folk, others surly and suspicious, while in general all are fine specimens of physical development, deeply attached to their tribal independence, obedient to their chiefs, and vehement haters of the Spaniard. The commercial products are few and not very important: copra or dried cocoanut meat, pearl and tortoise-shell, and ivory nuts. In Ponapé and some of the other islands flourishing Methodist missions existed when, in July, 1886, the Spanish flag was raised. Within a year Catholic missions were started, and the inevitable friction that followed resulted in the final expulsion of the Protestant missionaries, and the confiscation of much mission property, for which, in 1890, an indemnity of seventeen thousand dollars gold was demanded by the United States and paid; more serious consequences were hostilities between the Spanish authorities and the natives, which came to a head in 1887, and have continued intermittently until now. The Spanish suffered severe losses from time to time, and it remains to be seen if the transfer to Germany and the consequent diminution of the *odium theologicum* will bring peace to these sturdy islanders.

For many years curious stories have been told, by wanderers visiting these regions, of massive stone fortifications, breakwaters, and canals, existing upon Ponapé, Ualan, and other islands, the handiwork of some race unknown to the present islanders. The exploration of some of these ruins is, to the general reader, the most interesting part of the work done by Mr. Christian. The late J. S. Kubary, well known to ethnologists, had, as an agent of the Godeffroys, somewhat earlier visited these ruins, and the two explorers were fortunate enough to meet, exchange impressions, and come to a common conclusion in regard to them.

The two principal groups of ruins are situated upon Ponapé and Ualan respectively. In the former case the stone constructions occupy an area of some eleven square miles, including the canals and spaces which separate over fifty walled islets, and an enormous breakwater on two sides, protecting this Micronesian Venice from the breakers of the Pacific. The enclosures or walls are generally rectangular in plan, with a slightly retreating outer face, sometimes reaching a height of 40 feet and a thickness of 8 to 18. The chief Ponapean group of ruins is on the southeast side of the island, next to Metalanim harbor. Here, acording to native legend, two deified heroes, Olo-chipa and Olo-chopa, built by magic spells the breakwater of Nan-moluchai and the island city it shuts in. They caused the great masses of stone to fly through the air like birds, each settling into its proper place. The stones, which often weigh several tons, are natural prisms of basalt, and, according to Kubary, were rafted down from the Not district on the north coast of Ponapé, and by means of rollers, inclined planes, and main strength hauled into place. They are laid alternately longitudinal and transverse to the plane of the wall, without any kind of mortar, and hold their positions by their weight alone, like children's blockhouses. The legends of Ponapé tell of the conquest of the island by a fierce Melanesian people who destroyed the earlier culture, and whose leader ruled with a rod of iron, after his death becoming the war god, Icho-kalakal of the present inhabitants. An upper-caste and a lower-caste language still exist on the island, and two of the principal clans trace their descent from the conqueror.

The enclosures appear to be partly fortresses, partly temples or holy places, and partly mausoleums. The author considers the group of Nan-matal, on Ponapé, as a town built out of the water by a sea-faring race, not, as Hale thought, a land city which has sunk. He agrees with Kubary that the stone buildings are the work of a long-headed black race preceding the present inhabitants, and that they afford no evidence of subsidence. Excavations in what are regarded as tombs resulted in the discovery of shell beads, fishhooks, axes of the Tridacna shell, needles, pendants, and carved shell bracelets. A bit of obsidian and a single fragment of iron also turned up, together with many fragments of human bones. A cemetery on the main island was also visited. It is by legend referred to a dwarf negrito race said to have preceded both Polynesian and Melanesian populations. Subsequently on Lele, an accessory islet of Kusaie or Ualan, other ruins, similarly titanic, but ruder and less extensive, were visited and measured.

The ethnologic information given is rather scrappy, as the author seems to have been less interested in this than in the philologic branch of his investigations. Nevertheless, much that is curious may be gleaned from his narrative. One of the most interesting items describes the huge perforated limestone disks which form a unique kind of aboriginal money, on the island of Yap. He finds the language bearing traces of Sanskrit and Dravidian as well as Malay and even Mongolian root-words, and enters into wide comparisons which seem to justify this conclusion.

The book is lavishly illustrated and well printed, and may be regarded as a valuable contribution to the knowledge of a rapidly diminishing race daily losing their aboriginal characteristics, many of which will be for ever lost to science unless other students soon follow to gather the remaining fragments while they may.

Voces Usadas en Chile. Por Aníbal Echeverría i Reyes. Santiago: Imprenta Elzeviriana. 1900. Pp. xxii+246. 12mo.

In these days, when the Anglo-Saxon of the "strenuous-life" sect insists upon giving new ideas and new vices to Filipinos and Samoans by way of the cannon and the sword, it is refreshing to discover evidences of the peaceful triumphs of the English tongue in lands far distant from the place of its birth. For this reason, were there no other, the study of "Chilianisms" whose title is given above deserves more than passing notice. The author is a lawyer of Santiago, whose scholarship is vouched for by the University of Chile and by Dr. Rodolfo Lenz, the well-known Americanist. The bibliography (pp. 1-11) surprises us with the proof it contains of the thoroughness with which, both with respect to the contributions of the aborigines to the speech of their conquerors, and with respect to the independent developments of Spanish and Portuguese speech upon the soil of the New World, the provincialisms of Mexico, Central and South America, Cuba, etc., have been studied upon the spot.

Echeverría's book, the best yet published in Chile on the subject, will be of great value to the philologist on account of the phonetic, morphologic, and lexicographic data to be found in the first part. Most interesting, perhaps, are the "vulgarisms"; here the havoc played with Castilian sounds, accents, and genders is most apparent. In *urse* it is difficult to recognize *dulce*, while *poirio* is rather unlike *podrido*, *éi* unlike *ahí*. But it is the psychological and sociological facts revealed in a book like this that are of most importance. The up-to-date character of Echeverría's vocabulary is proved by its inclusion of "bordereau," "Boers," and "Uitlanders." French and Italian have naturally had some influence upon the Chilian language, but the inroads of English have surpassed them both. To other languages than the latter, or at least not to it directly, are due: *Automóvil*, *bambino*, *bébé*, *bonhomía*, *buqué* (*bouquet* of wine), *crême* (*cream* of society), *diva*, *dilettante*, *fanciulla*, *grippe*, *madonna*, *menu*,

mercì, rêverie; German has given *bock, kirsch, talweg* (and a few other mining or topographical terms).

Some of the English words are somewhat disguised. Not at first sight would one recognize all of the following: *Breack* (*brake*, carriage), *cocke* (*i. e.*, coke), *chelin* (shilling), *espich* (speech), *macadan* (macadam), *monis* (money), *panqueque* (pancake), *queque* (cake), *stater* (*starter*, in a race), *turista* (tourist), *ulter* (ulster). To give the full list of English words adopted into the local and general speech of Chile and their sociological and psychological significances would be, in a sense, to sum up the story of our race. *Sport* is there, writ large; in this most English-like of all South American countries *el football* has met a hearty welcome, and the vocabulary fairly bristles with the technical terms belonging to the game. We find also *cricket, lawn-tennis, box* (also *boxear* and *boxeador*), *skating-rink*, etc. The sports and industries in which the horse is a factor give *four-in-hand, handicap, sweepstakes, hack, paddock, cab, tandem, stud-book, turf, match, meeting.* Society is responsible for *at home, club, fashionable, flirt* (and the verb *flirtear*), *dandy, high-life*, and a few others. Politics furnishes *bill, budget, speech, leader, self-government*, but the "boss" has apparently not yet reached Chile. A certain marked feature of Anglo-Saxon civilization contributes, in characteristic fashion, *bar, bitter(s), brandy, coctail, gin, grog, punch, whisky.* Trade and commerce have supplied *clipper, dock, coke* (*cocke*), *check, express* (train), *steamer, stok, wagon, yacht, tranway*, etc. *Schilling* is there, and *schocking*, but not "shilling shocker." Among words that may almost lay claim to world-citizenship may be mentioned the following: *beefteck, bulldog, baby, clown, dollar, humbug, interview, kodak, lunch, Miss, Mister, picnic* (here *Pic Nic*), *plum-pudding, struggle-for-life, toast, whist, gentleman, Lloyd, snob.* From English the Chilians, not quite like the French, get also their *watter-closset.* The United States in particular is responsible for *Lager beer, pilsener, coc(k)tail, rocking-chair, Mormon, lynchar* (to "lynch"), *Yankee.*

Of the words of American Indian origin in the list many have to do with quite local matters and objects, but others, *ají* (pepper), *cacique, charqui* (*jerked* meat), *chicha, Gaucho, paco, puma, puna, pampa*, are more widely known, belonging to other Spanish-American dialects as well. The much-discussed *gringo* means in Chile "an Englishman," and the Othomis of old Mexico are remembered in *Otomías*, "barbarities, wantonnesses." There is even a warning for the would-be constructors of the Nicaragua Canal, for, in Chile, *Panamá* has come to signify "fraud." May the warning avail something!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Banks, C. E. Sword and Cross. Rand, McNally & Co.
Bolton, Prof. F. E. The Secondary School System of Germany. Appletons. $1.50.
Cobb, T. The Judgment of Helen. John Lane.
De Foe, D. A Journal of the Plague Year. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Furneaux, H. Cornelii Taciti Opera Minora. Henry Frowde. 2s.
Goodyear, W. H. Renaissance and Modern Art. Macmillan. $1.
Herrick, S. M. Thoughtful Hours. Cincinnati: The Literary Shop.
Kinnosuké, A. Iroka: Tales of Japan. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Lucas, E. V. The Open Road: A Little Book for Wayfarers. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Mathers, Helen. The Lovely Malincourt. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Official Proceedings of the International Commercial Congress. Philadelphia: The Philadelphia Commercial Museum.
Poole, R. L. Historical Atlas of Modern Europe. Part XXV. Henry Frowde.
Rushforth, G. M. Carlo Crivelli. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Smith, D. E. The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics. Macmillan. $1.
Swift, J. Battle of the Books. Cassells. 10c.
Tennyson, Alfred Lord. The Princess, and Other Poems. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Vols. LXI. and LXII. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Titherington, R. H. A History of the Spanish-American War. Appletons. $1.50.
Tynan, Katharine. She Walks in Beauty. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Walker, T. A. A History of the Law of Nations. Macmillan. Vol. I. $3.
Wilkins, Mary E. The Love of Parson Lord. Harpers. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1900.

The Week.

The House of Representatives passed last week, by a vote of 172 to 161, the bill imposing a tariff upon Porto Rico. Six Republicans refused to support the measure. Two other Republicans who stood with them in opposition, and four Democrats who would have voted on the same side, were absent, and pairs could not be arranged for them. If they had been present, the division would have been 172 to 167. Four Democrats voted with the Republicans. If they had stood with their party, the bill would have been beaten, in a House with every member accounted for, by 168 yeas to 171 nays. The success of the measure was thus due to the reinforcement of the bulk of the Republicans by two Democrats from Louisiana, one from California, and one (Sibley) from Pennsylvania. The two Southerners and the Westerner frankly confessed that they voted with the Republicans for a tariff on a starving people because they were afraid that their constituents would suffer from the competition of our new possessions. The bill now goes to the Senate. The duty of all who have fought it while it was before the House is to keep up that fight. Indeed, they should now redouble their efforts to avert the national disgrace involved in the enactment of the bill into a law. The contention should be made in behalf of the national honor. Questions of Constitutional construction are interesting subjects for discussion, but the issue of good faith in redeeming our pledges to a suffering people is the fundamental one.

One of the most grotesque features of a debate which has called out a rather unusual amount of cant, has been the claim that the Porto Ricans would starve unless they were heavily taxed. No doubt, it was said, they would like to be relieved of taxation; but it was absolutely impossible for us to carry out our benevolent intentions without making the Porto Ricans furnish the money for it. We propose to "give" them good roads, public schools, improved police, etc., which will require the creation of many offices, to be held by Americans not born in Porto Rico. These officers must of course be paid, and it is thought to be highly unreasonable and shamefully ungrateful for the Porto Ricans to object to being taxed for the purpose of paying them. It was gravely stated in Congress that, while the American people were a generous people, they had not the slightest disposition to tax themselves for the benefit of their new subjects. In fact, "Destiny" had once more to assume responsibility. It was very sad that the Porto Ricans were suffering; but, in the first place, we were bound to make them pay for the process of benevolent assimilation; and, in the second place, we were going to be extremely careful that no Porto Rican claims should be allowed to have weight against American interests. Unfortunately for the success of this appeal to the absolute necessities of the case, it was pointed out that the people of the United States had always regularly taxed themselves for the support of Territorial governments, and had never regarded it as too great a strain on their generosity. In Arizona, for instance, there is a Governor whose salary is paid by the federal Government; and there are other Territorial officers supported in the same way. There are four judges, receiving $12,000 a year, with provision for their clerks and bailiffs. There are numerous other contributions made by the general Government for Territorial purposes, at least $40,000 being appropriated for education.

The action of the House of Representatives on Friday in voting, after only forty minutes' debate, to put more than $2,000,000 in the President's hands, "to be used for the government and benefit of Porto Rico," as he may think best, can be described only as an outbreak of hysteria. It is three months since Congress met and Mr. McKinley urged the immediate doing of our duty by this new possession, and, after letting the whole winter pass without doing anything, the Republican managers suddenly propose to put a great sum of money in the President's hands, to be disbursed in the island at his pleasure. This is no decent way to conduct a government. The system of voting money out of the Treasury by the millions, to be spent at the discretion of the Executive, is all wrong, and ought to be abandoned. As regards the principle of the bill, that, too, is wrong. Porto Rico asks justice, not charity; the keeping of our national pledges to give her freedom of trade with us—not grants from our Treasury as to a poor relation. The island must be helped, and some appropriation for its benefit ought to be made, but what the situation demands most is self-help, and that can come only from giving her the rights of trade which were promised her by the representative of our Government, a year and a half ago.

The McKinley Administration proposes to give Porto Rico, when it belongs to the United States, worse treatment than the last previous Republican Administration gave the island when it belonged to Spain. The President is forcing the passage of a law imposing 15 per cent. of Dingley tariff rates upon the Porto Ricans. On the 31st of July, 1891, Mr. Harrison issued a proclamation announcing the consummation of a reciprocity arrangement between the United States and Spain, by which sugar, molasses, coffee, and hides were to be imported from Porto Rico into the United States free from any duty whatever, while a list of 75 articles produced or manufactured in the United States were to be imported into Porto Rico free of duty. Is it any wonder that Representative Crumpacker of Indiana, who stood out to the last for treating Porto Rico as well now as we did ten years ago, finds himself the most popular man in the State which repudiates McKinley with scorn?

Secretary Root is left in a most unenviable position, both as public man and lawyer, by the definite statements now made in Washington that he himself drew, or, at least, approved, the bill taxing Porto Rico. One such statement comes directly from a member of the Ways and Means Committee, in search of a scapegoat. As a matter of political expediency, or elementary morality, Mr. Root's action needs only to be compared with his own words of last December, to show that he has made a huge blunder, which, for a politician, is worse than a crime. And as a great lawyer especially chosen to give the President expert legal advice on the whole question of insular government, what a humiliating thing it is for him that a country attorney from Connecticut should have had to instruct him in the Constitution! The truth is, however, that the pretence of laying a duty on Porto Rican goods solely in order to get a decision from the Supreme Court is the sheerest humbug. A case is already on the calendar involving the whole question. These pretended Constitutional scruples are transparent after-thoughts. The real anxiety was to find out, not if the Constitution extended to Porto Rico automatically, but if the President could be brought to his knees by Protection, *ex proprio vigore*. It is clear now that he can be.

Senator Davis has actually introduced amendments giving Porto Rico free trade, by the process of extending to the island such provisions of the Constitution as regulate taxation and prescribe its uniformity. Mr. Davis is a good lawyer, and his plan is cleverly designed to prevent a case coming before the Supreme Court. If the Republicans are wise, they will adopt this or some similar method of keeping the mat-

ter out of the courts pending the campaign. Otherwise, all their platforms and speeches will have to be written with an *if*. "This is the Republican policy *if* the Supreme Court does not declare it unconstitutional." What sort of battle-cry would that be? Senator Davis is one of Mr. McKinley's right-hand men, and his amendments ought to be taken as representing the Administration's policy—that is, its latest policy: it has a new one every day. We are the more inclined to believe this because we observe that the chairman of the State Republican committee of Indiana has flatly told the Executive—*i. e.*, Senator Hanna—that Indiana is lost to the party unless the Porto Rican policy is reversed.

The project for our buying the Danish West India Islands will not gain much strength from the recent struggle over the Porto Rican tariff bill. Yet we hear from time to time that the negotiations are still going on. The latest report is that an offer of $3,500,000 has been made to Denmark, conditioned, however, upon the willingness of Congress to appropriate the money. No reason has been advanced for our having the islands at all, if they were offered to us for nothing; or even if Denmark would give us a bonus for taking them, as she could well afford to do. A more worthless lot of real estate it would be hard to find, except in the great Libyan Desert; and as for the naval advantages which are supposed to belong to the islands, they no longer exist for us since we have Porto Rico, their nearest neighbor. It ought to give the Republicans a feeling of goneness when they ask themselves what kind of tariff they shall enact for the Danish Islands. Santa Cruz produces both sugar and oranges. Although the quantity she is capable of producing is smaller than that of Porto Rico, the principle is the same. If the islands were bought by us, we should have to fight the whole battle over again, with the chances of finding McKinley on both sides of the question.

Prof. John B. Moore of Columbia University contributed to the *Times* of Sunday an article on the Isthmian Canal and the Hay-Pauncefote treaty which ought to have a pretty wide circulation throughout the country, and especially among Senators and Representatives in Congress. He reviews the whole subject from the standpoint of international law, and reaches the general conclusion that the pending treaty ought to be ratified. He holds that the policy of a neutralized canal such as the treaty provides for is the historic policy of the United States, and that the opposing theory, rampant in the Hepburn report, is a new conception, in conflict with that historic policy; that if the Clayton-Bulwer treaty were abrogated, the situation would not be materially altered, since the neutralization of the canal is guaranteed by various other treaties; and that the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, while adhering to the policy of neutralization, gives important advantages to the United States in the way of local control and protection against lawlessness and disorder, which we should not have under preëxisting arrangements. The treaties which Nicaragua has made with foreign Powers, guaranteeing equality of rights and privileges in the use of any canal across her territory, are enumerated with their respective dates, all of which would be in full force even if the Clayton-Bulwer treaty were abrogated. Such treaties exist with Spain, France, Great Britain, and Italy; and the question naturally arises, What would these Powers say or do if the principles of the Hepburn report were sought to be carried into effect by us either with or without the consent of Nicaragua? We are now seeking to maintain the rights of trade secured to us by treaty with China, against the possible encroachment of those European Powers which have effected lodgment on her coast. How does that situation differ from the one which has been created in Nicaragua by similar treaties? The only way to set aside those treaties is for us to annex Nicaragua by force, and to defy the Powers whose rights with her we propose to nullify.

Mr. Isaac Seligman has pointed out a defect in the pending currency bill. Section 2 provides that United States notes when redeemed are to go into the reserve fund until exchanged for gold, and, while there, are to be counted with the gold in making up the reserve of $150,000,000 which is not to be exceeded. If the gold in the reserve fund should fall below $100,000,000, the Treasury might sell $50,000,000 worth of bonds, and the reserve fund would then consist of (say) $95,000,000 of gold previously held, $50,000,000 gold paid in for the bonds, and $55,000,000 of notes redeemed through the action of the reserve fund, making $200,000,000. But, under the "maximum" reserve provision, $50,000,000 of the notes would have to be turned over to the general fund of the Treasury, becoming applicable to any of the purposes of the government. Should expenditures exceed revenue, these notes would certainly be paid out, and almost as certainly be presented for redemption in gold, and the "endless chain" would again make trouble. Bonds could be sold, as bonds were sold before; but, while insolvency was thus averted, panic and disaster were not. In Mr. Seligman's opinion the insertion of the words, "together with the redeemed notes held for use as provided in this section," will vitiate much of the good effect which this law is expected to accomplish. On this point there should be no room for any possible uncertainty or difference of opinion, and if it is too late to change the bill before it passes, it should be immediately amended by removing the dangerous provision for counting notes as part of the gold reserve.

Boycotting has reached an acute stage in Chicago. It grows out of the strike in the building trades. A few weeks ago the dealers in plumbing supplies entered into an agreement with the building contractors' council not to sell to any plumber who had not signed the rules of that council, which renounces the demands of the plumbers' union. Now the plumbers' union has voted that no union plumber in the United States shall handle material sold by these Chicago dealers. To avoid this boycott the dealers say that they will remove all the distinctive marks from their material, so that the boycotters will be obliged to keep track of all the lead pipe that is shipped by them to any part of the country. This would add greatly to the expense of enforcing the boycott, and would lead in many cases to boycotting the wrong goods. It is said that the sales of plumbing material in Chicago have already fallen off to such an extent that the business is now conducted at a loss, and that the end is not in sight.

The battle by boycott must come to an end some time, by the exhaustion of one or the other party, perhaps both; and then it will be necessary to go back to the beginning and settle the dispute by arbitration or by the surrender of one of them. The workingmen are trying to enforce a rule that nobody shall get a job unless he belongs to the union, and they will admit to the union only such as they choose. In other words, they are imitating their superiors in many parts of the country in seeking to form a Labor Trust, intending to subdue the employers one by one. The latter, seeing that each one must endure a strike supported by assessments levied on the employees of the others, naturally unite to resist. A strike is followed by a lockout, and then a boycott is succeeded by an anti-boycott. It will be strange if the sequel does not embrace rioting, murder, and incendiarism, as was the case in the great street-car boycott at Cleveland last year. All this teaches the lesson that the boycott is not a remedy for anything, and that it only aggravates the evils it is intended to cure, by forcing neutrals to join in a quarrel in which they have no interest, and where they can only incur loss.

The attempt to introduce the principle of municipal ownership in Boston has met with disaster from the obstacles which must always hamper such attempts. It seems to be impossible in the government of a large city by uni-

versal suffrage to prevent offices from being regarded as political spoils. It is hard enough to contend against the theory in small communities, and the same is certainly true in national affairs; but with the vast and heterogeneous population of our largest cities the struggle against corruption is far more difficult. Mayor Quincy was not deterred by the warnings of experience, and ventured on a number of these socialistic experiments. He established a city printing-office, a city ice department, an electrical construction division, and a general city repair-shop. Mayor Hart finds that these bureaus are too expensive a luxury for a city as heavily in debt as Boston. When the market price of ice was $3 a ton, it cost the city nearly $60 a ton to procure ice through the municipal department. The printing done for the city at its office is found to cost from 20 to 50 per cent. more than when done by contract. The electrical and repair departments showed the same results; in one case work, for which a private contractor submitted a guaranteed estimate of $40, costing the city $300 when done by its own bureau. The heads of these bureaus found that if they discharged men for improper conduct or inefficiency, some outside influence was potent enough to reinstate them, and it is safe to say that, until the politicians retire from business, influence of this kind will continue to be potent. Mayor Hart has abolished two of these departments, and the saving promises to be so considerable that the others will have hard work to justify their continued existence.

The financial world has lately been startled by revelations of rottenness in the affairs of the Third Avenue Railroad Company which have reduced the market value of its shares to less than 50, from a maximum last year of about 240. This maximum, of course, was largely speculative, but the stock was, no doubt, fairly worth 150 before it fell among thieves and was stripped and left bleeding as we now see it. A suspicion has been growing during the past week that, in the wrecking of this property, Tammany Hall has had very much the same share as it had in that of the Erie Railway in the time of Tweed and Sweeny. Now we learn from some correspondence that passed between Mr. John D. Crimmins and Mr. A. J. Elias last summer that the former, viewing with his practised eye as a contractor, a shareholder, and a politician, the work of changing the motive power of this road, perceived that there was great waste of the company's resources, and inferred that some political party was at the bottom of it. He communicated his suspicions by letter to Mr. Elias, the Vice-President of the company, and added: "I doubt very much if there has ever been a public work or a work for a corporation where there was so much loitering as there is on this work." Mr. Elias made use of the *argumentum ad hominem* in his reply, saying that there was as much if not more loitering on the Eighth Avenue line, which Mr. Crimmins built, than on the line which Mr. Crimmins had ventured to criticise, but he (Mr. Elias) would give prompt attention to any want of diligence on the part of the contractors. The fact that the contractors were allowed a commission of 15 per cent. on the amount spent for labor would serve to account for the loitering and the prolongation of the work; but the question is yet to be answered, Why was such a contract made, why were these contractors employed, and why were they allowed to loiter and prolong the time for completing their job? Some persons say that these contractors were Tammany men, and that they alone could control the permits for street opening, and hence that their employment was a necessity; in other words, that the company was blackmailed. This, if true, does not excuse the officers of the company. It rather adds something to the gravity of the charge against them of betraying the interests of their shareholders that they did not resist the attempted blackmail, and appeal to the courts, the public, and the Legislature for protection..

The withdrawal of Lord Rosebery from the Scottish Liberal Association, of which he has been President for twenty years, is the most considerable event that the Boer war has produced in English politics. The withdrawal was caused by the dissatisfaction of the Scotch Liberals with Lord Rosebery's position in reference to the war, which has been that of a rather ardent supporter of Mr. Chamberlain's position. In other words, he not merely sustained the Government in carrying on the war, but he believed that the Government was right in taking the steps which antedated the declaration of war by the Boer Government. Here he was in conflict with Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, Sir William Harcourt, John Morley, James Bryce, and nearly the whole Liberal party. It does not follow that he will join the Conservatives or the Unionists, but his withdrawal from the Liberals at any time, for any reason, could not fail to be an event of importance.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer estimates the deficit in the revenue for this year and next at £60,000,000. This deficit is to be met by increasing the taxes to the extent of £12,317,000, by taking £4,640,000 from the sinking-fund for terminable annuities, and by borrowing £43,000,000. The income-tax is to be increased one-half, making it a shilling in the pound, or 5 per cent.; 2d. a pound is to be added to the tea duty, 6d. a gallon to that on spirits, a shilling a barrel on beer, 4d. a pound on tobacco, 6d. a pound on cigars, and a shilling on the stamp-tax on certain brokers' contracts. The suggestion was made that the additional revenue might be easily obtained by a tax on sugar, but it was not listened to, and half the increase in taxation will fall on the incomes of the classes which have most favored the extension of the British Empire by force of arms. As the war may cost twice the estimated amount before it is concluded, the burden of taxation bids fair to be heavier than it has been during the memory of most Englishmen now living. The country is now highly prosperous, but when hard times recur, the taxes will be severely felt. It has been intimated that a large indemnity might be exacted from the Dutch Republics, but Sir William Harcourt pointed out that the problem of getting such an indemnity paid was not to be easily solved.

Russia's steady advance in Asia is marked by one mile-stone more in what appears to be her practical absorption of Persia. By the usual means of railway concessions and a guaranteed loan, Russian control of Persian trade and government is now assured; and the secular desire of Russia for a seaport on the Indian Ocean will be gratified as soon as the rails can be laid to Bander Abbas on the Gulf of Oman. This stealthy march forward, on the line of England's communications, as it were, could not have been so easily accomplished but for British preoccuption in South Africa. The Czar has professed strict neutrality and great friendliness, and protested that he could never think of taking advantage of England's African embarrassments; but his agents have nevertheless pressed quietly forward in Afghanistan and in Persia. The inhabitants of the latter country are represented as eager for a Russian protectorate. "When will the Russians come? When will the White Czar deliver us?" These are said, by a Russian officer in Teheran, to be the eager questions of the natives. He added, in his report to the Minister of War, that "one division of infantry and a couple of Cossack regiments would suffice to keep in check the whole of Persia." But there is another side to the extension of Russian military rule. In Sebastopol, three weeks ago, forty-three officers of the Russian navy were put on trial for corruption and bribery, in connection with the purchase of supplies for the Black Sea fleet. At almost the same time was confirmed the sentence of degradation and exile, for embezzlement, of Gen. Ilovaisky and several Cossack officers. Peculation has been historically the cancer of absolutism. The Russian armies were almost paralyzed in the Crimean and Turkish wars by dishonest administration; and, as the empire extends, opportunities for corruption multiply.

DEEDS, NOT WORDS.

President McKinley's speech at the Ohio Society's banquet in this city on Saturday evening was a very thesaurus of phrases which may be applied, like so many blisters, to his own conduct in the past two weeks. "We must choose between manly doing and base desertion." Who says this? The man whom the whole country has seen running away from his own words like a frightened rabbit. "Partisanship can hold few of us against solemn public duty." But Mr. McKinley is himself one of those few. He could read in Monday's Chicago *Times-Herald*, edited not by an enemy, but by a personal friend and benefactor, not by a Democrat or Mugwump, but by a stanch Republican, the following truthful account of what the President of the United States did when partisanship came into collision with what he himself had declared to be "solemn public duty" to Porto Rico.

"A majority of Republicans were opposed to the principle of the bill and faithful to the thought and purpose of the President's message. The defeat of the bill was imminent and the prestige of the Republican majority in the House was in peril.

"Then the President was appealed to. It was represented to him that nothing could save the party from humiliating division and defeat but some sign that he receded from the recommendation of his message. The leaders of the party were permitted to suggest that he had changed his mind. But this was not sufficient to bring the recalcitrants into line. The President was again appealed to, and, under pressure from the party leaders in the House, he *personally urged several Representatives* to support the bill, so as to preserve an unbroken Republican front in the House.

"Thus was the grievous blunder committed."

In what atmosphere, surcharged with adulation, must the President live not to know what the people are saying of his lamentable display of moral cowardice? The country is ringing with it. Republicans are torn between rage and disgust over his ignominious retreat. And yet he is so armed in triple brass of egotism that he dares, on the heels of his own humiliating exhibition of weakness and recreancy, to prate once more of "duty"! A runaway colonel might with as good grace exhort his regiment to be brave. If it could ever have been said that the President's words were half-battles, it must now be admitted that they are whole defeats. He ought to beware how he excites the laughter or scorn of his hearers by performing again on his tinkling cymbal of "solemn public duty."

The truth is, Mr. McKinley mistakes the time of day. He talks as if it were still February, 1899, instead of March, 1900. His pious descriptions of the blessings we were going to bestow on our national "wards" were all very well a year ago, but now we are translating his fine words into action. To-day it is *res non verba;* and what is the thing we see? "It is not possible," gravely asserts President McKinley, "that 75 millions of American freemen are unable to establish liberty and justice and good government in our new possessions." That may pass for a belated platitude; but the actual situation is, that American freemen are trying to establish justice in Porto Rico—and their President blocks the way. There is no chance for a quibble here. Mr. McKinley himself laid down officially the proper way in which to establish justice in this particular one of our new possessions. He was on record. He was committed morally. Yet, with the country eager to support him, with his party press appealing to him to live up to his own words, with Congress bursting with desire to do justice to Porto Rico, he deliberately chose to play the part of an oppressor. And then he added insult to injury by coming to New York to declare: "The liberators will never become the oppressors!"

The Spanish language has a word which it applies to such grandiloquent hypocrisy. *Música, música,* Spaniards cry, when they hear a man trying to cover up foul deeds with fair words. This is the indignant and scornful cry which will resound throughout Porto Rico when the natives read of the President's betrayal, followed by his flood of noble sentiments. Already the dispatches show the consternation approaching despair which reigns in this particular one of the islands we wrested from Spain. Our Governor-General told Congress that, so far, American occupation had been a curse to the natives. But they had held on in hope that, at last, we would keep faith with them. What must their feelings be when they discover that the President of the United States has broken his plighted word? If they were strong enough, they would undoubtedly take up arms against American rule, and they would be justified in doing it if the American Revolution was justified. It is of no use for the President to affirm that "there can be no imperialism." The Porto Ricans know better; they are suffering from it.

In one respect, the President's speech is a good sign. Like his recommendation of a $2,000,000 appropriation for the Porto Ricans, it shows that he is in a panic. The open revolt of conscience Republicans, and the open exultation of the Democrats, have revealed to him his monumental blunder. He sees thousands of votes endangered; and, with Mr. McKinley, a vote imperilled means a solemn obligation to retain it if possible. But what he must see is that no half-way measures will do. His message asking for $2,000,000 is already seen by the country to be only a small trick. There is neither statesmanship nor charity in it; it does not touch the root of the trouble as law, and, as a gift, would be only a form of pauperization. No, the only thing for Mr. McKinley to do is to take Mr. Kohlsaat's advice, admit that he has made a dreadful mistake, turn square about, and urge Congress to give the Porto Ricans free trade. This might seem an awkward performance for the President, after what has passed, but we are sure that he would be able to say that his conduct throughout had been straightforward and consistent. At any rate, inconsistent or not, ruin lies for him in any other course.

THE GOVERNMENT OF HAWAII.

These are cheerful days for the Democratic members of Congress, as compared with the sorrowful yesterdays when their blundering policy made them the butt of their opponents' ridicule. It is now their turn to laugh at the embarrassments in which the Administration has involved the Republican party; embarrassments so great as to cause a Republican Representative to beg the Opposition not to make them unbearable. The debate on the bill establishing a Territorial government in Hawaii, which has finally passed the Senate, gave Senator Tillman of South Carolina an opportunity to expose some Republican inconsistencies, which he improved with unfeigned delight. As he observed, when he got his adversaries on the prongs of his pitchfork, he did not care which side they took, and on the present occasion he had them "right there." If, as the bill in its original form proposed, the government of Hawaii was to be placed in the hands of an oligarchy of the white races, the Republicans ought to recognize the wisdom of the South Carolina law which aimed at a similar result. If the policy was right in one case it could not be condemned in the other; and if it was wrong in South Carolina, it must be wrong in Hawaii. Accordingly, Senator Tillman proposed that the South Carolina law be adopted word for word in the organic law of Hawaii. This amendment the Republicans could not, for very shame, adopt; but Senator Tillman's exposures were not without effect.

It was somewhat unguardedly admitted by the Republicans, at the beginning of the debate, that apprehension was felt that other people besides Americans might get control of the government. As Senators Platt and Cullom stated, there was danger that the "Anglo-Saxon element" might be overruled. The population of the islands being now estimated at 150,000, and the Americans numbering only between 3,000 and 4,000, this danger could not be disregarded. There has been "friction" between the Americans and the other inhabitants, and, in the words of Senator Platt, the other elements "may conceive the idea that they can run the government by votes as against the Anglo-Saxon people and the Anglo-Saxon idea, and they will be liable to be influenced by demagogues—people who still hold, in a way, to the old monarchy—and there is great danger that all Anglo-Saxon influence there may be overturned." Accordingly the bill, which was

evidently concocted by the ruling oligarchy in Hawaii, provided not only a qualification of intelligence, but also a property qualification for voters. No one was to vote at all who could not read, write, and speak either the English or Hawaiian language—although the Germans number 1,500, the Portuguese 15,000, the Chinese 21,000, and the Japanese 24,000; and no one was to vote for members of the proposed Senate who had not, in addition to this qualification, real property valued at $1,000, or an income of $600 a year. No person, moreover, could be a member of either house of the Legislature who did not possess a certain amount of property. With these precautions, with a governor appointed from among the residents of the islands, with the present judiciary maintained, and with the selection of nearly all the officers by the governor, the dominant element felt that their position would be reasonably secure. As the former Attorney-General of Hawaii remarked, "Unless some means were adopted to control the native vote, the Territorial Legislature would probably pass quickly into the hands of the natives"; and "even the Portuguese, as against the Anglo-Saxon, could exclude the latter from taking any part in legislation." The original bill was unquestionably well calculated to prevent this result.

This well-laid scheme, however, has been sadly marred by the Senate; and Senator Morgan, who had elaborated it in conjunction with the Hawaiian rulers, now frantically shouts that he would advise the people of Hawaii to remain as they are for a hundred years rather than accept such a plan of government as the Senate has created. In point of fact, the revelations made concerning the conditions under which "contract labor" prevails in Hawaii rendered the bill odious. The statutes of Hawaii have provided that any person refusing to serve his master shall be "compelled" to carry out his agreement of service; and that if he shall refuse, he shall be imprisoned at hard labor until he "consents." If he "consents," and does not serve satisfactorily, he shall be fined, and imprisoned at hard labor until his fine is paid. As evidence was produced showing that in some cases the contract laborers were "docked" of half their pay of $12.50 a month—without board—such fines might involve imprisonment for life at hard labor. The Senate appears to have made thorough work in prohibiting this abuse, and, getting in the mood for securing some of the recognized rights of American citizens, it struck out the property qualification required of voters for members of the Senate. The courts, instead of remaining in the hands of the present Government, are to be assimilated to other Territorial courts, and it is worthy of notice that the judges are to be paid by the United States, although no concession of this kind has been thought admissible in Porto Rico. Hawaii is to have a Delegate in Congress, like other Territories. It is to have the same freedom of trade as the other Territories. In short, as the bill leaves the Senate, it practically establishes a Territorial government on familiar lines, and seriously interrupts the plans of the American oligarchy to maintain the government in their own hands. It also paves the way for two Senators and a Representative in Congress, and three votes in the Electoral College, at some future time.

COUNTING THE COST.

Following the rejoicings in London over the relief of Ladysmith, the warning voice of the paymaster is heard in its appropriate corner of the House of Commons. What he tells ought to have a sobering effect after the effervescence of the good news passes off. The naval estimates were presented by Mr. Goschen a few days ago. They call for $42,000,000 for new battle-ships and cruisers, the entire naval expense for the year 1900-'01 being placed at $150,000,000. Mr. Goschen said that Russia was preparing to expend $21,000,000 for new construction, and France nearly the same amount. In order to keep England up to the mark she had hitherto fixed for herself, she must make her expenditure equal to that of any two of her rivals. In this way the sum of $42,000,000 was reached.

Two weeks ago the Under Secretary for War made a preliminary statement of the needs of his department. He said that the present regular force consisted of 109,000 regulars in the United Kingdom, to which he proposed to add 30,000 immediately. Then he proposed to put under training the present volunteer forces, amounting to 328,000, and to add 50,000 more to their number, so as to have 517,000 men trained to arms or undergoing training in the course of the next few months. "Personally," he said, "I believe the figure will approach more nearly 600,000 men than 500,000." Mr. Campbell-Bannerman asked for some estimate of the expense of this enormous increase of the British land forces which, if carried into effect, would approach the magnitude of the great Continental armies. He insisted that the question before the country was one of policy rather than of armament, because the policy to be pursued always fixes the measure of the armament. If the policy is one of aggression, the army and navy must be made to correspond with it. "I ask," he said, "that whatever we do, we shall not, in our realization of the facts now before us in South Africa, in our discovery of the difficulties we have to meet there, rush into some great project of military development, which I believe would be the very worst thing that could happen to our country." At the same time he acknowledged that the proposals of the Government were much more moderate than the advice given by the public prints.

On Thursday the war estimates were presented to the House. They are even more moderate than those which the Under Secretary had foreshadowed. They provide for an increase of the establishment to 430,000 men, and a total net expenditure of $307,000,000, against an establishment of 184,853 men, and an expenditure of $103,000,000, as originally voted for the current financial year, showing an increase of 245,147 in the number of men, and of $204,000,000 in the money expenditure. The foregoing figures for the current year do not include the supplementary estimates of October and February for the present Boer war. They are for the future permanent establishment of the British army. Added to the naval estimates presented by Mr. Goschen a few days ago, they mount up to $450,000,000 for fighting purposes alone. And this comes within seven months after the meeting of the Hague conference, which was called for the purpose of securing a reduction of military and naval expenditure, or a cessation in the increase thereof. And now England is on the eve of trebling her military expenditure and adding many millions to her naval.

Of course this wild plunge, if taken, will be because of the war in South Africa, and for no other reason. The Boers, being on the ground and the first to take the field, had secured a very advantageous position, and were thus enabled to make their men count two or three for one. So when the British dashed against the Boer fortifications they were hurled back several times with severe loss. England's enemies on the Continent began to prick up their ears and ask themselves whether this was not a good time to reopen the Egyptian question, or the Chinese question, or some other question in some quarter of the globe. The British public began to grow nervous. There was a sudden overhauling of the War Department by the newspapers, and a demand for reasons why these Boers had been allowed to get in a position of such superiority at the outset of the war. Public opinion, which, one year ago, would have killed any scheme for an increase of the army, and trampled under foot any ministry which should have adopted that policy, is now favorable to, nay demands, a greater increase than the ministry brings forward; and this increase costs three times the money that the British taxpayer is accustomed to spend. So we see for the thousandth time that when a nation takes up the sword, it never knows how or when it may lay it down. It may be led, in its own despite, into paths of folly which, in its sane moments and under ordinary conditions, it would have regarded with scorn, and even with horror.

Undoubtedly the new armament of England will be made a reason and an excuse for the United States adopting the same policy. It will be said that, with a force of half a million men, England can send an army to take possession of our precious Nicaragua Canal. That will be made an argument, not for ratifying the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, but for adding to our army and building twice as many fortifications on the line of the canal as we originally intended. But there is an element in our politics that is able to offer an effective opposition to a large standing army. It is composed of the workingmen's organizations, and there has been evidence lately that this element is making itself felt in the military committees of Congress. Let us hope that it may solemnly warn Congressmen that it will vote for no man who votes for increasing our military establishment. Reorganize it, make it as efficient as you please, but if you would prevent wars, prevent the army from growing in numbers.

THE REUNITED IRISH PARTY.

In the manifesto of the recently elected chairman of the Irish party in the House of Commons, the occasion and aim of the reunion of the Irish factions which have been quarrelling and helpless for nine years past are clearly to be read, in the lines or between them. Much is made of the extremity in which England was thought to be a month ago. That was Ireland's opportunity. No man could tell, said Mr. Redmond to his fellow-Irishmen, what might not be accomplished by a resolute and united body of eighty Irish members in "the greatest crisis in the memory of living man" which had "arisen in the affairs of the Empire." The great British successes in South Africa have already taken most of the pith out of that argument. But the need of doing something to restore the confidence of the Irish people in their representatives at Westminster, and to set flowing again the contributions of Irishmen all over the world, remains the chief reason for burying the bitter quarrels. Mr. Redmond frankly laid great stress upon this motive, and asked for subscriptions to "the Sessional Fund of the Irish Parliamentary party."

Many gibes and sneers have been called out by this appeal for funds. They are, however, both unfounded and vulgar. As long as members are not paid, and as long as Irish nationalists send, and must send, men of small means to represent them in Parliament, it is entirely proper that their support, while in attendance upon the House, should be provided for. O'Connell used to receive such support—his "rent," as it was half-humorously, half-tauntingly called. For this he was exposed to many Tory insults, which, of course, he repaid with interest. But there could really be no doubt about the propriety of his receiving money from his constituents. Greville, who was, at first at least, no friend to O'Connell, said that the funds put at his disposal were "a tribute nobly paid, and nobly earned." The real question is, not whether the Irish members should be maintained, but whether their present programme promises any substantial good to those who send them to London and support them there.

The answer to be found in the manifesto is not wholly explicit. It may be doubted if the Irish party speaks its whole mind in it. Irish Home Rule is referred to only casually, and as a kind of dream not officially abandoned. What Mr. Redmond definitely promises to work for is further land legislation for the relief of Irish farmers, and some measure of University education for Catholic Ireland. These demands are shrewdly made. Lord Salisbury has already gone further in legislation against Irish landlords than Mr. Gladstone ever dared or was able to go. So Mr. Redmond's appeal is *ex concessis*. He says to the Government, You have admitted the principle; you have gone half-way towards carrying it out; now go the whole way, and give us "the universal establishment of compulsory purchase of an occupying proprietary." As for a Catholic University, Mr. Balfour argued stoutly last year for a Government grant to establish one or more such institutions. Here again, therefore, Mr. Redmond is ploughing with Conservative oxen.

Behind this outward and avowed programme, lie deeper questions, harder to answer. Is the Irish people substantially united in support of its Parliamentary representatives? Is it heartily committed to political agitation as the best means of securing what it wants? There is good reason to doubt whether either of these questions can be answered by a round affirmative. At one extreme, there is the literary party of Young Ireland—the Celtic School—Kelts, they prefer to spell themselves. They are distinctly languid as respects the political remedy. They propose to witch and wheedle Englishmen with their indigenous poetry and romance and drama. An outsider might doubt whether their instrument is better fitted to placate than to infuriate, but at any rate they believe in it. At the other end of the line is the physical-force party. This remains supremely indifferent, really contemptuous, in the presence of Irish Parliamentory reunion. Here, for example, is the ominous note sounded by the *United Irishman:*

> "Day by day Parliamentarianism is becoming more discredited by the people whom it befooled for over twenty years. The picture of 40,000 farmers meeting and beating the forces of the British Empire has imprinted itself upon the brain of the Irish nation.
>
> "The burgher with his rifle guarding the land of his fathers appeals more powerfully to the Irishman than the member of Parliament with the begging-bag, suffering for his country in the House of Commons. Between unity and extinction our Parliamentarians did not hesitate. Between unity and starvation they did not falter for an instant in their choice. As the *Evening Herald*, Mr. Redmond's mouthpiece, explains, 'unity' was necessary because 'funds have only empty boxes, American support has become estranged, and at home subscriptions for any purpose died a sudden death.' 'This state of affairs,' adds our ingenious contemporary, 'could not continue.'
>
> "As to the future of Irish Parliamentarianism we have no fear. It can never again humbug Ireland into believing that the establishment of a glorified vestry in Dublin means the triumph of Irish nationality."

What is the outlook, then, for the Irish party in Parliament? A leading Liberal writes us privately that he thinks the Irish will hold the balance of power in the next Parliament. This certainly seems probable, yet, after all, it will be a very different thing from the balance of power which Parnell held. For one thing, obstruction can no longer, under the new rules, be made so deadly a weapon to extort terms as he made it. Furthermore, we shall not soon see the Irish party making and unmaking ministries on the question of Home Rule. Home Rule may be said to have been dropped from the Liberal programme; surely the Conservatives will not be bidding for the Irish vote, as they were in 1886, with promises of modified Home Rule. It seems highly probable that there will be a distinct rejuvenation of the Irish party in Parliament, and that it will be able to wring a succession of "doles" to agriculture and to education from a reluctant Government.

THE DECLINE OF TEACHING.

The recent death of Miss Porter, who for half a century conducted a well-known school for young women at Farmington, Conn., calls attention to one of those far-reaching changes which have done so much in these fifty years to transform American education. It is at least a curious coincidence that the development of the modern science of pedagogy, with its array of physiological and psychological data, should have been accompanied by a distinct decline in the prominence of the teacher. No one, we suppose, will question that the number of great teachers is decidedly less now than it once was, and that the depleted ranks are not being adequately filled up.

While this dearth of teaching power, notwithstanding the persistent efforts to overcome it, is characteristic of all departments of education, it is especially noticeable in the colleges and universities. Perhaps in no single respect, indeed, does the average college of the present day contrast more sharply with the college of a generation or two ago. The histories of most of our older institutions record the names of many distinguished men who, over and above their additions to knowledge in their respective fields, left upon their students marked individual impressions as teach-

ers. The names of Nott at Union College, Hopkins at Williams, Wayland at Brown, Tyler at Amherst, during the period when all these were small colleges, are enough to cite. That the equipment of such men for their specific duties was sufficient was, for the most part, assumed without question; but it is as instructors, rather than as scholars, that they are most fondly remembered. In the minds of the older graduates, their figures assume, with the lapse of years, somewhat of heroic proportions, and their determining influence upon thought and life is constantly recalled.

That such conditions no longer generally prevail is, we suppose, matter of common observation. With all the excellence of their work, comparatively few instructors to-day get much hold of individuals in their classes. To be sure, the average college or university teacher is immensely industrious, and exceedingly learned. His students acquire a much greater body of positive facts than formerly, and their knowledge is commonly of a more practical sort. But somehow he rarely succeeds in awakening the personal affection which marks the work of the great teacher, or in making for himself a name as other than a sound scholar, or a good lecturer, or an attractive writer. It is by the knowledge he has imparted, or the stores of erudition he has made available, that he is most remembered, rather than by his skill in stimulating an interest in intellectual things, or by the large and inspiring qualities of his mind and heart.

The causes of this change are, doubtless, to be found in the same forces which have, in recent years, given to higher education so great a lift. The rise of the university, with its emphasis on specialized learning as the only learning worth having, has set a premium on intensity rather than breadth of attainment. Notwithstanding his praiseworthy knowledge, industry, and devotion, the modern university instructor, especially if he has been trained within the last twenty years, rarely has much of the broad outlook upon things which was so noticeably characteristic of the older culture. In intellectual matters, he is likely to feel himself tyrannized by men older and more learned than himself, and to be abnormally sensitive about slight deficiencies. The drudgery of the classroom, the slow and painstaking dealing with individuals, are too often regarded as a burden, to be shifted as much as possible upon the shoulders of younger men.

The new view of the teacher's functions seems to have, also, the stamp of official approval. Broadly speaking, pronounced ability as a teacher, unaccompanied by the production of at least one learned work, is not a passport to distinction. It very rarely leads to promotion. In other words, the higher the standard of the institution, the less place it seems to have for men and women whose chief power is their ability to teach. It is the making of books, and not the training of the young in habits of thought and work, that holds out to the teacher of to-day the main promise of reward.

It is useless, of course, to cry over spilt milk, or to sigh for a revival of the particular methods and manners of former days. The watchword of modern higher education is scholarship; and so long as scholarship of a technical and exacting sort offers the only avenue to distinction, young men and women are little likely to be turned aside from it. It cannot be idle to remember, however, that the present régime brings evil, as well as good, in its train. With all the successes of the college and university, and the fruitfulness of their service in every department of life, it cannot be denied that their influence upon many is appreciably narrowing. Valuable as are the products of concentration, concentration, nevertheless, implies restricted vision. It is not a favorable indication of the trend of things that the few great teachers and intellectual guides who are left to us should so often, both in and out of college circles, be a bit lightly regarded. Perhaps it is no longer true, among the better class of college men, that enthusiasm is "bad form"; but it too often is true that instructors who aim most at getting hold of the men under their charge, and care least about becoming eminent specialists, have to overcome a pervading distrust as to their soundness and authority.

Ideal as the figures of the notable teachers of the past generations may have become, one cannot doubt that they had hold of education by the right end. Culture, as they viewed it, was learning dispensed through a large mind. It was fact and theory, accurate investigation, and assured knowledge, lighted up by a strong and vivid personality. It is this clear impression of personal power, winning the regard of those upon whom it falls, that the higher education among us most needs.

THE MOTHER OF THE DUC D'ENGHIEN. —II.

PARIS, February 22, 1900.

The relations of the Duke and Duchess de Bourbon were of a singular character. They led separate existences. She lived in the Élysée. Hearing that her husband had bought the estate of Nointel, near Paris (it belongs now to a wealthy stockbroker) for the sum of two million and a half of francs, and that he was embarrassed to pay the amount, she generously offered to advance it to him; he accepted the offer, and it was the occasion of one of the visits which he made to her. Soon afterwards the Duke left France with his father, upon the fall of the Bastille. He was one of the first to give the signal for the emigration. He took with him his son, the Duke d'Enghien, whom his mother was never to see again. The Duchess completely espoused the ideas of her brother, the Duke d'Orléans, who openly declared himself a champion of the Revolution. The Élysée, like the Palais Royal, was a centre for the partisans of the new ideas. The Duchess severed all her relations with the House of Condé, and remained in France; she left Paris, however, and spent some time in Strasbourg, where she found her philosopher Saint-Martin and her friend Madame d'Oberkirch. She returned to Paris in 1790, and entered into relations with a monk, Dom Gerle, prior of the Chartreuse of Pont-Sainte-Marie, who had passionately joined in the Revolutionary movement. (Dom Gerle figures in David's famous picture, "The Oath of the Tennis-Court.") We see her also in communication with an inspired prophetess, a reformer of the church, Suzette Labrousse, and another prophetess, Catherine Théot, who called herself "the mother of God."

The Duchess de Bourbon's character was the most singular mixture of absurdity, one might say folly, and of generous sentiments. When the confiscation of the fortune of the Condés was pronounced, she wrote to her husband a long letter (the text of which is given in Count Ducos's volume), inviting him to return to her house in France, and to dispose of all her fortune. As she had not emigrated, her property had not been confiscated. The Duke de Bourbon sent his answer, through a friend, M. de Nolives, March 27, 1792. He thanked her for her generous offer, but explained that it was impossible for him to return to France. M. de Nolives writes a curious letter to the Duke de Bourbon on April 8: "As soon," said he, "as I received Monseigneur's letter, I wrote to the Duchess de Bourbon, to ask for an interview, having a communication to make to her on your behalf." He tells how the Duchess received him, how she showed some irritation at not having a letter from her husband, only a verbal message. He had no difficulty in explaining that letters were not very safe under the Terror. The Duchess complained of having received no news of her son, no letters from him:

"I had heard people say that Mme. la Duchesse was devout, but I could not imagine to what an extent. There are few nuns who can be compared to her. Her language is absolutely mystical, her exaltation is extreme. She sees everywhere the hand of God; speak of anything else, and her mind wanders. It is a pity that with wit, grace, and all the faculties she has, she should have so far lost her bearings (the phrase is permissible). She is as democratic as anybody, not by wickedness, but by devotion."

M. de Nolives sensibly adds that it would be proper for the Duke d'Enghien to write from time to time to his mother.

Count Ducos gives extracts from the reflections which the Duchess de Bourbon wrote on the events of the Revolution. They are inspired by a sort of religious fatalism; the horrors which she sees committed under her eyes appear to her the consequence and the punishment of a guilty past; the victims seem to her hardly less to blame than the executioners. The time came when she had need of all her philosophy. The Convention voted the arrest of all the Bourbons still remaining in France. She was thrown into prison at Marseilles, with her brother, the Duke d'Orléans, and her nephews, the Duke de Montpensier and the Count de Beaujolais, and the Prince de Conti. The Duke d'Orléans was sent back from Marseilles to Paris, and

soon after, notwithstanding all the pledges he had given to the Revolution, was guillotined at the same place as Louis XVI. (November 6, 1793). The Duchess de Bourbon had to announce the execution of the Prince to her nephews. She sent, twelve days afterwards, a petition to the Convention, which is an astonishing document. In terms of the greatest humility, without any allusion to the terrible loss she had sustained, to the persecutions of which all her family were the object, she begged the Government to accept for the nation the gift of all her property, expressing only the hope that the income of it might be spent for the widows and orphans of the defenders of the nation. She simply asked to be set free, and that she might preserve the means of living and of recompensing her devoted servants. This request was accompanied by a minute inventory of all her property, which was very large (the Élysée Bourbon was valued at 1,100,000 francs; Petitbourg at 1,200,000, etc.). The Citoyenne Bourbon (such was her name then) explained also in her request that she could not have influenced her husband and her son to become *émigrés*. The Convention took no notice of these offers, the State being already in possession. The Élysée was presently sold to a Mlle. Hovyn, who was a sort of undertaker for all the public festivities of Paris. The death of Robespierre probably saved the Duchess de Bourbon from the guillotine; she remained, however, in prison after the ninth Thermidor, and it was only two years afterwards that the Convention ordered that she should be set free. An income of 180,000 francs was allowed her out of the revenues of her sequestrated estates. The Prince de Conti was also allowed to leave his prison; the two young and innocent brothers of Louis Philippe, the Duke de Montpensier and the Count de Beaujolais, were retained in captivity.

The Duchess de Bourbon was allowed to live at Petitbourg, but, after the *coup d'état* of Fructidor aimed at the royalists of the Chamber, a decree obliged the Duchess d'Orléans, the Duchess de Bourbon, and the Prince de Conti to leave France. A pension of 100,000 francs was promised to the Duchess d'Orléans; that of the Duchess de Bourbon was reduced to fifty thousand francs. This Duchess wrote an account of the journey which she made from Paris to Barcelona. It serves as the preface to two volumes in which she published her correspondence with a certain M. Ruffin, the officer chosen by Augereau to conduct her to the frontier, and who was to remain in relation with her after their journey. This extraordinary journal did not deserve to be published, being very unworthy of a person who had been so long in the most tragical situation. It is half sentimental, half burlesque; it is childish in many parts, in others it becomes ridiculous and repulsive. It pretends to be humorous, but it simply proves that the Duchess de Bourbon was in a very unsettled state of mind. She talked religion and theology with the young officer Ruffin, she sought to convert him and to work for his salvation, and so was brought to begin with him a correspondence that was to last for many years. "For nearly fifteen years, she made controversial attacks on him."

At Barcelona she was welcomed and was received by the Captain-General of the province. She occupied first a sort of château with her sister-in-law, the Duchess d'Orléans, who had also made the journey from Paris to Barcelona. After a while, the two sisters-in-law took separate houses, one at Gratia, the other at Soria, in the neighborhood of Barcelona. The Duchess de Bourbon had no companion but a lady, the Countess Julie de Sérens, a secretary and his wife, M. and Mme. Gros. Her chief amusement seems to have been writing to Ruffin and receiving his answers. Ruffin left the army to hold a small office in Paris. The Duchess entreated him to enter into communication with Saint-Martin, and sent him elaborate plans for the reformation of humanity. He was not as enthusiastic a reformer as she, but did not like to discourage her too much.

The Duchess's relations with her son completely ceased; once only she wrote to him from Spain. The Duke d'Enghien answered her politely. The mother had become an admirer of Bonaparte, but her admiration certainly received a great shock when she heard of the execution of her son at Vincennes. Yet when the Duke de Bourbon wrote to her from England a letter on the terrible subject, she sent him a most extraordinary answer. "Why," asked she, "did my son not believe me? Why do all his family think of nothing but the glories of this world? and why do they forget that the glory of Heaven is acquired by renunciation in all things, by the most profound humility, by forgiveness of injuries, and even by the love of our enemies?"

The French army took Barcelona, and on the 11th of April, 1809, the Duchess de Bourbon charged Gouvion-Saint-Cyr, the French commander, to transmit to Napoleon a letter in which she told him that she had been ten years in Spain, and that it would be a great consolation to her to end her life in France, "with friends who inhabit the *ci-devant* province of Meaux," or in any other place which he might designate. "The wishes I should form there would be all for the glory of France and for your Majesty, of whom, Sire, I am the most humble and obedient subject." Gouvion-Saint-Cyr added to this letter a report on the Princess, her mode of life, her singularities; the Emperor made no reply. In 1812, the Duchess published two pamphlets, 'Thoughts of a Believing Soul on the Christian Religion, Practised in Spirit and Truth.' The year after she published the 'Correspondence between Mme. de B. and M. R. [Ruffin],' on their religious opinions. In 1812, Napoleon authorized the Duchess de Bourbon to go to Rome with the Prince de Conti and the Duchess d'Orléans, but they preferred to remain in Spain. Immediately after the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814, the Duchess de Bourbon left for France, and found all the royal family in the Tuileries. She received the Hôtel de Valentinois in exchange for the Élysée, which had, under Napoleon, become State property. She did not leave France during the Hundred Days, but remained at Rosny till the battle of Waterloo. During the Restoration she went very little to court, and saw only a limited number of friends. She maintained very good relations with the Orleans family, and constituted the Duke d'Orléans and his sister, Madame Adélaïde, her universal legatees. To Madame Adélaïde she left the magnificent hôtel in the Rue de Varennes where she died January 10, 1822, and which has now become the Austrian embassy.

Correspondence.

THE ANGLO-SAXON WARS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The closing years of the century reflect little honor upon the Anglo-Saxon race. The Spanish-American and English-Boer wars are examples of folly and crime, nearly equally indefensible. The alleged "humanitarian" reason (had it been sincere) would not have justified, would inadequately have excused, the action of the United States; while the ultimatum of and invasion by the Boers furnished England the plausibility she would otherwise have been without. President McKinley could have prevented the war with Spain, but the desire of a second term seems to have smothered his conscience. The selfish political egoism of Mr. Chamberlain is responsible for the war in the Transvaal. Lord Salisbury was opposed to and would have prevented it, had he possessed a tithe of, for example, ex-President Cleveland's resolute will.

I greatly admire the English, and for this reason am filled with sorrow and indignation when they stoop to courses unworthy of themselves. I do not, however, forget their grand general record. You have observed the much expressed so-called "sympathy for the Boers." Erase "sympathy for the Boers" and substitute "antagonism to England," if you would arrive at virtual truth. And such would be the case were the relative conditions of the opposing peoples reversed. This hostility is not of to-day, and owes its origin to no present occasion. It is of long standing, unreasonable, malignant, and can have its root in but one soil, that epitome of infinite psychic contraction, envy. Envy is a mortifyingly common phase of human emotion, despicable, and moving *pari passu* with mendacity. Few men will acknowledge the feeling, preferring to give it some less objectionable name, since it necessarily implies consciousness, latent or patent, of the inferiority of the envier, the superiority of the envied. John Kerd.

March 2, 1900.

THE PROTESTANT PRINCIPLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comments upon "Prof. Mivart and the Church" in the *Nation* of February 22, you say that "the Catholic Church is no worse, in principle, as respects freedom of opinion, than the Protestant Church." The case of Prof. McGiffert, and many others of a like character, may be cited to emphasize the obvious fact that in the Protestant Church the great body of opinion is rigidly conservative, old mistakes and prejudices survive, there are heresy hunters, and Assemblies and Synods where the conclusions of modern science and modern theological thought are repudiated as emphatically as they are by Cardinal Vaughan. To admit this is one thing, to say that these acknowledged facts represent the *principle* inherent in Prostestantism is quite another.

Dr. Frederic Henry Hedge, in his essay on "The Two Religions," has graphically traced the antagonistic principles which bi-

sect the history of the Christian Church—Pauline and Petrine, legal and liberal, the Greek Fathers and the Latin Fathers, private judgment and an infallible oracle. Private judgment means the right of the individual to think, to reason, to draw conclusions from facts and evidence even though they contradict opinions and dogmas consecrated by time and authority. The Reformers in principle appealed from authority to reason, and surely this is the Protestant principle. True, the Protestant Church, as an organization, an assembly, does not act consistently upon this principle, but, after all, it does influence, or rather guide, the mind of the Protestant world, even though it be unconscious of the leading. And perhaps, after all, it is better to follow the example of Erasmus and introduce changes gradually and cautiously. God's plan seems to be to work by evolution rather than by revolution or cataclysm. There is a suggestive paragraph by Canon Liddon which seems to explain very much of the phenomena of modern religious development:

"The restless mind of man cannot but at last press a principle to the real limit of its application, even although centuries should intervene between the premise and the conclusion." JOHN T. ROSE.

CAZENOVIA, N. Y., February 28, 1900.

THACKERAY'S 'THE ROSE AND THE RING.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The assertion of your correspondent "Casey," in the *Nation* of February 22, that the publishers have introduced into the Biographical Edition of 'The Rose and the Ring' "several drawings not by Thackeray," is not warranted by the facts. It is true that several of the illustrations in this edition did not appear in the first edition, but, nevertheless, they are reproductions of drawings made by Thackeray for 'The Rose and the Ring.' I write advisedly, having personally inspected the original MS. and drawings. The English issue of the Biographical Edition contains the headlines at the beginning of chapters, omitted in the Harper publication, but, like the latter, omits several lines apparently forced out because of the difference in paging between this and the first edition.

WILLIAM H. LAMBERT.

PHILADELPHIA, March 2, 1900.

BABOO LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit an admirer of Wordsworth to ask the writer of the admirable but too brief review of the translations into Latin ('Florilegium Latinum' and two other volumes) a question. It is this: Supposing Prof. Butcher's translation of Wordsworth's Ode had been recently discovered—say by Mr. Flinders Petrie—as a fragment of a lost classic, how would it be translated into English? Would not the commentators see in *carcer* only the Roman prison, and set to work to discover what young scamp of good family, going to the bad, was referred to? Would any scholar see in

"puero mox carceris ingruit horror crescenti"

anything more than the prison of the body? Would scholars rejoice that they had discovered a Roman Wordsworth? I leave your reviewer to say whether they would have found any suggestion of the prison of the spirit which is meant by Wordsworth—convention, custom, what Goethe calls "das Gemeine," and M. Arnold "Daily labour's dull Lethæan spring." It is impossible, as your reviewer says, to translate Wordsworth's spirituality into a language without equivalents; and, therefore, accomplished scholars might find a better use for their valuable time.

Looking at translations into Latin in general, and without special reference to the volumes now mentioned, what would Horace say of them, if he could revisit the world and condescend to use the language of Barbarians? Might he not smile and whisper, "Baboo Latin"?

AN ADMIRER OF WORDSWORTH.

STEPHEN, MINN., February 20, 1900.

[Our general agreement with the conclusions of our correspondent must not prevent us from pointing out that it would be unfair to judge of Prof. Butcher's version from the fragment of it which we quoted (and quoted for a different purpose than that which our correspondent has in mind). If we had nothing left of Wordsworth's ode except

"Shades of the prison-house begin to close
Upon the growing boy,"

guesses at its setting might vary widely. And our correspondent will remember that, even in Latin prose, to say nothing of Virgil and Lucretius, *carcer* was actually used of the prison of the spirit in the body. A Roman, we think, reading the whole context, would not have misunderstood Prof. Butcher's further extension of the metaphor.—ED. NATION.]

"INDIAN HARVEST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Though the above expression was once in vogue in New England for about a century, yet it has escaped alike the attention of lexicographers and of writers on the subject of Americanisms. Perhaps its existence was unknown; perhaps, if known, its meaning was thought to be too obvious to require definition. Upon examination, however, it is found that its apparent meaning is not a possible one. The history of the term is shown by the following extracts:

"It is ordered that all the inhabitants of Dorchester shall at or before the 22th of this instant march sufficiently Ringe and yoke all their Hogges and other swine and . . . the order of yoakinge to continue vntil Indian Haruest and ringinge." March 1, 1641-2, *Dorchester Town Records*, in *Boston Records* (1883), iv. 46.

"It is ordered, that Mr Deputy, . . . should go & keepe Cort at Pascataque, . . . And two bigger Corts are to bee kept there, the one between the English & Indian harvest, & the other in the spring." May 10, 1643, *Mass. Col. Records*, ii. 37.

"Itt was ordered thatt whatsoever pigs under 3 quarters of a yeare olde shall be found in the corne unyoaked, no fence being downe, the owners of them shall pay 6d apeece. This order to be in force no longer then till Indian harvest be inned." July 1, 1644, *New Haven Colonial Records*, (1857), i. 142.

"The Court haue ordered, that they, the said Indians, shall pay to him, the said Gabriell Fallowell, or his assignes, the sume of foure pounds, viz, forty shillings the next Indian haruest, and the remaining forty shillings Indian haruest come twelve month, in good and current pay." March 7, 1664-5, *Plymouth Col. Records*, iv. 82.

"The survayors of Cattell and Fences are required to take care this order be attended: and to haue halfe the Fines for their seruis: the Fynes are to take place this yeare till the end of indian harvest and begin agayne the first of aprill next." June 4, 1669, *Watertown Records* (1894), p. 96.

"We have also had a great and sore Drought, which threatened the Spoiling of our Harvest, and thereby an Encrease of the Scarcity that hath been amongst us; But this 4th of *August*, God hath given us an Abundance of Rain, Blessed be his Name, and we have our English Corn generally housed with us, and divers have gone to the Towns that were burned down, to Reap the Wheat, and what they had there Sown last Winter. . . . Our *Indian* Harvest is like to be very Fruitfull, that Grain is now sold at two Shillings Sixpence the Bushell." 1676, in S. G. Drake's *Old Indian Chronicle* (1867), p. 282.

"Capt. John Williams, being sumoned, apeared at the county Court at Plimouth, September 16th, 1690, to answer his presentment for selling severall pots of cyder to the Indians, in Indian harvest last past, & at sd Court thereof convict, is sentenced to pay a fine of five pounds in money." October 7, 1690, *Plymouth Col. Records*, vii. 308.

"Lt. Colonel Hilton . . . proposed to the Council that Dover and Portsmouth should each send out the same number [of men to hunt Indians] in course, which will last till the Indian Harvest is over." September 23, 1707, *New Hampshire Provincial Papers*, ii. 566.

"P. M. visited old David Monanaow, Indian, he tells me he was 104 last Indian Harvest." March 23, 1737, Rev. E. Parkman, *Diary* (1899), p. 25.

From this evidence it is clear that there was a distinction drawn between the Indian harvest and the English harvest, and that the former was later than the latter. Now if by English harvest is meant the harvest of the English colonists, and if by Indian harvest is meant the harvest of the Indians, why should the English have gathered their harvest earlier than the Indians? The only grain raised by the Indians was maize, while the English cultivated not only maize, but also wheat, barley, and rye. The latest of these to be harvested was maize. The maize-fields of the Indians must often have adjoined those of the whites; and to suppose that the grain planted by the Indians required a longer time to reach maturity than did the same grain planted by the colonists, is manifestly absurd. Hence the expression in question cannot have the meaning which apparently attaches to it, and we must seek a different interpretation.

It is needless to urge that the word "corn" has a wide latitude of meaning. "As a general term," says Dr. Murray in the Oxford Dictionary, "the word includes all the cereals, wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, rice, etc. . . . Locally, the word, when not otherwise qualified, is often understood to denote that kind of cereal which is the leading crop of the district; hence in the greater part of England 'corn' is = *wheat*, in North Britain and Ireland = *oats*." In the seventeenth century in this country by "English corn" was meant wheat, that expression being frequently used in contradistinction to "Indian corn," which, of course, meant maize. Where the word "corn" alone occurs, unqualified by English or Indian, the context must be relied on to tell whether wheat or maize is meant; and often it is impossible to tell with certainty. If now by English harvest we understand, not the harvest of the English, but the grain chiefly raised by the English, in other words, wheat, and if by Indian harvest we understand the grain peculiar to

the Indians—that is, maize— we have an explanation which fits in with the facts, and which does not involve an absurdity. Under this interpretation, the above extracts do not necessarily refer to the Indians at all—and, as a matter of fact, not more than two do seem to refer to the Indians—but may only indicate the different grains and the difference in time between the harvesting by the colonists of their wheat and of their maize. ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, March, 1900.

Notes.

Among the spring announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons we select 'Practical Agitation,' by John Jay Chapman; 'The American Stage,' by William Archer; 'Smith College Stories,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam; 'Our Native Trees, and How to Identify Them,' by Miss Harriet L. Keeler; 'The Toiling of Felix, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. Henry van Dyke; and 'Fifteen Years' Sport and Life,' by W. A. Baillie-Grohman.

Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Autobiography of a Quack,' Ernest Seton-Thompson's 'Biography of a Grizzly,' and Capt. Joshua Slocum's 'Sailing Alone Around the World,' will all graduate from the *Century Magazine* to book form on March 24.

Mr. Frederic Bancroft's 'Life of William H. Seward,' in two volumes; 'The Northwest under Three Flags,' by Charles Moore; and 'The Elements of International Law,' by Lieut.-Col. George B. Davis, are among Harper & Bros.' announcements for the current month.

Macmillan Co. will publish immediately 'The War in South Africa; Its Causes and Effects,' by J. A. Hobson, recently the South African correspondent of the Manchester *Guardian;* 'The Making of Character: Some Educational Aspects of Ethics,' by Prof. John MacCunn; 'The Care of the Child in Health,' by Dr. Nathan Oppenheim; and a "Primer Encyclopædia," in small volumes devoted to single topics, such as 'The History of Language' (by Henry Sweet), 'Dante' (by Edmund G. Gardner), 'Organic Chemistry' (by Prof. W. Ramsay), 'A History of Politics' (by Prof. E. Jenks), etc.

A scrap-book, 'Sidelights on American History, from the Discovery of America to the Civil War,' by Thomas S. Townsend, is in preparation by the author.

The Dodge Publishing Company, New York, announce 'For My Musical Friend,' essays on music and music study, by Aubertine Woodward Moore; 'Tiny Tunes for Tiny People,' by Addison F. Andrews; 'Memory Pictures of Puget Sound Region,' by Beth Bell Higgins; 'The Gentle Art of Cooking Wives,' by Elizabeth Strong Worthington; and 'Alice's Adventures in Pictureland,' by Florence A. Evans.

Carl Glucksmann, No. 14 East Forty-fifth Street, New York, will be the American agent for the portfolio of forty photogravures commemorating the Rembrandt Exhibition at Amsterdam. Many of the subjects have never before been reproduced. Dr. C. Hofstede De Groot furnishes the letterpress and a complete descriptive catalogue.

Forbes & Co., Boston, will soon publish 'A Book of Verses,' by Nixon Waterman.

Messrs. Scribners' uniform edition of Mr. Frank Stockton's novels and stories, liberally conceived, and executed with much elegance, has been extended since we last reported upon it by four volumes, viz.: 'Ardis Claverden,' 'The Great War Syndicate, etc.,' 'The House of Martha,' and 'Pomona's Travels.' The same house has issued Part I. of Mr. Kipling's reluctant reproduction (as against unauthorized and unfaithful exploitation) of his journalistic letters of travel, 1887-1889, 'From Sea to Sea.' They are, in fact, whatever seeds of promise they contain, not to be contemplated with entire satisfaction from their author's present summit. Not being works of imagination, too, they cannot well be illustrated by the elder Kipling; hence three heliogravures of actual scenes are substituted.

With Macmillan Co. we are still more in arrear. Of their two Shaksperes the Eversley series, edited by Dr. C. H. Herford, has, with its tenth volume, come to a conclusion, while the "Larger Temple" (of the Messrs. Dent) has proceeded to a sixth. Critical comment on both we defer to a more convenient opportunity; each speaks for itself on its face. The two volumes, 'A Desperate Character, and Other Stories,' and 'The Jew, and Other Stories,' complete the fifteen volumes of Constance Garnett's conscientious translation of Turgeneff's novels. That all these works are now made accessible in English from one hand is a very considerable boon; and if something of the aroma of the original is occasionally wanting in this version, the great Russian artist might easily have fared worse in other hands. The pocket "Temple Classics" run on with Earle's 'Microcosmographia' combined in a single volume with Healey's 'Characters' of Theophrastus, Shakspere being in a sort a connecting link; Defoe's 'Journal of the Plague Year'; Mr. Romesh Chandra Dutt's condensed versification of the 'Ramayana,' as a companion volume to his translation of the 'Mahabharata' already ventured in this series; Tennyson's 'Princess' from the fifth edition, and early poems (1830-'33); and 'The Earlier Monologues of Robert Browning.' Each of these charming volumes has its frontispiece portrait. Finally, in Mr. A. W. Pollard's "Library of English Classics," stately in form, but wonderfully cheap in price, already begun with Bacon's Essays and Sheridan's Plays, we have Sir Thomas Malory's 'Morte Darthur' in two volumes—"the first English classic," as the present editor points out, "for our knowledge of which we are entirely dependent on a printed text," viz., Caxton's, whose preface is here retained. The admirable feature is (besides the needful glossary) a full index of proper names, with itemizing.

We have received from the Delegates of the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde) the first four volumes of the Oxford Classical Texts (Plato, vol. i.; Thucydides, vol. i.; Lucretius, and the Minor Works of Tacitus). These volumes, compact, handy, business-like, printed in clear-cut type on good paper, and wonderfully free from errors of the press, would be singularly attractive in their simple neatness, even if they did not bear, as they do, the names of some of the very best classical scholars in England.

That the English take their pleasures seriously, if not sadly, appears from a glance at 'Standard Whist,' by Annie Blanche Shelby (Herbert S. Stone & Co.). Here are expounded and enforced the principles and rules of the modern scientific game, with a rigor which would have satisfied Sarah Battle, and with the authority of the American Whist League and the American Whist Congress. The manual is very compact, while the type is large and clear; and, as the book is convenient for hand and pocket, it seems altogether fitted for the use of those who look on whist-playing as something to be carried on in sober earnest and not with frivolity.

Mr. Nicholas Paine Gilman has long devoted himself to the study of coöperation and profit-sharing, and in his latest publication, 'A Dividend to Labor' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), he gathers facts and figures showing the extent to which employers in various countries have shared their gains with their workmen. Mr. Gilman's ideal is that of a partnership between masters and men, so far as gains are concerned, and he looks on employers who pay extra wages according to their own discretion and not as a duty, as still not free from the bonds of iniquity. "The function of the modern employer has not yet been sufficiently moralized"; and in urging this truth Mr. Gilman is earnest and convincing. His excursus on Robert Owen seems hardly necessary in a work of this kind, which is made up largely from the returns contained in various official publications. The general result is certainly very impressive, and highly encouraging to those who look forward to a permanent adjustment of the relations between masters and men on a pacific basis. We incline to the opinion that most readers will be surprised to find how great has been the progress made in this direction.

A very readable account of current methods and problems of taxation, expenditure, and fiscal management is given by Prof. W. M. Daniels of Princeton University, in 'Elements of Public Finance' (Henry Holt & Co.). While the work "owed its origin to the want the author experienced in finding a suitable text for his classes," it will be found convenient by many who are not college students.

The publication (1883-1891) of the rare or unpublished works of Alessandro Manzoni, undertaken by the late Ruggiero Bonghi, was interrupted with the fourth volume by the death of that indefatigable scholar and statesman. The choice of a successor, which lay with Senator Pierino Brambilla, fell upon Giovanni Sforza, journalist and historian, already a Manzonian student, who, in 1898, produced a fifth volume. The new editor has now published the first of ten volumes which will consist very largely of "chips" from the workshop, and will have at least the value, as Vittorio Ferrari points out in the *Perseveranza* of February 12, of demonstrating the scrupulous care bestowed by Manzoni upon his writings, where the uninitiated are filled with admiration for the "spontaneity of the casting." The new volume has a letter on Romanticism, which Manzoni considerably modified. Others will contain an unpublished scheme for a new botanical nomenclature, and annotations on the Milanese-Italian vocabulary of Cherubini.

Frau Dr. Foerster-Nietzsche has caused 1,500 copies of volume i. and 1,400 of volume xi. of the collected works of Nietzsche in a new edition to be destroyed, because of incorrect use of the manuscript.

The manuscript collection of the Boston Public Library has just been enriched by the gift, on the part of his widow, of the late Rufus Wilmot Griswold's manuscript correspondence, which had in part been

printed in the memoir published just before his death by his son, the late William McCrillis Griswold. Some 1,200 pieces range from the year 1830 to 1870. Correspondence of John Brown with the Boston friends more or less privy to his Harper's Ferry design has been given by one of their number, Col. Higginson, to the same institution. It embraces 207 letters.

The annual report of the Geological Survey of Canada, which has just been published, fills a volume of 1,078 pages. In the summary report of the director, George M. Dawson, it is stated that the general index to the earlier reports, which has been in process of compilation by Mr. D. B. Dowling for some time, has been completed and is in the hands of the printer. It contains about 31,000 references alphabetically arranged, an analytical key to localities geographically arranged, and an enumeration of all analyses and descriptions of minerals. The most important of the special reports is that of Alfred Ernest Barlow on the geology, physical features, and natural resources of the region in the vicinity of Lakes Nipissing and Temiscaming, comprising the county of Pontiac, Quebec, and portions of the district of Nipissing, Ontario. This report is accompanied by two maps on a scale of four miles to an inch, and is illustrated. A report by William McInnes treats of the geology of a tract of 3,456 square miles lying to the west of Thunder Bay, Lake Superior, comprising portions of Rainy River and Thunder Bay districts, Ontario. Other special reports are on the mineral resources of New Brunswick, by L. W. Bailey, and on the surface geology and gold-bearing deposits of the "eastern townships" and adjacent portions of southeastern Quebec. Elfric Drew Ingall contributes his annual report on mineral statistics and mines, from which it appears that the mineral product of 1897, as compared with that of 1896, showed an advance of nearly 27 per cent. This was due to the continued expansion of the mining industries of British Columbia, and the increased production of gold, silver, copper, and lead in that province.

The much lauded German university system has its seamy sides. One of them is revealed by a correspondent of the *Frankfurter-Zeitung*, who points out that the income of the many "extraordinary" professors is so small that they find it hard to subsist, even as bachelors, and if they wish to marry they have to join the officers and other fortune-hunters in search of a wealthy bride. Thus the poorer men who aspire to academic honors are in danger of being crowded out by those who happen to have well-to-do parents.

The students of the University of Berlin appear in no very favorable light in a pamphlet recently issued by one of them, Hermann Kantorowicz. He relates that, of 5,000 students connected with the University, only 335 made use of the circulating library connected with the Akademische Lesehalle, though the subscription for a term is less than twenty cents. Of the books taken out, 68.4 per cent. were fiction, with Sudermann, Fontane, and Spielhagen in the lead. Of French works, Zola's and Prévost's were most in demand, while English works were never called for in the original. The works of Shakspere, Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, and Kleist were altogether asked for only seven times in two months, and the writer attributes this to the distaste for the classics which the system of teaching them in the German schools inspires. It is likely, however, that in this case the students are not as black as painted, as they may prefer to buy clean, new copies of the classics in the cheap editions of Hendel, Meyer, Reclam, etc., who offer them in clear type and on good paper at 2½ to 5 cents a volume. The Reclam library alone has, since 1867, issued over 4,000 numbers, the demand for which keeps forty-three fast presses busy, and turns out the classics by the hundreds of thousands. Of Schiller's 'Wilhelm Tell,' for instance, 619,000 copies were sold in thirty years.

In Russia women have been for some years employed as apothecaries' clerks, and it is said that the public as well as the apothecaries themselves manifest a preference for them over men. In Germany, too, a movement in this direction has been started, the Würtemberg Minister of Education having resolved to give women a chance to secure the necessary instruction and pass examinations. On this subject the Berlin review, *Die Frauenbewegung*, has an article by Dr. W. Wächter, which gives the impression that, if women do secure this privilege, it will be anything but a sinecure. German apothecaries' clerks have to undergo a very severe course of studies, and, when they receive a position, they are expected to be on duty from seven or eight in the morning to ten or eleven at night, besides attending to the night bell every other night, if not every night. For all this they receive from fifteen dollars to eighteen dollars a month, with board and lodging, or thirty dollars to thirty-seven dollars without board and lodging. In a few exceptional cases an assistant may receive as much as fifty dollars a month. Under such circumstances it is hardly a wonder that young men do not crowd into this field of employment. It is, indeed, the difficulty of getting assistants, especially in villages, that has made many of the apothecaries willing to consider the candidacy of women. Dr. Wächter, however, sounds two notes of warning. Women clerks, he urges, should under no circumstances accept lower wages than the men, and they should, if possible, organize for protection; nor should they ever consent to act, when business is slack, as assistant to the apothecary's wife, thus enabling her to dispense with a servant.

—The February issue of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library contains some letters of James Monroe, a selection from a large number presented to the Library by Mr. John L. Cadwalader. They do but whet the appetite for more, as they are of high interest in matter and for the personal characteristics of the writer. The first three of the series were written to John Dawson of Virginia, and treat of the interminable disputes into which Monroe found himself plunged on his return from his first mission to France. His own intemperate language and some unseemly occurrences at a public dinner in Paris were naturally reported to his prejudice, and he undertakes a defence, even hinting at a duel with the man whom he looks upon as his opponent. But his unutterably base betrayal of the Reynolds charges against Hamilton, the late Secretary of the Treasury, had already placed Monroe in a position where no explanation would suffice, and where, under the code of the day, he must fight or slink away. He preferred the latter course; and he patched up his second quarrel in the same manner, shielding his public behavior under his lengthy 'View of the Conduct of the Executive,' a work published in Philadelphia, but never sold outside of Virginia. Gallatin intervened also, and thus saved Monroe from being "pitted against this contemptible rascal," Morris, who had, after all, merely repeated what had been known in France. These earlier letters of 1798 are followed by eleven letters written between 1801 and 1808, which show Monroe to be still on the defensive and still busy in explaining petty criticism. He suffers from "certain calumnies" which are continually reappearing, and somehow his explanations never fully explain—a fact of which he appears to be conscious. Later, he explains why Pinckney was allowed to continue with him in the Spanish negotiations, and expresses Napoleon's wish to promote an adjustment—a wish so fully exposed in Henry Adams's masterly history. Balked in his endeavor to reach a settlement, Monroe turns upon Livingston, and, in a cipher letter to Madison, denounces him: "There is much reason to suspect him of the grossest iniquity. . . . Be assured that he will poison what he touches. . . . In short he is the man of all others whom you should avoid, as most deserving the execrations of his country." The cause of this outburst was a suspicion that Livingston wanted the English mission, whither Monroe was now bound. There his success in diplomacy was no better, and, three years later, in 1808, he is again in Virginia, treating attacks upon himself with "silent contempt," and distributing among his correspondents thirty-six-page letters of explanation. The long letter, dated July 13, 1808, is worth a careful reading, for it is as personal as it is historic. Monroe was hurt, was opposed by a "cabal," was a Presidential possibility, and was for the moment cool to Jefferson and "out" with Madison. The letter is the outline of an address to be issued from a committee in praise of his conduct, and is a most remarkable document.

—Mr. Ellery Sedgwick's 'Thomas Paine' in the "Beacon Biographies" (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) is a notable addition to that interesting but rather uneven series. The writer brings to his task a more judicious temper than that manifested by any of Paine's better-known biographers heretofore. "It is difficult," he says, "to write of Paine without enthusiasm," and fortunately he does not succeed in doing so; but he gives us no rhapsodies. Neither have we any of those impossible theories and explanations which disfigured the elaborate apology for Paine to which Mr. M. D. Conway devoted so much patient zeal. Such mare's-nests as that Paine wrote the Letters of Junius and the Declaration of Independence, and that Gouverneur Morris deliberately plotted against his life, are passed over in silence or but lightly touched. The most ingenious advocacy does not serve Paine so well as the simple truth. The rapid movement necessitated by Mr. Sedgwick's restricted space heightens the interest of his narrative. For some reason Paine's English years, 1787-1792, make a better story than the American, 1774-1787. There is ample praise for his American service, while his mistakes are frankly conceded, as where his attack on Silas Deane is called

"a colossal imprudence." For his failings there is such consideration as they deserve, and no excess. The emphasis on Paine's religious writings is disproportionately slight for their historical importance, but the treatment of them is intelligent and just. It is a pity that Paine's most signal date, that of the publication of 'Common Sense,' January 10, 1776, is misprinted in the body of the book; but it is right in the "Chronology." The book is an important one as doing Paine even justice, and should be widely read.

—Messrs. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. have begun the publication of a series of little illustrated books on Egyptology and Assyriology which are intended to serve as short and popular introductions to the larger works on these subjects. Four volumes have appeared, three by Dr. Budge and one by L. W. King, M.A., both of the British Museum. The characterization of these is easy. Vol. i. is by Dr. Budge, 'Egyptian Ideas of the Future Life,' and its first lines will tell the reader what he has to expect: "The Egyptians believed in One God, who was self-existent, immortal, invisible, eternal, omniscient, almighty, and inscrutable; the maker of the heavens, earth, and underworld." This extraordinary statement is backed by unverifiable quotations from a now obsolete and always dubious authority, the 'Religion und Mythologie' of Brugsch. The rest of the book is of much the same type. Volume ii., 'Egyptian Magic,' is also by Dr. Budge, but is not vitiated to such a degree by fundamental misconception. It is a most readable and interesting account of Egyptian amulets, magic pictures, names, ceremonies, with tales of ghosts (some creepy enough), and dreams and enchantments where, most evidently, more is meant than meets the ear. And, in truth, the reader will often find it hard to tell whether he is reading the volume on religion or on magic; if the Egyptian ever tried to keep them apart, he failed lamentably. All of which is a warning that Dr. Budge's ideal monotheism cannot have sat very heavily. For the different usages and rites many excellent parallels are adduced. Yet, in all this, the reader will do well not to pin his faith too closely to the various "translations"; the more modern and philosophical they seem, the less are they to be trusted.

—To the third volume not even such qualified commendation as this can be given. It is also by Dr. Budge—'Easy Lessons in Egyptian Hieroglyphics.' Its ease is illusory; it can do nothing but puzzle and mislead. It ignores absolutely all the progress that has been made in determining the grammatical structure of the Egyptian language, and makes the absurd statement that, until all Egyptian texts have been published, "it is idle to attempt to make a final set of grammatical rules." No one, it may be replied, professes to have made such "a final set," but most conscientious workers have come to recognize that Egyptian must have been under grammatical laws, and that it is the duty of the student to discover what these laws were. Further, that it is the duty of the teacher to put before the learner a simple and clear outline of these laws so far as his knowledge of them has attained. But this book leaves us in grave doubt as to the state of Dr. Budge's own knowledge of Egyptian grammar. Certainly, when he does venture upon any details, as in dealing with the alphabet, the confusion is twice confounded. Thus, on p. 15, he gives us A, Á, Ā, I, U as belonging to the alphabet, in spite of the perfectly assured fact that the signs he so renders stand for consonants, and that there are absolutely no vowels in the Egyptian script except some uncertain final forms. This Dr. Budge himself admits on p. 146; so how the student is to understand, or can understand, these alphabetic forms, passes our wit. When he is further told, as on pp. 35 and 38, that there is no *e* in Egyptian, but that it has been added in the transliterations to enable him to pronounce the words more easily, he will feel the approaches of paresis and give up for good either Egyptian or Dr. Budge. We hope it will be the latter, and that he will then turn to the only trustworthy guide to Egyptian in English, or any other language, Erman's 'Egyptian Grammar,' in the "Porta Linguarum Orientalium." It is with relief that we take up the fourth volume, 'Babylonian Religion and Mythology,' by Mr. King. It can be heartily commended as simple, clear, popular, and yet scholarly and accurate. Within its limits it is abreast of the most recent research, and shows, what was known before, that Mr. King is one of the best of the younger Assyriologists. It also shows that the day of amateurism in English Assyriology is past, though English Egyptology seems still to be under the same unhappy spell that has so long controlled it.

—Mr. George Neilson's 'Annals of the Solway until A. D. 1307'—a little book of some seventy pages recently reprinted from the Transactions of the Glasgow Archæological Society by Messrs. MacLehose of Glasgow—is an excellent example of what may be called the new antiquarianism, combining as it does minute information concerning a particular locality with a competent knowledge of the best recent work in mediæval history and philology. Scholars like Mr. Neilson can do much not only to put local antiquities on a scientific footing, but also to enrich our general histories. He shows very conclusively, for instance, from a consideration of early nomenclature and cartography, that the original "Solway" was the "Sul-wath" or "muddy ford" at Eskmouth, which formed the passage from England to Scotland on the most frequented of all western routes. The Scottish end of it is still marked, he believes, by the Lochmabenstone, the lonely granitic boulder which stands a few yards above high-water mark on the seashore in Gretna parish, and which during the fifteenth century marked the place of meeting of the Warden courts for the administration of March law. It was not till the seventeenth century that the name Solway came to be attached to the Firth of the sea which lies between the Mull of Galloway and St. Bees Head. Mr. Neilson brings together all the incidents, authentic and traditional, which make the shores of the Solway so full of patriotic and romantic interest to every Scot, and presents them in a style at once scholarly and entertaining. As there are only a hundred and fifty copies of this work for sale, every library which appeals to a Scots constituency must make haste to secure one. The only fault we have to find with an otherwise exemplary performance is that there is no mention of 'Redgauntlet' even in a footnote. How Mr. Neilson can set forth the "four chief kinds of salmon fishing on the Scottish side of the Solway" (p. 52, n. 7) without referring to the Laird of the Lakes and Mr. Joshua Geddes, passes our comprehension; unless, indeed, the spearing of salmon was a sheer invention of Sir Walter's, and Mr. Neilson's piety prevents his telling us so!

—Léopold de Saussure's interesting 'Psychologie de la Colonisation Française dans ses rapports avec les Sociétés Indigènes' (Paris: Alcan), is a sweeping criticism of the French method of dealing with the indigenous populations of French dependencies. It is based upon the hypothesis, amply verified by experience, that mental characteristics of races are hereditary, accumulated through the lapse of ages, and incapable of being hurriedly changed or altered; that language, institutions, religion, and other phenomena in the life of society are to be regarded as the expression of this gradually developing race-mind, and consequently cannot be successfully improvised for the occasion, nor displaced in favor of systems evolved by a higher culture-stage. The author asserts that the French, and, indeed, all nations of the Latin stock, are deficient in ability to set aside theory and adapt themselves and their policy to prevailing conditions. In the case of the French, the doctrine of "assimilation," to which they owe so much of their colonial ill-success, dates from the famous school of dogmatists which preceded the Revolution. According to the theories of these philosophers, human beings were units, essentially alike and reasonable, a certain number of which, taken collectively, formed a given race. Deviations from the highest civilization (*i. e.*, that of the French nation) were due to mistaken reasoning. To elevate a people, therefore, it was only necessary to set clearly before them the beliefs and institutions of the highest civilization; they then would recognize the faultiness of their own system, and gratefully adopt the new. This generous project was called assimilation. In pursuance of such a theory and policy the French have vainly, and with most awkward and absurd consequences, attempted to impose their language, judiciary, etc., upon the various indigenous races which have come under their sway. In this they are likened to the Spaniards and Portuguese, and contrasted with the great colonizing peoples, the Romans and the Anglo-Saxons. Abundant facts are cited to prove the author's thesis.

LECKY'S MAP OF LIFE.

The Map of Life; Conduct and Character. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. Pp. xv and 328.

Mr. Hardcastle, of Goldsmith's immortal "She Stoops to Conquer," boasts that half the differences of the parish were adjusted in his parlor by the aid of "a little philosophy"; and the impertinent suitor, who still mistakes his intended father-in-law for the landlord of the Buck's Head, retorts, "Well, this is the first time that I ever heard of an innkeeper's philosophy." And the modern reader or hearer of this exquisite eighteenth-century comedy of errors feels that Goldsmith's wit derives half its charm from its curious old-world flavor. What does Hardcastle mean by philosophy? The term is not precisely the word that comes

naturally, in the sense in which Hardcastle uses it, to the lips of the Englishman of to-day, whether he be a squire or an innkeeper. Yet, and this is the point to which we would direct attention, there was not a man among Goldsmith's contemporaries who failed to catch his meaning. That a little philosophy would aid one in getting through the difficulties of life was one of the fundamental beliefs of the eighteenth century. The brilliant verses of Pope, the sententious morality of Johnson, the comedy of Goldsmith, the easy didacticism of Addison, all taught the same moral, and asserted or implied that the true way to escape misfortune and to insure a modicum of happiness amid the chances and dangers of life was to follow the guidance of "philosophy"—a term which, in the mouths of men of the eighteenth century, meant the application of thoughtful common sense to the practical problems on the solution whereof the happiness of civilized human beings depends.

Turn again to Hardcastle. He gives us a good enough specimen of the philosophy in which he trusted: "There was a time, indeed," he says, "I fretted myself about the mistakes of government, like other people; but finding myself every day growing more angry, and the government growing no better, I left it to mend itself." Here we have the comic rendering of Johnson's solemn conviction that the happiness of mankind was almost unaffected by forms of government or schemes of legislation, and the good-humored version of Candide's "mais il faut cultiver notre jardin." We touch upon one of the points as to which all the men who belonged in spirit to the eighteenth century agreed. True wisdom consisted, they all held, in the application to human affairs of a little philosophy. In England, the last and most effective preacher of this creed was Sydney Smith, but, though he died in 1845—three years later than Dr. Arnold of Rugby—he belonged in spirit to a bygone age, and had lived on into the midst of a generation who hardly understood his point of view or spoke his language. Consider the earnest teachers or preachers of different schools who really gave its tone to the earlier and middle portion of the nineteenth century. Take, as examples, Coleridge, Arnold, Newman, Maurice, Carlyle, and J. S. Mill. It were difficult to name together men who differed more widely in character, in education, or in their views of life. Yet a critic may be certain that in no part of the works of these eminent writers and thinkers will he find that their disciples are recommended to rely on thoughtful common sense for guidance through the intricate maze of human existence. Faith, fervor, enthusiasm, earnestness—all the forms, in short, of exalted feeling—are admitted by the teachers of the nineteenth century to be powers, and to be entitled to respect. But, in the reaction against the prosaic rationality of a preceding age, they all, consciously or unconsciously, rated at a very low value the dictates of the commonplace every-day philosophy which commended itself as much to the piety of Johnson as to the worldly sagacity of Horace Walpole.

Here, however, as in other fields of thought, the closing years of the nineteenth century betray a tendency to return towards the convictions of the eighteenth. Of this moral reversion Mr. Lecky's 'Map of Life' is a sign. It is an attempt, made by a man of eminence, to impress once more upon the world the importance of testing the conduct of life by the standard of philosophic common sense. His book is easy to read; it is interesting in itself; it is still more interesting as a sketch (and a perfectly truthful sketch) of the view of the world taken by a man of letters who, though a student, has mixed with society, and, though devoted to the study of history, has always shown a keen interest in public life. But, after all, the main interest of the book, to a thoughtful reader, will be found to lie in its suggesting the question, How far does the improvement of society arise from adherence to the maxims of common sense; or how far is it due, in the main, to those bursts of feeling or enthusiasm which, at particular eras, lift sometimes individuals and sometimes whole societies above the level of their ordinary every-day existence?

For those who believe that social progress is in the main due to the practice of enlightened prudence, the 'Map of Life,' and the class of literature to which it belongs, will appear to have a very solid value. Nor can any sensible man doubt that Mr. Lecky's book, while it can do no harm, may do much good. For it is impossible to deny that the precepts it contains are sound, and the reflections which it suggests are true. Open it anywhere at chance and you will find something which it is just as well should be said about some topic of practical importance. Look, for example, at the reflections on the relations of members of Parliament to their constituents. We cannot doubt that, after reading Mr. Lecky's pages, any one will feel that he understands a little better than he did the moral difficulties of an M. P.'s position, and, further, that it would be well if both representatives and electors cultivated the spirit of moral considerateness which pervades Mr. Lecky's counsels. Take up a totally different topic and consider what Mr. Lecky has to say upon marriage. The subject is a well-worn one; we cannot expect from our author anything which is at once very new and very true. His calm truthfulness makes the maintenance of paradox to him an impossibility; yet if his advice and thoughts are not very novel, they are, as far as they go, sound, and if the mass of Englishmen or Americans habitually looked upon marriage in the rational and sensible manner recommended by Mr. Lecky, human happiness and prosperity would undoubtedly be increased.

Exactly the same thing holds good as to his remarks on the oldest, and, on the whole, the most serious, subject of human thought, namely, death. It is certainly well to be reminded again and again that death is terrible chiefly through its accessories. It is well, again, to have our attention aroused to the difference between pagan and Christian views of mortality. They each may be made to contribute something to that calmness with which every man would wish to meet his end. On such a subject all truths are of necessity truisms, but it is an error to suppose that the meditation on truisms does not greatly, under certain circumstances, facilitate right action. The more, in fact, one reflects on the 'Map of Life' and books of a like character, the more one becomes convinced that they can and do, within certain limits, give real guidance to individuals, and aid in the progress of social improvement. One-half, at least, of the mistakes made by men in their own career, and a good deal more than one-half of the defect in the working of political institutions, is due to the patent neglect of obvious truths. Our readers, at any rate, need not be reminded that in England, in the United States, and, indeed, throughout the civilized world, misgovernment and corruption, wherever it exists, may be ascribed in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred to the widespread disposition to neglect, in the transaction of public affairs, maxims which every man who does not want to end his career in the bankruptcy court, obeys in the management of his private business. Nor is it less clear that the habit of following in public affairs the dictates of common sense, the application to the interests of the community of "a little philosophy," does in fact keep towns and states from ruin. There is, then, a great value in that practical philosophy in which the wisest men of the eighteenth century placed implicit trust.

But though this is true, no one can hold it to be the whole truth. In the life of individual men there occur, more constantly than the world supposes, crises which religious teachers call conversions, though such seemingly sudden changes of character are less sudden than they appear, and do not invariably take a religious form. But, whatever their form, these crises assuredly offer an opportunity for moral improvement—the chance, so to speak, of a new birth, which seems to be, and perhaps is, quite independent of prudential morality. What may be conjectured to be true of individuals is still more certainly true of societies. It is to the periods of faith or fervor that any historian must ascribe the changes which have revolutionized the world. The rise of Christianity, the Crusades, the Reformation, even the French Revolution, doubtful as is the amount of the benefit which its noisy rhetoric and bloody violence bestowed upon mankind, did for a time at least raise whole societies to a level which they could never have reached by the practice of prudential morality. Every movement, indeed, which has really aided human progress, has been the parent of innumerable petty amendments in the conduct of life. But these small social ameliorations which delight men of common sense are rather the results than the cause of that sudden advance towards a higher level of social existence which is really due to the inspiration of enthusiasm. Franklin owed a great deal to the Pilgrim Fathers. He, too, constructed his map of life, and in some respects it was a good chart enough for men who, living in an unenthusiastic age, needed a little philosophy to point out to them the roads which lead towards the practical happiness of individuals and of states. But it must never be forgotten that it is only after an heroic generation has, with reckless energy, removed the impediments to human well-being, that men of sense can reap the practical fruits of a revolution which they themselves could never have carried through.

From one point of view, therefore, it is natural, and even reasonable, that thinkers who reflect on the course of history should rate somewhat low the worth of the sound and slightly prosy truisms propounded by the class of writers of whom Mr. Lecky is a very favorable representative. Yet this depreciation of moral commonplaces may easily be carried a great deal too far. Enthusiasm or faith is at bottom neither a virtue nor a vice, but a power. Its true

worth depends on its being guided by wisdom, and there is no better test by which to discriminate the faith which every one recognizes as good, from that dangerous enthusiasm on which all the best thinkers of the eithteenth century looked with profound distrust, than to examine whether the passionate feeling which we are called upon by men of one school to admire, and by men of another school to dread, does or does not lead to actual, palpable improvement in the conduct of life. We all know that the periods of faith have worked no small amount of evil. Religion has been but too often the parent of persecution. The Crusades led to an almost unlimited waste of life, and, what was far worse, encouraged the worship of more than one false ideal. Most Protestants will assert (and, as we hold, with reason) that the Reformation not only purified the religion of Europe, but also indirectly but certainly set up in Protestant countries a new ideal of intellectual and moral sincerity. Yet the wars of religion, culminating in the lengthy and almost useless horrors of the Thirty Years' War, constitute a fearful set-off against the benefits reaped by mankind from the enthusiasm or faith of heroes such as Luther or Calvin.

If we want, then, to know what the mass of men have really gained from an age of enthusiasm, we must consider what is the nature of the practical morality to which it ultimately gave rise. Did it, in the long run, make ordinary commonplace men better and wiser than their forefathers? What, to use Mr. Lecky's phrase, was the map of life by which, after the emotions that cannot from the nature of things be lasting in the lives either of individuals or of societies had cooled down, men adopted for their guidance? The ordinary morality, in short, which finally prevails in any society, tests the worth of the great movements of which that morality is in reality the product. Books like Mr. Lecky's 'Map of Life' have, then, a real value and importance; they are not, it is true, the cause of any great changes in men's way of thinking, but they are the record of the results which have been gained during periods of passion or fervor. They are, too, something more than mere records. The practical philosophy which authors like Mr. Lecky inculcate, if it does not rouse men to heroic efforts, does distinctly tend to prevent them from falling below their own recognized ideals. Their interest and their merit is that they in fact afford to commonplace persons a real though not profound philosophy of life.

NEW BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

A Biographical Dictionary of Musicians. Compiled and Edited by Theodore Baker. G. Schirmer.

Beethoven. By Frederick J. Crowest. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Wagner. By Charles A. Lidgey. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Recollections of Johannes Brahms. By Albert Dietrich and J. V. Widmann. English by Dora E. Hecht. Scribners.

Wotan, Siegfried, and Brünnhilde. By Anna Alice Chapin. Harpers.

Old Scores and New Readings. By John F. Runciman. London: Unicorn Press.

Dr. Baker justly claims that no other work of similar scope can compete in completeness, freshness, and accuracy with his 'Biographical Dictionary of Musicians.' It is a book of 653 pages in double columns, and the editor has evidently spared no pains to make it superior to its predecessors. Heretofore Riemann's 'Musik-Lexicon' has been the standard, and it remains so as a dictionary of musical subjects; but in its biographic department it is less complete and universal (at least in its fourth edition, 1894—the fifth has not yet reached this country) than Dr. Baker's, which, as was to be expected, pays more attention to American musicians than foreign writers have done. Dr. Baker has also done wisely in giving somewhat larger relative space to living musicians than to those whose career is ended, and many of whom are described at length in special works. Of these special works he gives a list after each composer—a list which is usually more international, and in some cases (Wagner, for instance) much more complete, than Riemann's. In other cases there are serious omissions: H. F. Frost's little volume should not have been omitted from the naturally scant Schubert bibliography; and under the head of Anton Seidl it was unpardonable not to refer to the sumptuous memorial volume written by his friends and published by the Scribners a year ago. Nearly 6,000 biographies are given, three hundred of which are illustrated by pen-and-ink vignettes by Mr. Gribayédoff. The editor apologizes for a lack of completeness in this respect on the ground that it was difficult to procure photographs; but this does not explain why Emma Eames, Nordica, Lilli Lehmann, and Sembrich are not pictured. Emma Calvé, the greatest French vocalist-actress of the century, is not even represented by a biography.

Mr. Frederick J. Crowest, editor of a series of books entitled "The Great Masters," opens it himself with a biography of Beethoven, whom it has become customary to accept as the master of masters, though, to be sure, Bach and Handel surpassed him as choral writers, Weber, Wagner, and Bizet in the field of opera, Chopin and others in pianoforte music, Schubert, Franz, and others in lyric song, leaving him only the symphony in which to assert his supremacy. In view of the prevalent high opinion of Beethoven, it is rather strange that there has been hitherto no handy short volume telling English readers the story of his life and the most interesting things about his best-known compositions. This, Mr. Crowest has undertaken to do, and has succeeded very well, having taken his information from so many sources that even experts will here and there come across a fact or two new to them. Of special value to students are the appendices, especially the first, which gives a bibliography including not only books but magazine articles. Appendix B gives a list of the published works, chronologically arranged; C sums up the principal incidents in Beethoven's life, and D describes briefly the personages associated in any way with him.

The second volume in Mr. Crowest's series —'Wagner,' by Charles A. Lidgey—is not entitled to the same praise. The life of Wagner was so full of romantic incidents that it seems almost impossible to make an uninteresting story of it; yet the author has accomplished this remarkable feat in seventy-four pages. Nor are the chapters devoted to Wagner's art principles and operas any more interesting. They are mere compilations without any new points of view. This book, in brief, has no good *raison d'être.*

Admirers of Brahms will welcome the Recollections of Dietrich and Widmann, which together make up a sort of biographic mosaic including the years 1853 to 1896. Prof. Dietrich was an intimate friend of Brahms during the years when the latter was emerging into fame with the aid of Schumann, while Dr. Widmann accompanied the composer on several of his trips to Italy. A melancholy interest attaches to the pages describing the last days of Schumann, and the grief of the widow, who wrote to Dietrich two years after the composer's death: "People always say that time heals wounds; I do not find that true, for I feel the loss daily more painfully, and no longer know any happiness in life." From Brahms himself, notorious for his aversion to writing, Dietrich received a surprising number of letters, which he prints, though few of them present any points of interest. Not that Brahms lacked the brains to write an entertaining letter. Many of the details given in this volume prove his interest in other things besides music; but, like Chopin, he could not make up his mind to write a note, though he was indefatigable in writing "notes."

One of the oddest things in regard to Brahms is the contrast between his personality and his music. Nothing could be more austere, conventional, and devoid of humor than his compositions, whereas he himself was unconventional to the point of rudeness, and constantly playing pranks or cracking jokes. Dietrich relates how, "with the boisterousness of youth, he would run up my stairs, knock at my door with both fists, and, without awaiting a reply, burst into the room." His jokes were sometimes not understood, and gave offence; nor was his biting sarcasm relished by its victims. Widmann writes that "the short, square figure, the almost sandy-colored hair, the protruding under-lip which lent a cynical expression to the beardless and youthful face, was striking and hardly prepossessing." In later life, however, his face acquired an expression which reflected his strong mentality, and it is said that a school geography printed his head as a type of the Caucasian race. His only personal defect was that he was very near-sighted; yet he used to remark that this had its advantage because it allowed him to see many more beautiful women than those who had keener vision.

Among the most interesting pages in the book are those in which Brahms's operatic projects—which never came to anything—are described. Brahms, unlike Wagner, Verdi, and all other modern composers, believed in the old opéra-comique style, in which only the climax, and those parts of the action where words alone do not suffice, are set to music, the rest being spoken. At the same time, he had a high opinion of Wagner, calling himself one day, in the course of conversation, "the best of Wagnerites," and observing that his comprehension of the Wagnerian scores was probably more profound than that of any contemporary. Verdi, too, he admired, and once, when Bülow had spoken disparagingly of the "Requiem," Brahms said, "Bülow has made a fool of himself for all time; only a genius could have written that."

Miss Chapin's love of Wagner's operas is

so absorbing that she cannot get away from them. To her 'Story of Rhinegold' and 'Wonder Tales from Wagner' she has now added a third book discussing "the divinity of Wotan, the humanity of Siegfried, and the divinity in humanity of Brünnhilde." Inasmuch as there are many who are as indefatigable in reading about Wagner as some are in writing about him, this last book of Miss Chapin's will doubtless be welcomed by such as like to look below the surface of things.

Mr. Runciman's 'Old Scores and New Readings' is a collection of entertaining papers on musical topics which must be cordially commended to the attention of all lovers of the art who like to be stimulated to thought, and are not afraid to be shocked once in a while by an opinion outrageously opposed to everything they have ever heard and believed. The author is one of the leaders among the new school of English critics who are making life a burden to Joseph Bennett and other veterans in the profession. Early in his career he involved the *Saturday Review* in a law suit by some indiscretion. That was six years ago, and he has since toned down a little; yet he is not afraid to refer, in the book now before us, to one of the English idols, the late eminent Macfarren, as "the worst enemy music has ever had" in England; and he will arouse much indignation by his remarks on the "Messiah." Not that he underrates that oratorio or its composer; he rather overrates them; but he tells his countrymen bluntly (and truly) that the real "Messiah" is practically unknown, and that its vogue in the provinces is due to the fact that it has become a Christmas institution, like plum pudding and mince pie. Greatly as he admires Handel—the real Handel—Mr. Runciman points out his enormous debt to Purcell, England's "last great musician" (1658-'95), and quotes with approval Burney's opinion that, "in the accent of passion, and expression of English words, the vocal music of Purcell is . . . as superior to Handel's as an original poem to a translation." Mr. Runciman's general attitude is well illustrated in the remark, anent the latest phase of German music, that "it is high time for a return to the simplicity of Mozart, of Handel, of our own Purcell; to dare, as Wagner dared, to write folk-melody, and to put it on the trombones at the risk of being called vulgar and rowdy by persons who do not know great art when it is original, but only when it resembles some great art of the past which they have learnt to know."

Perhaps the best of Mr. Runciman's twenty essays are those on six of Wagner's operas. They show much more true critical insight than the comments of any of the German essayists, be their name Hanslick, Ehlert, Ehrlich, Chamberlain, Porges, Wolzogen, or what not. He begins one of his essays with the statement that "'Lohengrin' has been sung scores of times at Covent Garden in one fashion or another; but I declare that we heard something resembling the real 'Lohengrin' for the first time when Mr. Anton Seidl crossed the Atlantic to conduct it and other of Wagner's operas. . . . Mr. Seidl came all the way from New York city to show us how out of sweetness can come forth strength"; and he specifies the reasons for this judgment. In the paper on "Siegfried" he remarks that "the music Siegfried has to sing is the richest, most copious stream of melody ever given to one artist"; and he has some eloquent pages regarding the scenic charms of these operas, closing with the words that, "had Wagner not lived in Switzerland, and gone his daily walks amongst the mountains, the 'Ring' might have been written; but certainly it would have been written very differently."

The real secret of Brahms's success Mr. Runciman has summed up in six pages better than any one else has done it. There are also interesting papers on Tchaikovsky, Haydn, Mozart, Schubert, "Fidelio," Verdi, "Italian Opera, Dead and Dying," Dvorák, Lamoreux and his orchestra, all of them worth reading and rereading, though justice is not done to Schubert and Dvorák.

FISKE'S DUTCH AND QUAKER COLONIES.

The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899. 2 vols. Pp. xvi, 294, 400.

Mr. Fiske is building up in a leisurely way his series of works on American history, already reaching considerable proportions. Between the early period of colonization and settlement, treated in part in the 'Discovery of America,' 'Old Virginia and her Neighbors,' and the 'Beginnings of New England,' and the later period dealt with in the 'American Revolution' and the 'Critical Period,' there has been left as a gap in the series the story of the middle colonies, and of New France and the French and English rivalry. The first of these lacunæ has now been supplied by the two volumes on the Dutch and Quaker colonies; the second, carrying the narrative as a whole down to 1765, where the 'American Revolution' begins, Mr. Fiske hopes to fill in two years. When completed, the successive works will form a connected account of American history, from the discovery of the continent to the establishment of government under the Constitution.

The history of the middle colonies is not commonly thought of as, in the ordinary sense, particularly interesting. Not that there is an absence of interesting episodes or a lack of local color. About the Dutch life in New York, especially in its earlier years, there is not a little that is distinctive, and much that is picturesque. The simplicity and canniness of William Penn and his followers give to the annals of Pennsylvania an undoubted charm, different, at least, from anything to be found elsewhere. But aside from details, and taking the middle group as a whole, there is undeniably an impression among students, reflected in the works of historians themselves, that the time and place are not attractive. The story must be told, of course, but there is rarely much zest in either the telling or the hearing of it. There is no strenuous and long-continued moral struggle, as in New England, no growth of a dominant type of character out of peculiar social conditions, as in the South. In the early period, at least, there is a poverty of distinguished names. The very cosmopolitanism and many-sidedness of middle colony life, while often an agreeable relief from uniformity and monotony, make against individual prominence, and render the course of events less easy to follow.

Bearing in mind the limitations of his aim, it seems to us that Mr. Fiske has done all that a writer can do to make the story of the Dutch and Quaker colonies interesting, and to bring their history into vital touch with that of their neighbors to the north and south. For such a task, by no means easy, Mr. Fiske has certain preëminent qualifications. First of all a philosopher, he values the broad view. Truth means to him, in fact as well as in theory, an understanding of things in their relations; and events which, by most writers, are dealt with in isolation, are viewed by him as inseparably bound up with all that ever has been. He is never in a hurry to have done with a subject, never willing to leave it until he has turned upon it every ray of light, however remote, that he thinks can illumine it. This broad and deliberate character of his historical method is nowhere better exhibited than in the work before us. A chapter on the mediæval Netherlands, another on the Dutch influence upon England (with the author's respects to Douglas Campbell, of course), a third on Verrazzano and Henry Hudson, and a fourth on the Dutch West India Company —in all, nearly one-half of the first volume —are deemed necessary to explain the conditions and principles of Dutch colonization before we reach the time of the patroons, when the systematic exploitation of New Netherland begins. Similarly, fifty pages of volume ii. are devoted to tracing the career of William Penn down to the time when he obtained the grant of his province. Critics will certainly differ as to the wisdom of giving so much space, relatively speaking, to matters of this preliminary sort, and we ourselves can but think the allotment excessive; but there can be no question that the plan gives the reader a new and broadened view of the significance of the colonial experiments, and of the influences which, at the beginning, determined their course.

A further quality of Mr. Fiske's, and one which stands him in good stead in the present work, is his sympathy. His lively historic imagination, his power of realizing past events as having actually happened, gives to his personal appreciations a human character not always found in the pages of more learned historians. Stuyvesant, loyal servant of his masters, but constitutionally blinded to some of the most patent of the conditions which surrounded him, merits respect and kindly pity rather than condemnation. Kieft, with all his highhandedness, is almost as amusing as he is tyrannical. Leisler is an ignorant but not half-bad person, less an adventurer at heart than the victim of his own overweening conceit, and in the end, at least, mentally unstrung. The lovable side of Penn's character, and the peaceful course of his "holy experiment," have never been more sympathetically sketched. There is cordial recognition of Nicolls's ability, and a kindly word for the hated Andros. In short, whether we have here the whole story or not, there is no doubt but that the subjects of Mr. Fiske's investigations actually lived, walked and talked, had characters and aims like other men, and met the conditions which confronted them in pretty much the same way that men of similar character and station meet similar conditions now.

Then there is the question of literary merit. Whatever the worth of Mr. Fiske's books as critical historical studies, none will deny that they are, in the full and genuine sense of the word, literature. It would be

superfluous to dwell again on the qualities of Mr. Fiske's writing—its perfect clearness and simplicity, its smoothness, its movement and sprightliness, its skilful alternation of grave and gay. It is not, we think, a style wholly without faults. Much public lecturing, we suspect, has tended to make it a bit diffuse, and opened the way for occasional pleasantries and trivialities which, however pleasing to a popular audience, jar a little when met with on the printed page. But it is, for all that, a style with character, distinction, and charm. It is a notable thing that in this day, when our younger historical scholars are so often warned against devoting precious time and space to questions of form and expression, the most popular of our historians should insist upon making history interesting, and spend his wealth of literary power in the serious business of historical exposition.

Yet, notwithstanding the undoubted interest of the whole performance, and its pervading impression of satisfactoriness, we nevertheless do not have here the whole story—nor always, if quantity alone be considered, even the larger part of it. It needs no exhaustive acquaintance with the field to make clear that a great many things happened of which Mr. Fiske's narrative takes either slight account, or none at all. The criticism, applicable to all of the author's historical works, finds renewed illustration in this his latest one. The account of Pennsylvania, for example, in the volumes before us, gives little indication of the controversies between the Proprietor and the colonists which, beginning soon after the colony was planted, gave form to much of its later history. The occasions of the successive frames of government are not clearly pointed out, nor more than a hint given of the changes introduced by each. There is no distinct impression of the history of New Jersey, save as that colony comes into collision with Andros, nor of Delaware, save as an unimportant appanage of Pennsylvania. In general, too, what we like to call "institutions" do not seem to appeal to Mr. Fiske. One will search his pages in vain for particular light on the problems of government, administration, and law, of land tenure, suffrage, and citizenship, which vexed the course of middle-colony history and formed the subjects of sharp political discussion. The same is true, in the main, of economic history. Doubtless, these are all prosaic matters, not very interesting to read, and often difficult to make clear in a limited space; but they were unquestionably vital issues, however overshadowed at times by more spectacular events; and they were potent influences in forming the tone and temper of colonial life. Mr. Fiske, however, takes a different course. He seizes upon leading incidents, always typical and important, but also always capable of vivid and stirring treatment; and to these he gives a picturesque and brilliant treatment. The resulting picture is true, the parts well grouped, and the general effect undeniably fine; but it must be confessed that a good deal of importance is left out which, if inserted, would sometimes make the picture less lovely to look upon.

Save in the respects already mentioned, the 'Dutch and Quaker Colonies' presents few points for detailed comment, and little occasion for differing from the author's judgments and critical estimates. Like all its predecessors, it does not impress one as primarily a work of erudition—partly, no doubt, because the wealth of first-hand information is so interestingly presented. But no one will get from them an erroneous impression of American history; and it is because Mr. Fiske knows whereof he speaks, and speaks because he has something to say, that his books are, especially for non-professional readers, such safe and inspiring guides. If the chief business of the historian is to add to the stock of available and sifted knowledge, and increase the load of fact which the human mind must somehow bear, Mr. Fiske's works must doubtless yield somewhat to others; but if the object be, rather, so to select and group facts as to make the past live again, their success must be admitted to be of a high order.

Animal and Plant Lore. Collected from the Oral Tradition of English-speaking Folk. Edited and annotated by Fanny D. Bergen, with an introduction by Joseph Y. Bergen. Published for the American Folk-Lore Society by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

Mrs. Bergen gives 1,397 sayings concerning animals and plants in their relations to weather signs, incantations, supposed remedial powers, and the like, placing after each number the name of the locality where some one has heard the utterance. Doubtless Mrs. Bergen possesses exact records of the authorities who have communicated to her these fragments of folk-lore, and we regret that she has not given these in her pages. Without such citation it is exceedingly difficult to make scientific use of the material she has so laboriously accumulated. Some of the geographical ranges appear to be too wide; for instance, "General in the United States" is frequently given. We should be glad to acquire exact information as to how many separate authorities in diverse localities have made identical contributions. In the absence of such data, it is impossible to trace the historical relations and the distribution as fully as is desirable. Since Mrs. Bergen must needs have these data, we earnestly urge her to publish them in a revised edition.

There is another change which should be suggested, namely, a more rigorous classification of the sayings. In such a revision, we should expect to find the following placed under the heading Folk-medicine, rather than under Omens, where they are now:

"140. Whooping-cough may be cured by binding about the neck of the diseased one some hair of a little girl that has never seen her father. Green Harbor, Mass.

"141. If a child has the thrush, and some one who has never seen his own father blows in its face (down its throat), the child will be cured. Salem, Ind., and Fort Worth, Tex."

Another on the same page is with difficulty classified, but we do not clearly see its relation to the heading Omens:

"145. Wish when you see a new-born calf."

Mrs. Bergen's notes are excellent. They supplement the sayings very largely, and point out a few of the relations of these curious phrases among our own people to the folk-sayings in other countries. And, lastly, we may say, before making a few citations, that the omissions which will occur to some of the readers of the book are very few, and perhaps Mrs. Bergen could give good reasons for them.

First, to illustrate the different and uncertain views taken in regard to omens:

"174. A black cat coming to the house is unlucky. Cape Breton and New Hampshire.

"175. It is good luck for a black cat to come to your house. Eastern Massachusetts and Pennsylvania.

"172. To be followed by a black cat signifies good luck. New England and Eastern Kansas.

"173. A black cat following you at night means bad luck. Eastern Mass.

"187. If a cat wash her face in front of several persons, the first person she looks at will be the first to get married. Alabama.

"188. The first person a cat looks at after washing its face will die sooner than any other bystander. [No locality noted.]"

From this it would appear that "folk" are rather undecided as to the real significance of cats.

Fingernails are almost as perplexing as cats, as the following citations show:

"750. Cut the baby's nails every Friday, and it will never have the toothache. [No locality cited.]

"751. If you cut off your fingernails on Friday, you will never have the toothache. [No locality cited.]"

But observe how the next, which is assigned to Chester, N. H., puts us all at sea again:

"752. Cut your nails on Friday, and you will have toothache."

Of course, it is among the negroes that we find some of the most startling beliefs treasured in folk-sayings:

"759. If you lose a tooth, you will have to search for it on the Day of Judgment. Alabama (negro).

"742. If you lose a hair, you will have to search for it on the Day of Judgment. Alabama (negro).

"51. After a death in the house, change the position of the door-knob, so that the ghost may not find his way in. Norfolk, Va. (negro).

"993. Jay-birds are on duty in hell every third day. They go as messengers to tell of backsliders, etc., to the devil. Heaven's no place for them. Chestertown, Md. (negro).

"915. White people are descendants of Cain. All mankind was once black, but when the Lord asked Cain where Abel was, Cain turned white with fright, and so remained. Chestertown, Md. (negro)."

Enough citations have been given to indicate that in this book Mrs. Bergen has brought together certain fragments of common speech which, with the additional data for which we ask, might be of use in tracing out the paths by which certain folk have wandered through the world. We hope that collections like this of Mrs. Bergen may stimulate even unobservant persons to record faithfully the few folk-sayings which may still linger in their neighborhood.

Letters of David Ricardo to Hutches Trower and Others, 1811-1823. Edited by James Bonar, LL.D., and J. H. Hollander, Ph.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

Much has been done during the last few years by the publication of Ricardo's correspondence to make the great economist a more human figure to our imagination. The present publication will do even more in this direction than the letters to Malthus, edited by Dr. Bonar in 1887, or the letters to McCulloch, edited by Professor Hollander in 1896. Not only do they cover a greater variety of topics, and deal, as the editors remark, almost as much with Ireland, savings banks, and Queen Caroline as with pure economics and finance, but Ricardo here "lets himself go" with greater freedom, and sometimes even jests

—"with difficulty," it is true, but still he manages it. To do it, he actually condescends to echo the current misrepresentation of Malthus. "Our Princes," he writes in 1817, "have certainly not refrained from marriage from a consideration of Malthus's prudential check. If they had, . . . we might expect that the great demand for Royal infants would be followed by so ample a supply as to occasion a glut." This is elephantine playfulness. And these letters show that Ricardo was not devoid of the æsthetic sense. From Antwerp he writes: "To see the Descent from the Cross by Rubens is alone worth all the trouble of a journey from London"; and it is interesting to see how naturally his artistic appreciation expresses itself in the language of value.

On economic doctrine these letters do but repeat the arguments and explanations addressed elsewhere to Malthus and others. Like these, they raise a question on which there prevails a certain ambiguity, which the editor's introduction will hardly clear up. What is to be called "the doctrine" of a writer? His statement in a formal treatise, interpreted according to the ordinary meaning of the words, and so understood by contemporaries? or a version of that statement which introduces all the qualifications that he left out, and that subsequent criticism made him acknowledge? Surely, both views are necessary, and the former as much as the latter; for if the latter is required for the understanding of the man, the former is required for the understanding of his influence. It might be suggested that the time has come for an edition of Ricardo's Principles which shall print at the foot of the page Ricardo's explanations of his meaning as given in his correspondence. It would probably show that the difficulty with Ricardo often lay in his use of terms and not in his deductions. There is a significant passage here where he remarks (p. 113): "By the very definition of natural price, it is wholly dependent on cost of production, and has nothing to do with demand and supply." Of course, if natural price is defined as dependent on cost of production only, the conclusion as to demand and supply is not a conclusion at all, but another way of saying the same thing. Ricardo regrets that "the progress of the science" of political economy "is very much impeded by the contrary ideas which men attach to the word value." To put it mildly, Ricardo did not do anything to secure unanimity.

The volume before us, the joint work of the Secretary of H. M. Civil Service Commission and of a professor in the Johns Hopkins University, is a pleasing illustration of that growing coöperation between English and American scholars of which the recent publication of a Cornell professor's edition of Petty by the Cambridge University Press is another example.

How Women May Earn a Living. By Helen Churchill Candee. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

A woman who has been trained from her youth up, as many women now are trained, to the practice of some art, profession, trade, or handicraft, will probably find the title of this book more comprehensive than the contents warrant. In general, the earner contemplated is she who has neither training nor considerable capital; and the dedication, "To all those women who labor through necessity and not caprice," betrays a curious confusion of economic ideas. The notion that women who hold sufficient property to live on its income, or who are supported by the property or exertions of others, are committing an injustice by undertaking paid work, involves a socialistic proposition which those who hold the notion would be slow to extend, as it should logically be extended, to include the case of men. Unless we are willing to say that no millionaire should be president of a university or member of the cabinet, we cannot exhaustively divide workers for hire into those inspired by necessity and those inspired by "caprice." The man or woman who can do the work best is the person who, in the interests of the community, should do it.

Moreover, every one who has had to do with the administration of concerted work, in philanthropic or other enterprises, where volunteers are employed, knows the nuisances attending the presence of unpaid service. If it be argued that such fields are precisely those which the rich should use their leisure to cultivate without hire, it must be rejoined that the receipt of a fee, however unimportant its money value to the recipient, secures from the average worker an added punctuality of service and sense of business responsibility, while its payment confirms in the director the power of unembarrassed suggestion and control. These facts are peculiarly true of women. The steadying effect on a well-meaning rich woman of obliging her to receive payment for her work, is often such as to remove completely from her mental attitude the stigma of "caprice." These considerations have been overlooked by the author of the work under discussion.

Having realized, however, that the book is chiefly an antiseptic for the use of gentlewomen threatened with decay, the reader will find it thoroughly well done. A clear, brisk style has been used to set forth facts and advice which the experience of most working-women will endorse. Amid a well-chosen array of illuminating details, the fundamental moral qualities necessary for successful work are never lost sight of. The would-be earner is reminded again and again that she need not despair though she have not training or experience or capital or influence, but that capacity she must have. The unity of treatment secured by the discussion by the same author of all the subjects treated, gives the treatise a superiority over collections of papers by different hands, and ample notice is served on the reader that special treatment of each branch of activity must be sought for in its own literature. Though all are excellent, the chapters on "The Ideal Boarding-House," on "Architecture and Interiors," and on "The Out-of-Town Woman" may perhaps be singled out as most fully showing the common sense, candor, and intelligence which form the character of the book.

Outlines of Military Geography. By T. Miller Maguire, LL.D., of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law; Lieutenant, Inns of Court Rifle Volunteers. [Cambridge, Eng., Geographical Series.] The Macmillan Co. 8vo, pp. 359, with maps, plans, etc.

The zeal of the English volunteers is well shown by this handsome volume, which is a convenient compilation from a wide examination of authorities in various languages, from nearly all parts of the world. After a brief presentation of the leading principles of strategy, the author considers the application of these to geography, and the necessary relations between geographical knowledge and the conduct of campaigns. To an English writer the Command of the Sea is a subject of capital importance, and this, including the special strategical importance of the Mediterranean, is treated in several chapters. Then follows the study of Frontiers in their relation to military operations, of fortifications as related to geography, of routes of invasion, of roads and defiles, of historic lines of invasion, ancient and modern, with interesting comments on their frequent identity. A chapter on the effects of climate completes the work.

Strategy is, of course, so closely connected with both geography and local topography that all strategic study is geographical. Yet Mr. Maguire's book so gathers together brief sketches from campaigns in all parts of the world that an approximate classification of geographical conditions results, and the student is both stimulated and guided in geographical study as an essential of military art. Examples of the embarrassments and losses resulting from neglect or insufficient mastery of geographical knowledge are strongly presented; prominent among these being the inferior preparation of the French in this department of training in 1870.

The lessons of our civil war are much more frequently referred to than is usual with European writers. This is not always done with fully digested knowledge, but many of the references are very apt. On page 206, however, the first bombardment of Fort Fisher on the North Carolina coast (December 24, 1864) is mistakenly made part of the attack upon Vicksburg on the Mississippi, nearly two years earlier.

Browning, Poet and Man: A Survey. By Elisabeth Luther Cary. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It is easy enough to call a book sumptuous, but that much abused epithet is really not wasted on the mechanical execution of Miss Cary's 'Browning.' Like Dr. Hale's 'James Russell Lowell and his Friends,' it is sure to be bought for its illustrations, had it no other value. To have in one volume eight different portraits of Robert Browning taken at different periods of life and by a variety of artists and methods, is a pleasure before denied to his admirers. To these are added, most appropriately, four of the sketches and caricatures made by the poet's father; also portraits, more or less appropriate, of Tennyson, Morley, Carlyle, and Lord Sherbrooke; the familiar likeness of Mrs. Browning; ten pictures of places identified with Browning's life or mentioned in his poems, and a reproduction of the curious pair of designs which appeared in the London *Sketch*, giving the poet's own idea of the 'Pied Piper.' To these must be added full-page engravings of Guercino's 'Guardian Angels' and Fra Lippo Lippi's 'Coronation of the Virgin,' with its endless array of interesting heads. This is a great deal; but, after all, the chief interest of the book lies in the series of portraits, ranging from the conventionalized and Byronic one, taken in

Browning's youth, very familiar years ago to the readers of Horne's 'Spirit of the Age'—through the self-conscious pose of Lehmann's picture in the National Portrait Gallery, the distorted outlines of Alexander, the over-florid painting by the poet's son, representing the father in his academical robes, and the somewhat obtrusively cheery *Art Journal* picture in middle life—to the wholly simple and natural photograph, taken in old age, of Browning sitting in the open air with his hat on. Were there nothing else in the book but this series of pictures, one might say that no lover of the poet could well go without it.

When we turn to the letter-press, one cannot speak so unreservedly. In this respect the book must be pronounced faithful and conscientious, representing a good deal of labor with the pen and sometimes with the scissors; also free from pettiness or undue briskness, and bringing together a great deal of information, if not adding much. Some of its summaries of character, as that on page 119, are extremely good, and there are excellent *obiter dicta*, as where the author speaks (p. 111) of "the curious temper of acquiescence that almost invariably enters into Browning's conception of heroism," or of Browning's "invariable premise that life is worth while" (p. 131), or of the "pagan serenity of the natural world" as seen in Wordsworth (p. 135); or where she describes the mind of Louis Napoleon as "obscure, contradictory, and elusive" (p. 147). These indicate in the author a mind more penetrating and original than the ordinary execution of the book exhibits. But the work as a whole is of decided value, and to the average reader it will afford more pleasure, in all probability, than any single volume yet produced in respect to Browning.

Picture Study in Elementary Schools: Manual for Teachers, Parts I. and II. Pupil's Book, Parts I. and II. By L. L. W. Wilson, Author of 'Nature Study in Elementary Schools,' etc. Macmillan Co. 1900.

These little books are in so far welcome as they show a growing realization of the educational value of art, and a tendency among teachers to introduce the study of art (not the study of drawing, which is a very different thing) into elementary schools. We wish we could say that the books themselves are well done, but we cannot. The idea is excellent, but the execution is inferior.

The idea is briefly this. The Pupil's Book provides four or five pictures for each month of the school year, each a reproduction of some well-known work of art, and accompanied merely by some short prose or verse quotation. An attempt is made to provide a natural arrangement of subjects with some reference to the time of year. The small pictures in the book are intended to be supplemented by at least one large picture each month, of a size to be seen by the whole class, and to become a permanent decoration for the school-room. All comment and instruction is to be supplied by the teacher, and the Manual is intended to provide suggestions for such instruction and references for further study by the teacher.

The first thing to be considered in the execution of such a plan is the selection of the pictures for reproduction, and in the present case this may be praised in so far as there are many good pictures chosen, and few or no positively bad ones. But this is not enough. The very best is none too good for the child, and it would be perfectly possible to replace many of the mediocre pictures here given by works of the highest order of merit, which should be equally interesting in subject, and infinitely more valuable in the unconscious education of taste. One instance will show what we mean as well as a dozen. Hofmann's very popular but very cheap and meretricious picture of "Christ among the Doctors" is one of those given. Luini's noble painting of the same subject in the National Gallery is equally available from every point of view as to subject and treatment, and incomparably better as art. Why fob the child off with Hofmann, when he might have Luini? Salvator's "Diogenes in Search of an Honest Man" is a picture so ugly that, to our mind, it should have been excluded, but if it was to be given, why is it reproduced from an engraving rather than from the original? It is not the only case in these books of this unjustifiable proceeding, and we must repeat that the children have a right to the best, not only in art, but in reproduction. Engravings, especially old ones, are notoriously unfaithful, and should never be shown to beginners where a reproduction from the original can be had. If no good direct reproduction is available, it would be better to omit the picture entirely. The present author is not so bitten with the mania for "grading" as some other educators. She quotes two courses, proposed by the State Director of Drawing of Massachusetts and by the Director of Drawing of Boston, in each of which there are five "Primary Grades" and four "Grammar Grades," all, presumably, arranged on some theory of progression. Mrs. Wilson is content with the separation of the pictures into two sets, Part I. for the primary schools, and Part II. for grammar schools; but even so we cannot discover the system on which the choice is made. Why is Adam's "Cat Family" a picture for primary scholars, and Mme. Ronner's cat picture, "A Fascinating Tale," one for grammar-school pupils? Or in what way is Boughton's "Return of the *Mayflower*" more fitted for advanced study than is his very similar "Pilgrim Exiles"? Of the two we should have said that the presence of the ship in the first-named picture rendered it the easier of comprehension. Only in the postponement to the second part of such old masters as Lionardo, Michelangelo, and Veronese, and of such moderns as Burne-Jones and Sargent—that is, of such painters as are more artistic than popular—do we seem to get a glimpse of system.

Many of the quotations in the Pupil's Books are pretty and appropriate, but many of them are the reverse of appropriate. To mention only a few of those we had marked: "Come to the sunset tree" as appended to a picture of mid-day (Bastien's "Hay Harvest"); "Where the pools are bright and deep," to a picture of street gamins ("The Meeting," by Marie Bashkirtseff); Shelley's "Swiftly walk over the western wave, Spirit of Night!" applied to one of Fra Angelico's angels; "A creature not too bright or good for human nature's daily food," as a motto to the "Mona Lisa"; and "More water glideth by the mill Than wots the miller of," as a comment on the picture of a *wind*-mill (Rembrandt), are singularly inept.

But it is, after all, in the Manuals for Teachers that the faults and errors are most important. That the pictures selected, their reproduction, and the mottoes appended to them should not all be of the best is regrettable; that the teachers who are to expound should themselves be mistaught is lamentable. Yet these notes for the instruction of the teacher are crammed with errors and blunders of greater or less magnitude. They are not all of the author's making, it is true, but the author is responsible for her choice of quotations and her application of them, as for her original matter. It may have been John Ruskin who said that Rembrandt was a "man of the world," "never in earnest," and "would have mocked the idea of a spirit," but it is Mrs. Wilson who has put this down for the guidance of the bewildered primary teacher. Walter Cranston Larned may have been justified in representing Dr. Tulp as surprised at Rembrandt's audacity in conceiving of "The Anatomy Lesson," for Mr. Larned was writing 'A Romance of Holland'; but Mrs. Wilson should have known that such pictures were common, and that Dr. Tulp got just what he ordered. And when remarks which Muther has made about C. F. Ulrich are quoted as referring to L. Passini, only because that name occurs on the same page, the blunder is surely Mrs. Wilson's own. She has also a weakness for the apocrypha of art. Here again her responsibility is indirect, for the stories are not of her invention, but she should not have retold them in a book of this kind without a warning of their nature. The silly tale of the vinedresser's daughter and the barrel-head, which was invented to account for the circular shape of the "Madonna of the Chair," is incredible to those who know the frequency of the *tondo* in Renaissance art; but how many school-teachers are of this number? And these tales also are occasionally decorated with new incredibilities surely of the present author's invention. If Van Dyck deceived Rubens by his retouching of a picture which he had accidentally damaged, the picture was certainly not one painted years before he entered Rubens's studio; and if he ever painted a portrait of Franz Hals, he did not transport the latter to Rome for that purpose.

Besides the above, there is a plentiful crop of errors in these books for which it is difficult to find any excuse or to imagine any origin. When we hear of Bastien's "study of his 'Grandfather, the Fagot-Gatherer,' called 'Père Jacque,'" the printer may be in fault, and a change of quotation-marks would set things right; to make Zuber a German and give his name a superfluous umlaut, is a venial sin; it would have been better not to give the Redentore Madonna as an example of Bellini without a caution that its authenticity is gravely questioned—but this may pass. What, however, shall we say of the astounding statement that Guido Reni was in the habit of "copying, with small changes, his women from the Venus of Milo" discovered in 1820? Or of the confusion which attributes to Jules Dupré two pictures by *Julian* Dupré, and gives a brief biography of the former, a quotation or two, and references to books on art, all of which have no more to do with the painter of these pictures than with Michelangelo or Artaxerxes?

We have given more space to these books than they deserve because they come from a good publisher, and might, therefore, be taken seriously, and because they illustrate

the great danger of much of our attempted education, the teaching of that which is unknown to the teacher. Our school-teachers are expected to teach a little of everything; and as they do not know these things, they must "get them up" in a hand-book. Moreover, as the person who has conceived the idea of the hand-book does not know the subject either, he also "gets it up" as best he can. He compiles something, somehow, not knowing good authorities from bad, or how to verify facts or judge of the value of criticisms; and to the farrago he has got together he adds various blunders and misunderstandings of his own. Thus we get a "Manual for Teachers" and thus is the teacher taught. Most artists have met with the would-be pupil who "only wants to learn enough to teach." It seems as if that modicum were becoming steadily smaller.

Italy and her Invaders. Vol. VII. Frankish Invasions. Vol. VIII. The Frankish Empire. By Thomas Hodgkin. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

With these volumes, Dr. Hodgkin completes the great work of which he issued the first part nearly twenty years ago. He pursues the method which he adopted in the beginning, of tracing the story of each tribe up to the time when it came to interfere directly in the affairs of Italy, and then to describe in detail its influence on Italy's development. The work is thorough, scholarly, and as lucid as it is possible to make it, considering the fewness of extant sources. Fair-minded is an epithet which Dr. Hodgkin certainly deserves, and the quality it represents is required at many points, for the period covered by these two volumes saw the rise of institutions from which Europe has hardly yet shaken herself free, and over which the bitterest controversies have raged. To understand the history of modern Europe one must go back beyond the French Revolution, and the Reformation, and the Crusades, to the fateful eighth century, when the Bishop of Rome expanded into the spiritual autocrat of Western Christendom, with the temporal Papacy already in sight, and when the warrior chief of a German tribe put on what was believed to be the very crown of Imperial Rome.

The description of these momentous transformations makes this the most interesting part of Dr. Hodgkin's work. Speaking with due qualification, we may say that it was the mission of the earlier invaders—the Goths and Huns and Lombards—to break up the Roman Empire and to destroy the highest civilization that Western Europe had known. With the supremacy of the Franks, on the contrary, the constructive forces more than matched the destructive, and a new civilization, a composite of Roman reminiscences and barbarian novelties, gradually emerged from the chaos of dissolution. Unfortunately, unless records now unknown shall hereafter come to light, there will never be a full chronicle of this transformation. Nevertheless, the records that exist enable us to get a general survey, and, what is equally important, to discern the features of the four or five great figures of the age. The two popes, Zacharias and Hadrian, the two Byzantine sovereigns, Constantine V. and Irene, and Charlemagne, who towers above them all, become, through Dr. Hodgkin's skilful resuscitation, persons whose characteristics we recognize as human. Most of the others are simply generic types of ecclesiastics or war-lords, so few are the individual touches which remain of them. We doubt whether Dr. Hodgkin himself could distinguish between Charles Martel and Pippin if he were to see an eighth-century Frankish king suddenly turn the corner.

These volumes convey admirably the impression that many of the steps which led up to the formal establishment of the Frankish Empire and its relations with the Popes were almost unpremeditated. In view of the gaps in the records, no honest historian would be justified in hinting at a long-prepared, definite policy; although, needless to say, more than one writer of history, especially among the partisans of the Papacy, has tried to demonstrate a continuity which the facts do not warrant. The Bishop of Rome acknowledged in theory the suzerainty of the Eastern Emperors long after these exercised any real power in Italy. Between Gregory the Great and Zacharias, pope after pope reigned precariously at Rome, with no more far-reaching purpose than to defend the Holy City against turbulent neighbors. Then came, gradually and very naturally, the plan of creating in Italy a papal kingdom that should unite the various "patrimonies" which had been acquired by the successors of St. Peter; and henceforth we find continuity, unbroken down to our day. The appeals of the eighth-century popes to be confirmed and defended in their temporal power might have been written by Pius IX. or Leo XIII., so inveterate is the clerical instinct never to let go worldly possessions. The one unpardonable sin was the invasion or seizure of papal lands. Even heresy could be condoned, but this could not. Pope Hadrian, for instance, declares that if the Eastern Emperor "fails to restore its patrimonies to the Holy Roman Church, we shall decide him to be a heretic for thus obstinately persevering in his old error" (viii., 19).

Dr. Hodgkin has chosen the best way of handling these questions on which men will never agree; he simply quotes, or summarizes, the important passages in the original documents. He holds throughout the attitude of the historian, not that of the Protestant, and consequently he does not attribute to Catholic dogmas iniquities which inhere in theocratic government of whatever creed and in a semi-civilized society. His analysis of that tremendous fraud, the Donation of Constantine, which began to be circulated towards the end of the eighth century in support of papal claims, is a model of fairness; in it he wastes no words in denunciation, but shows how the forger may have believed that he was performing a pious act, and how the first popes who cited it may have been deceived by it. That it was a forgery must have been unknown to many generations of ecclesiastics before Valla exposed it in the fifteenth century.

Concerning the coronation of Charlemagne by Leo III., on Christmas Day, 800, Dr. Hodgkin, after a minute sifting of the evidence, concludes that the Frankish King never meant by that act to acknowledge the Pope as his suzerain. That was the interpretation put on it by the Church, and converted by her into a precedent which remained in vigor for many centuries, but it seems most probable that Charles regarded the coronation just as his father Pippin had regarded his own anointing, as a sign of friendliness and not as an admission of inferiority. The Church used the precedent for her own aggrandizement, but the most ambitious pontiff could not in the year 800 have foreseen what the fantastic novelty, the Holy Roman Empire, which he had conjured into being, would amount to. Neither was so shrewd and masterful a conqueror as Charlemagne likely to surrender any of his prerogatives for a vague title, or to consent wittingly to an act which should diminish his power.

The most entertaining portions of these volumes are naturally those in which Dr. Hodgkin describes Charlemagne's family and court life, which he contrasts with the Byzantine court under Irene and her son. Einhard's biography, and the literary remains of Angilbert, Theodulf, Alcuin, Paulus Diaconus, and Peter of Pisa, supply material for a vivid picture; but when he compares this Frankish renaissance with that which came to pass six centuries later in Italy, we feel that in the intrinsic value of its literary and art products the former cannot bear such a comparison at all. Einhard, Alcuin, and Angilbert were remarkable when measured by the half barbaric environment out of which they sprang; but they left no work of permanent worth. The fire of culture kindled by them sank and went out within a score of years. Nevertheless, if it be possible to attribute to their revival of Latin culture Charlemagne's ambition to revive the Roman Empire, then we can agree with Dr. Hodgkin that the Renaissance at Aachen had an immense influence; only, the influence was political and not literary nor artistic.

We cannot take leave of this work without a final word of praise. The brilliant epochs will always attract historians; it is Dr. Hodgkin's distinction to have presented, for the first time in English, a complete history of an important but obscure and uncongenial period. He has mastered all the original sources, and, what is a still heavier task, all that German scholarship has written about them, with the result that, unless much new material shall hereafter turn up, his work is not likely to be superseded. His style is clear, even, and unmannered. Every statement he makes gives evidence of having been carefully weighed. He has not only investigated such minute questions as the sites of ancient places, but has visited most of the localities he describes. If there are dry passages in the course of his volumes, this is due to the lack of authentic information, and not to any defect in himself. He could never, like Freeman, inflate six or seven pages of facts into sixty pages of conjectures and facts, and pass them off as history. He has the satisfaction granted to few scholars of bringing to a successful end the work of twenty-five years.

Modern Land Law. By Edward Jenks. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

It seems ungracious to dismiss a work on which so much labor has been expended as on this without somewhat extended comment; but the nature of the subject is such as to interest but a small class of readers, and that class is to be found almost exclusively in England. Even at the time of the Revolution, the land law of this coun-

try was starting on a different course of development from that of the parent state, and since that time the two systems have been entirely independent. If not for a century, certainly for half that period, the land laws of our States have been modified with very little regard for English examples and tendencies, and perhaps generally in ignorance of modern English statutes. In fact, our State Legislatures have paid comparatively little attention to one another's proceedings, and while New York has largely reconstructed her system, neighboring States, like New Jersey and Connecticut, have ignored her example. Under these circumstances, not many American lawyers are likely to interest themselves in the details of the changes in a system which has now become practically altogether distinct from our own.

Nevertheless, we can conceive the scholarly young lawyer, fresh from his Blackstone, taking a keen delight in tracing the later development of the wonderful law which that great writer so lucidly expounded. Whoever has felt curiosity to know how that extraordinary relic of feudalism could be adapted to the conditions and requirements of modern business, can do no better than study Mr. Jenks's pages. He will not find the stately periods of Blackstone, nor the graceful fluency of Kent; but he will find a skill in compressed and lucid exposition which approaches closely to the ideal style of a scientific legal treatise. Mr. Jenks does not deal with origins and antiquities except so far as is necessary to explain institutions which are an outgrowth of them. He has attempted, and, in our judgment, with great success, to state the result of the authorities, rather than the authorities themselves; "to combine authority and commentary in clear language." And he has also endeavored successfully to give his matter a logical arrangement.

For the reasons which we have assigned we cannot criticise his work in detail. That, indeed, can be fairly attempted only in the professional reviews. But we do not hesitate to say to lawyers who like to take broad views of their profession, that they will find this book extremely interesting and suggestive. Were our legislators worthy of their title, we should say that they would regard such a treatise as an indispensable aid; but probably few of them would appreciate it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Family Worship. Edited by W. R. Nicoll. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Alma-Tadema, L. The Fate-Spinner. London: E. B. Mortlock.
Baedeker, K. The Dominion of Canada, with Newfoundland and an Excursion to Alaska: Handbook for Travellers. New ed. Leipzig: K. Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Blythe, W. H. Geometrical Drawing. Macmillan. Part I. 60c.
Boothby, G. A Maker of Nations. Appletons. $1.
Bothmer, Countess A. von. The Sovereign Ladies of Europe. London: Hutchinson & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Bowley, A. L. Wages in the United Kingdom in the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan.
Brentano, F. F. Legends of the Bastille. London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Brontë, C. The Professor. London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.
Browning, R. Earlier Monologues. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Carey, Rosa N. Twelve Notable Good Women of the Nineteenth Century. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Clapham, J. H. The Causes of the War of 1792. Macmillan. $1.
Clark, R. Golf: A Royal Ancient Game. Macmillan. $2.
Clover, S. T. Glimpses Across the Sea. Evanston, Ill.: Windiknowe Pub. Co.
Coler, B. S. Municipal Government as Illustrated by the Charter, Finances, and Public Charities of New York. Appletons. $1.
Cook, Prof. A. S. The Christ of Cynewulf. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Cooke, C. K. A Memoir of Her Royal Highness Princess Mary Adelaide Duchess of Teck, Based on Her Private Diaries and Letters. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. 2 vols. $7.50.
Crockett, S. R. Joan of the Sword Hand. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Darlow, T. H. The Print of the Nails. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50c.
Deniker, J. The Races of Man: An Outline of Anthropology and Ethnography. Scribners. $1.50.
Dickinson, Evelyn. Hearts Importunate. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Donaldson, Rev. A. B. Five Great Oxford Leaders—Keble, Newman, Pusey, Liddon, and Church. London: Rivingtons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Drähms, A. The Criminal—His Personnel and Environment: A Scientific Study. Macmillan. $2.
Drummond, J. S. Charles A. Berry, D.D.: A Memoir. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Dumont, F. The Witmark Amateur Minstrel Guide and Burnt-Cork Encyclopedia. M. Witmark & Sons. $1.50.
Forsyth, A. R. Theory of Differential Equations. Vols. II. and III. Macmillan.
Fouqué, Mme. de la M. Undine. Cassells. 10c.
Francis, M. E. Yeoman Fleetwood. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Gardner, E. G. Dante's Ten Heavens: A Study of Paradise. New ed. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Gibbings, A. H. The Commercial and Business Aspects of Municipal Electricity Supply. Bradford, England: The Author; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Giddings, Prof. F. H. Democracy and Empire. With Studies of their Psychological, Economic, and Moral Foundations. Macmillan. $2.50.
Gollancz, I. The Paradiso of Dante Alighieri. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Gollancz, I. The Works of Shakespeare. [The Larger Temple Shakespeare.] London: J. M. Dent & Co. Vols. 5 and 6.
Gorren, Aline. Anglo-Saxons and Others. Scribners. $1.50.
Gow, W. Marine Insurance: A Handbook. Macmillan.
Greene, Dr. R. H. Healthy Exercise. Harpers. $1.
Grenier, E. Literary Reminiscences. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Grinnell, W. M. The Regeneration of the United States. Putnams. $1.
Guiness, H. Andrea del Sarto. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Gunsaulus, Rev. F. W. The Man of Galilee: A Biographical Study of the Life of Jesus Christ. Chicago: The Author. $2.75.
Herbert, Leila. The First American. His Homes and His Households. Harpers. $2.
Hooker, Le Roy. The Africanders: A Century of Dutch-English Feud in South Africa. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.25.
Hope, A. Captain Dieppe. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Howard, Lady Mabel. The Undoing of John Brewster. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Howe, D. W. The Puritan Republic. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Howells, W. D. Doorstep Acquaintance, and Other Sketches. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Hubert, P. G., jr. The Stage as a Career. Putnams. $1.
Huntington, Helen. Folk Songs from the Spanish. Putnams. $1.25.
Hutton, W. H. A Short History of the Church in Great Britain. London: Rivingtons.
Huxley, T. H. Lessons in Elementary Physiology. Macmillan. $1.40.
Journal of Social Science: Containing the Proceedings of the American Association of 1899. Putnams.
Kearton, R. Our Rarer British Breeding Birds. Cassell & Co. $2.
King, C. R. The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Putnams. Vol. VI.
Kirkup, T. A History of Socialism. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Kountz, W. J., jr. Billy Baxter's Letters. Harmarville, Pa.: Duquesne Distributing Co.
Liszt, F. Life of Chopin. Scribners. $2.25.
Muss-Arnolt, W. A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language. Part 9. Lemcke & Buechner.
Muzzey, D. S. The Rise of the New Testament. Macmillan. $1.25.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Macmillan. Vol. III. N—Z.
Racine, J. Athalie. Macmillan. 50c.
Rau, H. The Tone King: A Romance of the Life of Mozart. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Shakespeare, W. Julius Cæsar. Macmillan. 25c.
Starbuck, E. D. The Psychology of Religion. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Stearns, F. P. The Midsummer of Italian Art. New ed. Putnams.
Trotter, Alys F. Old Colonial Houses of the Cape of Good Hope. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Trueman, Anita. Philo-Sophia: A Collection of Poems. New York: The Alliance Pub. Co.
Vaux, Le Baron de. Le Sport en France. Tome II. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Zagel, F. Schilling's Spanish Grammar. London: Francis Hodgson; New York: Cassell & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1900.

The Week.

"It may be wise to defer legislation for the establishment of a form of civil government in Porto Rico," says the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent. Lack of information is the ostensible reason for delay. The real reason is the threatened breach in the Republican party on the Porto Rican tariff bill, on the eve of the Presidential election. Already the party leaders have decided to postpone the decision of the Philippine question until some future time, and to clothe President McKinley with all the powers that Congress itself could exercise, thus making him an autocrat over ten millions of people on the other side of the globe. The convenience of this game of battledore and shuttlecock is apparent at a glance. The President went through the Northwestern States last autumn, telling the good people, in response to their inquiries, that it rested with Congress to determine the kind of government that the Filipinos should have, and that Congress had not yet had an opportunity to act on that question. There was some plausibility in this answer, and it satisfied the greater number of those who put questions to the President. Congress has now been in session more than three months, and has not dared to take up the question seriously. Neither does it dare to ignore it altogether. So it proposes, by the Spooner bill, to put it comfortably on Mr. McKinley's shoulders, or rather to leave it there, and postpone the real decision till some future time. And now, finding itself confronted with unexpected difficulties in Porto Rico, it is considering whether that would not be the best way to dispose of that problem also. The chances are rather against this decision, if it can be called a decision when there has been a complete failure to decide.

If Congress should dump the solution of the Porto Rican tariff problem on the President, what will the poor man do? He first declared that it was "our plain duty" to abolish all tariff between the island and the United States. When the sugar and tobacco men came to Washington and threatened him, he turned squarely around and actually urged Congressmen who had committed themselves to his free-trade policy, to turn around also. Congressman Sperry of Connecticut says in the New Haven *Register:*

"On the day of the vote, Mr. McKinley sent to me, asking me to come to the White House. He told me that he hoped every Republican would vote for the Porto Rican bill. He endorsed it thoroughly, he said. At an earlier time, he continued, he had believed in free trade for Porto Rico, but he had changed his mind for certain definite reasons which he stated to me."

Similar statements have been made by Congressmen Watson of Indiana, and Morris of Minnesota, Weymouth of Massachusetts, and Prince of Illinois. Congressman Crumpacker of Indiana was also urged by the President to change his position. Now if the Senate fails to pass the House bill, and throws the whole question back on the President, what will Mr. Facing-both-ways do then?

The Porto Ricans may not know how to govern themselves, but they certainly know how to draw up a statement which leaves the President and the Republicans in Congress looking uncommonly sheepish and silly. In the letter of the island planters and merchants to Congress published on Tuesday, the Republican pretence that a tariff on Porto Rican products was absolutely necessary in order to provide "revenue," is punctured and left so flabby that it can hardly be inflated for use again. The men on the spot, who will have to pay the internal taxes, show how easy it would be to meet all necessary expenses of government without any tax whatever on trade with the United States. Such freedom of trade they appeal for both as a "right in equity," and as the only means of preventing the starvation of the natives. The combined logic and pathos of this plea must have a powerful effect upon opinion in this country, and should help to bring the Republicans at Washington to their senses. Into what a lamentable state of divided counsels and impotence they have been thrown by the attempt to extend the blessings of our rule to one small island, all the dispatches from the capital show. It is chaos come again in the Senate, and in the White House a wringing of helpless hands. So much for trying to escape plain duty. So much for "the wisdom of Congress" and "the wisdom of the President" eternally yielding the *pas* to each other, while organized greed steps in to assert control of both. In the distracted state of the party lies the best hope that the one clear and complete and honorable solution of the question will yet be reached—free trade. Everything else may be quarrelled over to the crack of doom; absolute throwing down of customs barriers is the only thing which can finally unite the warring factions. And no one need worry about the President. He will accept free trade, and then issue an "authorized statement" showing that the result was due to his far-sighted wisdom and firm courage.

One of the bitter complaints of the Porto Ricans is, that the American government of the island gives all the fat offices to foreigners. Thus, we read in the *Diario de Puerto Rico* of February 13, in a list of the reasons why American rule has fallen into such disrepute:

"For the leading public positions Americans are brought here, on high salaries, and in many instances have been without either competence or integrity."

This, as is well known, is an old vice of Spanish colonial government. It was eloquently denounced by Senator Beveridge. Spain selected her colonial officials, he said, in fine disdain, "to placate members of the Cortes." Well, the American way is to select office-holders to placate members of the Senate. Mr. Beveridge himself has been duly placated by the appointment of his own father-in-law to a good office in Porto Rico. That gentleman, we learn, is well advanced in years, and had been an office-holder in Indiana of no special note. He was promptly "saddled upon the postal department of Porto Rico" by his high-sounding son-in-law. He is now very likely one of the officials who are embittering the Porto Ricans against the United States. That class of appointees was aptly characterized by Senator Beveridge (after he had been placated by his father-in-law's inclusion in it) as "the spawn of Government favor and Government fear, and, therefore, of Government iniquity." So dangerous is the gift of eloquence.

The opinion seems to prevail in high quarters that an ex-President of the United States is not at liberty to express dissent from the policy of any of his successors in that office, or that, if he does take that liberty, he must be considered a candidate for reëlection. This rule has been applied to ex-President Harrison since he ventured to express dissent from the Porto Rican tariff bill. He is accused of seeking a renomination by fomenting discord in the party. If he cared to reply to such accusations, he might say that he is following the President's first definition of "our plain duty" to Porto Rico, and that if he has not been able to change his views of duty so frequently as the President has, the fault is with Mr. McKinley himself, who has not bulletined his changes, as a good commander ought to have done. How was Benjamin Harrison in Indianapolis to know the proper time to go in for a twenty-five per cent. tariff, and when to drop to fifteen per cent.? The Hon. Page Morris, M. C. from Minnesota, might easily find out by calling at the White House when the proper time had come. Other Congressmen could arrange their turnabouts with the same facility, but nobody could give the assurance to Mr. Harrison.

Therefore, he must either adhere to the President's first proclamation of "plain duty," or say nothing about a subject upon which all other men are talking rather earnestly.

Those Americans who, like Senator Beveridge and Representative Grosvenor, are revelling in the money which we are going to make out of the Philippine transaction, should be interested in some figures furnished by Mr. H. S. Nelson to the *World*. If we are to take a business-like view of the situation, we ought to have a debit as well as a credit page in our ledger, and Mr. Nelson furnishes some items for insertion in the debit column. The war with Spain began in April, 1898, and the expenses of our army to the end of that fiscal year, exclusive of river and harbor improvement, were about $71,000,000, while those of the navy were nearly $59,000,000. During a little more than two months our belligerent activity cost over $95,000,000 more than was expended during the previous twelvemonth. In 1899 the cost of the military establishment, omitting river and harbor expenditure, was nearly $214,000,000, and the cost of the navy was about $64,000,000, making a total of $277,700,000. Striking off $70,000,000 as the cost of these departments in a normal year, we have over $207,000,000 increase, and, making all possible deductions, the cost of the Philippine war in 1899 must be figured at nearly $164,000,000. We do not know how much this war is costing at present, but we do know that for the year 1900 Congress appropriated for the pay of the military forces $29,106,000, and that an additional sum of $15,188,000 is now asked for, while the item of transportation, for which $17,500,000 was allowed, now calls for $20,000,000 more. Judging from the disbursements this year and the estimates for 1901, the Philippine war will cost us at the rate of $90,000,000 for the army alone, while the increased charge for the navy and civil list will be at least $10,000,000. What the pension bill will eventually be, cannot be foretold. Altogether, Mr. Nelson's estimate of $550,000,000 as the cost of the war with Spain, with indefinitely enlarged annual expenses in the future, seems not excessive.

It is impossible to believe that the naval committee of the House would have dreamed of recommending sixty millions of dollars as the proper sum to be voted for new navy vessels this year, if the Administration had refrained from its plunge into Imperialism. This vast amount, if voted, together with the millions granted last year, and the millions which the army operations in the Philippines have thus far cost the country, alone come to a total which years of trade with Luzon and its neighbors will not counterbalance. Indeed, the price we are paying for this "taking our place among the great nations" is being made plain, even to the most superficial thinkers, and the recent increase in the sickness and mortality in Gen. Otis's army is not without its effect. It is to be hoped that the naval bill will be carefully discussed in the House. Any debate must bring out the fact, demonstrated even by the antiquated Spanish guns, as is now widely believed, that land batteries well manned and equipped are sufficient for the defence of any harbor, and that our outlying island possessions are nothing but sources of great military weakness.

The application of the New York law for the taxation of the franchises of certain corporations raises questions of great difficulty. The law did not provide specific rules for assessing the value of these franchises, and the State Tax Commissioners have, perhaps unavoidably, proceeded in a somewhat arbitrary manner. Their assessments are generally objected to by the corporations affected, and there is every indication that very prolonged and expensive litigation will take place before the taxes are finally collected. As Senator Ford expresses the opinion that the corporations ought to pay as much as $25,000,000 a year under this law, it is not to be expected that they would submit without a desperate struggle. The protests made by some of the corporations affected, if their statements of fact are correct, show that the valuations assumed by the Tax Commissioners are excessive. The Buffalo Electric Light Company asserts that its tax under this law would amount to 16 per cent. of its gross, and 30 per cent. of its net, earnings. The Cataract Power and Conduit Company, which is now paying dividends of from 4 to 5 per cent., after ten years during which no dividends were paid, is assessed at a figure which would make its taxes equal to half its dividends. Such taxation as this would amount to confiscation, and the situation shows the imperative necessity of adopting some general principle of valuation which shall work equitably.

It is to be hoped that the favorable report which the Assembly committee on cities is to make on the bill regulating the confession of judgments by the city of New York will be followed by prompt legislative action. No attorney-at-law can confess judgment without the written authority of his client, but the Law Department of this city recognizes no such restraint. The Corporation Counsel appears to rely on the decision made concerning the aqueduct claims, although it was assumed in that decision that the city authorities had specifically authorized the confession of judgment. It may be decided hereafter that all judgments against the city confessed without such authority are void, but it would be a hopeless undertaking to try to get back the money which the city has once paid to creditors of this class. All doubt would be removed by the bill in question, which requires the approval of the Comptroller, and in some cases of the Mayor also, before any judgment can be entered against the city by consent. It is claimed by the Brooklyn *Eagle* that the provision in the "labor law" under which many city employees have made large claims against the city for back pay, has been repealed. The *Eagle* maintains that the present "prevailing rate of wages" law applies only to the case of men employed by contractors on public works. The language of the statute is, "Each contract to which the State or municipal corporation is a party" shall provide for the payment of the prevailing rate of wages. It is doubtful if this will be held inapplicable to contracts of employment made directly between the city and its employees, in which case the main argument of the *Eagle* would fail. But, as that journal points out, many of the claims allowed by the Corporation Counsel rest on very questionable definitions of the prevailing rate of wages. In fact, that rate, so far as claims against the city are concerned, is whatever it is declared to be by the trade unions.

The reception given to Comptroller Coler at the dinner of working men and women at Terrace Garden on Thursday evening was a most encouraging token of the growing belief of all classes that the power of Tammany Hall must be broken, or the city will be rendered uninhabitable by civilized beings. Nothing since Tweed's time has given the public such a shock as the attempted Ramapo swindle. Nothing at the Terrace Garden meeting called forth such shouts of approval as Mr. Coler's denunciation of the scheme to make the city dependent on a private company for its water supply. It is true that a few persons in the room who had pecuniary claims on the city which had been held up by the Comptroller for further examination, tried to disconcert him by hisses, but when the audience came to understand the cause of the interruption, their applause overwhelmed all opposition. Mr. Coler could not have asked for a more emphatic demonstration of approval of his course as a public officer. The meeting was a great success, not merely as an endorsement of honest government at home, but as a condemnation of Imperialism in the Philippines and in Porto Rico.

The political situation in Kentucky is still disquieting, and both sides are making military preparations. Gov. Taylor, we must say, does almost everything that he can to alienate conservative supporters outside the State. He damaged his case greatly by using mili-

tary force to prevent the meeting of the Legislature, and now he officially denounces the courts. He declares that, being composed almost entirely of Democratic judges, they have become "so partisan that it is practically, if not absolutely, impossible for any man not of their persuasion to obtain a fair trial. As organized, the courts are courts of conviction instead of courts of trial." On this ground Gov. Taylor has pardoned, before they were tried, several persons arrested on the charge of murdering Goebel. He says that he believes they are innocent, and that "designing men controlling the courts should not be enabled to shed the blood of innocent men." After these statements, he submits his course to the judgment of fair-minded people! If he desired a favorable judgment from that quarter, he should have waited until the courts had so acted as to make their iniquity evident. By an appeal which is, to say the least, premature, Gov. Taylor has prejudiced his cause. His future complaints will require corroboration before they can be regarded.

The large increase of wealth that has accrued to the Southern States since last fall from the great rise in the price of cotton, is scarcely appreciated by those not conversant with the cotton-growing industry. For the past three years the price has averaged 6 to 6½ cents per pound, and there has not been much profit in raising the staple. But now, largely by reason of the world's increasing consumption, the crop failure in India and the threatened failure in Egypt and in consequence of our own crop falling from 11,250,000 bales the past two years to 9,000,000 to 9,500,000 bales, the price has gone up to 9½ cents. The following table shows approximately the increase in the value of last season's crop, and what the ensuing season's yield would return at present prices if another 11,000,000-bale crop should be raised, as seems likely from the fact that the acreage will be the largest on record, probably exceeding 26,000,000 acres:

Crop of 1899-1900 about 9,000,000 bales, 6,000,000 of which sold at average price, 7½ cents, or $35 per bale, or	$225,000,000
3,000,000 sold at average price of 9 cents, or $45 per bale, or.....	135,000,000
Total value of crop	$360,000,000
Crop of 1900 to 1901 likely to turn out, under favorable weather, 11,000,000. Farmers under present system of "future" trading could sell, for October to January delivery, at 8 cents or $40 per bale.....	$440,000,000
Total value two years' crops, as indicated	$800,000,000

It was freely predicted in the South last autumn that if the price of cotton should reach eight cents per pound, the silver question would be shelved as a political issue in that section. If we may judge from the small interest taken in the pending currency bill by the Southern press and the Southern members of Congress, that prediction has already come true.

The career of Edward J. Phelps, who died on Friday, is a curious illustration of how national reputation in the United States may depend upon the result of a single election. In 1884 Mr. Phelps was a leading citizen of Vermont, who was highly esteemed throughout his State; but, except as lawyers throughout the country recognized his legal ability, he was a man unknown outside of Vermont. If the Republicans in that year had nominated a man of good character and carried the Presidential election, Mr. Phelps would doubtless have died with a reputation no wider than he then possessed. He had always been a Democrat, while Vermont was the strongest Republican State in the Union. He was thus debarred from holding office at home, and for a quarter of a century there had been no Democratic President to think of giving him a position in the Federal service. The nomination of Blaine by the Republicans resulted in the election of Cleveland, and the latter's selection of Mr. Phelps for Minister to England gave the great Vermont Democrat his opportunity. He improved it to the full, speedily vindicating the wisdom of his choice, and strengthening, year by year, the favorable impression which he early made upon both nations. He died full of years and honors, with citizens of both parties proud of public service in a high and difficult place.

Behind the German meat-inspection bill, with its threat of a tariff war with the United States, stands the Emperor's pet scheme, the new navy bill. He said recently that he did not want to be a "so-called constitutional monarch, who reigns but does not govern"; yet he has been forced to deal and dicker like any politician to get his naval plans accepted by the Reichstag. To win the votes of the Agrarians he has had to make terms with them; and their terms are the meat bill and other protectionist monstrosities. The price is seen to be impossibly high to pay for such support, and even with it the doubt grows daily whether the present Reichstag will give the Emperor his ships. Some of the pleas made for them are arousing ridicule. Thus, Count von Bülow, who usually speaks like a man of hard business sense, made a tearful appeal to the Reichstag the other day. Germania had two children, brother and sister, the Reichstag and the fleet. The older brother ought to come to the aid of his little sister. Excellent, cried Richter, but little sisters have a way of growing up and needing frightful sums for their clothes. And was not Von Bülow leaving out important members of the German happy family? There was big brother Army, who cost the household a pretty penny. Agriculture was a crying baby requiring constant care. In fact, said Richter, the family was growing at such a rate and was getting so expensive that the distracted *père de famille* —the taxpayer—was strongly thinking of suicide.

The particulars of the attempt recently made in the German Reichstag to repeal the "Dictatorial Paragraph" in the law prescribing the government of Alsace-Lorraine, have now come to hand. This paragraph gives the Statthalter nearly absolute power over the administration of the Reichsland, and its repeal was urged on the ground that friendly relations with France would thereby be encouraged. The repeal was opposed by the Imperial Chancellor for reasons which seem very feeble. He stated that he had himself been Statthalter for nine years, during which period the paragraph had occasioned very little friction. The provisions of the paragraph, he admitted, were only suitable for exceptional circumstances, and represented a continuous state of siege. In fact, the chief use of the paragraph appeared to be to furnish a grievance to malcontent agitators. This might seem to be an argument for its repeal, but the Imperial Government were unwilling to relinquish it so long as anti-German sentiments continued to be expressed. Exceptional circumstances might arise, the Chancellor said, and he continued: "Alsace-Lorraine is a border country. Our neighbors are excitable. . . . We acquired Alsace-Lorraine not by a *plébiscite*, but by force of arms. We mean to retain the land we have regained possession of, for that is our right." In spite of this declaration of its policy by the Government, the motion to repeal the paragraph was carried by a large majority, although there is little probability that the Government will give effect to the wishes of the Reichstag. The incident shows that the relations between Germany and France are really unchanged.

President Krüger's suit for peace is not likely to be any the less urgent for the British occupation of Bloemfontein. This he must have foreseen, as also the danger that the Dutch troops to the south may now be caught between two forces. It is also probable that the Free State will separately abandon the war and make peace, unless joint action to end hostilities be taken speedily by the two republics. As for terms, no one can know better than Krüger that his proposal to take more than the *status quo ante* is wholly inadmissible. His ultimatum last October ruled that out. Doubtless, having asked for peace, he is ready in the end to accept reasonable terms of peace. If these could now be offered in a generous and statesmanlike way, hostilities might cease very soon, and the world might be spared the horrible spectacle of a desperate last-ditch fight by the burghers.

THE REPUBLICAN IMBROGLIO.

The Republican party is now rent in so many different places and on so many different questions that it cannot possibly go into the coming Presidential campaign presenting a solid front to the enemy. It may win votes enough from the other side to make good its inevitable losses, but they will not be the same votes that carried it to victory four years ago. In the first place, it has lost all those who regard the new policy of Imperialism as a menace to free institutions—such men as ex-Gov. Boutwell, ex-Senator Henderson, Herbert Welsh, Edwin Burritt Smith, and other well-known men who have not been chronic Mugwumps, but have refused to follow the party in a path which they consider opposed to the foundation principles of the republic. Not all the men who have taken a decided stand against Imperialism will vote against the nominees of the party in the last extremity, but the greater part of them will either vote the Democratic ticket, or for a third party, or abstain from voting altogether.

This contingent, although not unimportant in numbers and influence, is small in comparison with the mass of those who have been roused to anger by the Porto Rican tariff bill, of whom ex-President Harrison and Congressmen McCall and Littlefield are types. These men believed that the fear of Imperialism was baseless. They assumed that the inhabitants of the new possessions were to be treated as members of one family, as citizens under one jurisdiction, as Americans, not as foreigners. They had heard the President say that it was our plain duty to treat them so. When the contrary doctrine was promulgated at Washington, and it was declared by a party vote in the House that the inhabitants of Porto Rico were regarded as aliens, and were to be taxed by us without representation, the scales fell from the eyes of thousands. The revolt in the party has been without precedent in magnitude and in spirit, and the breach is widening instead of closing. Of course, much depends on the action which the Senate is yet to take, but no compromise which puts Porto Rico on a different footing from the United States, as regards taxation, will do any good. The percentage of tax against Porto Rico is not of the least consequence.

These are not the only causes of heartburning in the councils of the party, but the others could, perhaps, be smoothed over if these were absent. First among them is the ship-subsidy bill. At the beginning of the session it seemed likely that this scheme would be rushed through both houses, with nothing more than a perfunctory opposition on the part of the Democrats. The ground had been carefully prepared beforehand. All manner of so-called boards of trade in small prairie villages had been seen, and hoodwinked to pass resolutions favorable to a measure of the details of which they had no knowledge, or any means of acquiring knowledge. But when Congressmen began to investigate it, some of them discovered that it was a bill to plunder the Treasury for the benefit of a few rich men, under pretence of doing something for the flag. Considering the party so far committed to the bill that they could only oppose it by indirection, they set themselves to the task of killing it by amendments and delay. The four Western members of the House committee having the bill in charge have declared their hope and expectation that a subsidy bill would pass, but have sought to amend it so that it should give as little ground as possible for the charge that it favors a shipping monopoly or a syndicate of rich men. The public have not been admitted to the contest in the two committees on this subject, or in the steering committee of the Senate, but there can be no doubt that there has been much tension. Where so much money is involved, it could not be otherwise. To this imbroglio the Porto Rican controversy has added fresh bitterness. It has supplied a new reason for not passing any subsidy bill, since the party has so many burdens to carry without it.

The Nicaragua Canal bill and the Hay-Pauncefote treaty constitute a fresh subject of party disagreement, but this can be shelved in a rational manner by saying that it will be wise to wait for the report of the Commission which is now investigating the whole question of interoceanic canal routes. It was the intention of the Maritime Company to rush its bill through regardless of the Commission, regardless of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, regardless even of Nicaragua. This would have been done had not the Hay-Pauncefote treaty been laid upon the Senate's table just in time to stop an act of incredible folly. Although the canal question may be shelved for the remainder of the present session, it cannot be kept out of the coming campaign. The Democrats have the coign of vantage, since they are not the party responsible for carrying on the government. They can show the conflict between the Hay-Pauncefote treaty and the Hepburn report, and will, no doubt, gain some votes thereby.

Another source of discord is found in the Quay case. The Republicans are now the majority of the Senate, and they will be held responsible for seating Quay if he is seated. The bad character of the man counts for more in the public mind than the principle involved in the case. It is proposed now to reverse a settled rule of the Senate in order to admit a very slippery customer to a seat in the Senate to which he has not been elected by the Legislature of his State, although that Legislature was in session when the vacancy occurred. It seems likely that this will constitute another firebrand in the party.

SENATOR LODGE'S SPEECH.

With the historical matter in Senator Lodge's 7th of March speech (ill-omened date) on the Philippines we shall not deal; we agree with him that it is now of no use to cry over spilt milk. He himself did cry over it for the space of something like three hours, though he had not one new fact, only fresh pettifogging, to offer. In his prophecies he is, of course, invulnerable, and we decline the unequal combat of predicting the future in rivalry with such a master of divination. Of his political and moral principles, as freshly avowed, it is enough to say that he has gone over completely to the pro-slavery doctrine of expansion by filibustering which Massachusetts and her Senators used to denounce as dangerous and unholy; and that, by his sophistications about the consent of the governed, he justifies the suppression of the negro vote in the South. This is odd coming from the erstwhile furious advocate of negro rights and the Force bill. But he no doubt would include his recent championship of manhood suffrage and equal rights for men of all colors among those "grievous mistakes" which, he says, we have all committed, yet from which we have risen, "bruised and grimed."

Senator Lodge's main proposition is that there is a complete analogy between the Louisiana purchase and the annexation of the Philippines. Hence his advocacy of a bill giving the President such powers in the Philippines as Jefferson was voted in Louisiana. But this claim to be following "well-settled American precedents" vanishes on examination of the facts. Louisiana was adjoining territory, certain at once to be developed by a large population homogeneous with that of the rest of the country. Both social and political "union" with the annexed inhabitants was what Jefferson wished, as conducive to "their happiness," so he wrote. Nothing of the kind is possible in the Philippines. There are other glaring disparities. The population of Louisiana at the time of the purchase was less than 50,000. If not wholly pleased with their transfer to the United States, the people were yet ready to make the best of the new relation. They were easily assimilable, and were soon assimilated. Yet Senator Lodge adduces their case as on all fours with the forcible annexation of 8,000,000 of people of an alien race, 7,000 miles away, who are fighting us tooth and nail! Whatever he may say as a statesman, we think that as an historian he must have private historic doubts about the exactness of his boasted parallel.

Mr. Lodge came out strong on the qualities of "the Asiatic mind." There is no "Asian mystery" for him. One

thing, he said, is simply fatal in dealing with Asiatics, and that is to make them a promise. A promise to the Asiatic mind is simply a "proof of weakness." Thereupon, in proof of his own weakness, Senator Lodge proceeded to make the Filipinos a whole string of promises. On one of them we shall comment in a moment. But this tendency to excuse tyrannical methods in the Orient is an old trick of Eastern conquerors. Burke exposed and denounced it in words which are a standing rebuke to this pretence. "Fraud, injustice, peculation, engendered in India," cried the indignant Irishman, when told that he knew nothing of "Indian detail," "are crimes of the same blood, family, and cast with those that are born and bred in England." The truth is, if we are to fit our methods to those of Asiatic despots, we shall have to begin by suppressing such speeches as Mr. Lodge's, with his talk about the powers of Congress and the limited authority of the President. What respect will the Asiatic mind have for a ruler who has to confess that a lot of talking men, including a writer of essays from Massachusetts, dictate his action? The Ameer of Afghanistan preferred the Russian alliance precisely on the ground that the Queen might be overruled by a set of speechifying Sahibs. "I and the Czar of Russia," he told the English Envoy, "are kings, and can do what we like." If Senator Lodge is to go the whole figure in this "Asiatic-mind" business, he will have to abolish the Senate and set up a Czar.

In one passage of his speech, Mr. Lodge was guilty of the jauntiest indiscretion. After saying that promises should never be made the Filipinos, he went on to make them this promise: "The land, which belongs to the people, and of which they have been robbed in the past, should be returned to them." Now, this can refer only to the lands acquired by the Catholic Church in the Philippines. Both Foreman and Worcester represent the amount of real estate held by the religious orders as very large. Lodge promises to return all this to the people. But there are two difficulties in the way. One of them is legal. The Treaty of Paris declares that the cession of the Philippines does not "in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds . . . of *ecclesiastical* or civil bodies." There we are, bound to make good the land titles of the religious orders. Judge Taft, we know, regards this question of church property as one of the immense difficulties before him. But Lodge lightly waves aside law and treaty, and says off-hand, "Let the land be returned to the people." But if he easily leaps over the legal difficulty, will he over the political? Will he go to that great city of Irish Catholics —Boston—and assert that the Catholic Church has been a "robber" in the Philippines, and should be made to disgorge? If he does, we think he will soon be numbering himself with those despicable persons of his speech who "distrust ourselves, shiver before our own greatness, and shrink from the responsibilities which come to us."

It has been rumored that Senator Hoar was only waiting for Lodge to speak in order to answer him. If he does rejoin to his colleague, he might truthfully say, as he did of Senator Beveridge's coarse and silly speech, that the junior Senator from Massachusetts had failed to utter one word about honor and right and freedom. His speech was one long exaltation of naked force. He closed with a pious citation of the old prayer, "Sicut patribus, sit Deus nobis." We might quote against him Latin of higher authority, and bid him, in the language of Scripture, beware "ne forte et Deo repugnare inveniamini."

THE GRAVEYARD OF GOOD TREATIES.

The United States Senate is rapidly establishing the reputation of being, not the ratifier, but the destroyer of good treaties. Its attempt to wreck the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, by indirection, is only the latest manifestation of its disposition to fling itself like a brute, unreasoning force athwart the progress of civilization. Consider some of the items in the Senate's inglorious record as the funeral director of treaties intended to heal ancient disputes and promote the cause of peace. In 1887 it killed the Chamberlain-Bayard treaty for the settlement of the fisheries controversy. In 1897 it buried the arbitration treaty, though appealed to by two Presidents of different parties, and by the entire religious press and moral sentiment of the country, to ratify that humane instrument. The Senate did, indeed, accept the Hague treaty, but did it, as it now appears, under a misapprehension. It thought one of the clauses could be used to help mediation in the Boer war. Otherwise, we may be sure, it would have thought and talked long, and made many grimaces, before committing itself to anything which looked like lessening the chances of international quarrels.

What is the reason for this obscurantist and obstructionist attitude of the Senate? Partly, the game of small politics. The Republicans defeated Mr. Cleveland's fisheries treaty on unconcealed partisan grounds. What, allow a Democratic President to point to an old trouble composed? Senator Edmunds guessed not. But it was a dangerous example. The constitutional power of one-third of the Senate to embarrass the Administration by blocking its treaties is too great a temptation for the latter-day Senator. Petty political intrigue is only too ready to make the greatest international and moral interests give way to the exigencies of a campaign in a doubtful State. Then there is the overweening sense of importance on the part of Senators. Why were not their superhuman skill and knowledge consulted? This appears to be the present grievance of Senator Davis. Secretary Hay actually dared to negotiate a treaty without putting himself in the hands of the chairman of the foreign-relations committee of the Senate! This may be perfectly constitutional, but the Senate has changed all that, and will teach these upstart Secretaries where the real treaty-making power is now located.

There is also, we cannot help seeing, a faction in the Senate which is against all treaties that make for peace. It wants the sores left open. It prefers to nurse old quarrels. Especially with Great Britain, it wants no settlement whatever of any outstanding dispute. If Lord Salisbury were to put his name to a treaty quieting, because conceding, every possible American demand on every possible subject, this faction in the Senate would be bitterly opposed to it. There are some Senators who would oppose any settlement of any kind with England, simply because it is a settlement. The more the friends of peace say in favor of a treaty, the more suspect and hated it becomes in the eyes of these professional stirrers-up of international strife.

All the motives mentioned—partisan plotting, personal pique, and outright preference for international unrest—seem to have entered into the Senate's opposition to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. The report of the foreign-relations committee professes to praise it, pretends to urge its ratification, but, by the proposed amendment, really plants a dagger under its fifth rib. Senator Morgan, in his dissenting report, states the exact truth when he says, "The only legal effect of the amendment is to annul the neutralization of the canal provided for in article 2 of the treaty." A glance at the terms is enough to show this. "None of the foregoing stipulations," reads the amendment, "shall apply to measures which the United States may find it necessary to take for securing, by its own forces, the defence of the United States and the maintenance of public order." That is to say, if it is "necessary" to shut the canal either in peace or war, or to levy discriminating tolls on shipping, or to blockade or to fortify the canal, the United States, while apparently binding itself to do none of these things, shall, in fact, be at liberty to do any or all of them. This is equivalent to proposing to kill the whole treaty. Even if Great Britain should accept it in the form suggested—which is inconceivable—it would be only a self-contradictory hodge-podge.

Senator Davis solemnly declares that his amendment merely takes over one of the articles of the Suez agreement which Mr. Hay had unaccountably overlooked.

We presume the Secretary would reply that he had not overlooked it, but had omitted it because it was wholly inapplicable. The Khedive needed certain rights of defence because Egypt in the case of the Suez Canal was the territorial power. The United States is not the territorial power at the Isthmus. We observe that the logical, but indiscreet, supporters of the Davis amendment see this point, but meet it by advocating an immediate seizure of the Isthmus so that we *shall* be the territorial power. Senator Davis will not thank such unscrupulous admirers for showing where his argument really leads. The purpose and use of the right of defence reserved for the Khedive of Egypt appeared at the time of Arabi Pasha's rebellion. It was feared then that the rebels would cut the canal, and forces had to be sent out to protect it. On one such expedition Prof. E. H. Palmer lost his life. For mere local policing of an Isthmian Canal, and protecting it against "lawlessness and disorder," the Hay-Pauncefote treaty makes ample provision, and vests the power to execute it in the United States. But nothing of that kind is aimed at by Senator Davis and the implacables behind him. They want to kill the whole treaty; or else to insert into it an ambiguous clause under cover of which we can break the promises we apparently give, and play the international ruffian at our pleasure.

It is clear, however, that this underhanded attempt to eviscerate the treaty will fail, if it is firmly opposed. The first outcry about the absolute need of fortifying the canal has subsided. Competent military opinion holds that the true defence of the canal in time of war is and must be naval. Admiral Dewey so maintains. Capt. Mahan does, also, we judge. This Davis amendment is, therefore, a final resort of subterfuge, a sort of last line of defence adopted by the enemies of a civilized canal. Secretary Hay, we understand, is not disposed to yield to them one inch or for an instant. But the President—aye, there's the rub. His backbone is all cartilaginous on this subject, too. A semi-official announcement states that Mr. McKinley cannot, of course, oppose his views to those of the Senate. "Would that I might live to see it!" said Goethe in 1827, speaking of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. Most Americans share the aspiration; but with it they join the wish that they had a President who would stand by his Secretary, stand by his treaty, and insist upon having the canal built on such terms that it would be indeed a monument of peace. But if he does not—if pressure is not applied in such a way as to give him the semblance of standing firm—the treaty will be beaten, and be added to the collection of the lamented dead in the Senate's cemetery.

A LONG BATTLE ENDED.

The adoption by the Senate of the conference report on the currency bill, and, as we write, its assured adoption by the House, form a fit occasion for a review of the financial legislation of the country since specie payments were suspended, nearly forty years ago. The most impressive lesson it conveys is the old one about the descent to Avernus.

The suspension of specie payments took place in the month of December, 1861, in consequence of the civil war; the banks and the Government suspending simultaneously.

The legal-tender act was passed February 25, 1862. It provided for the issue of $150,000,000 of United States notes to circulate as money. Another issue of $150,000,000 was authorized by Congress June 7, 1862, and a third issue of $100,000,000 January 17, 1863. These notes were convertible into United States bonds, bearing 6 per cent. interest, payable in coin, but this clause in the law was repealed March 3, 1863. This change in the law was recommended by Secretary Chase, but he lived to regret his action. In an opinion written by him as Chief Justice, he said that if the funding clause had been retained, specie payments would have been resumed automatically very soon after the close of the war. The greenbacks would have been converted into bonds. Gold and convertible banknotes would have flowed in to take their place. The transition would have come about in a natural way and would have been scarcely observed.

February 25, 1863, Congress passed the first national banking law. It was superseded by the more elaborate act of June 3, 1864.

June 17, 1864, Congress passed a law to prohibit speculation in gold or foreign exchange. It was a complete fiasco and was repealed July 2, 1864.

April 12, 1866, Congress passed a law authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to retire and cancel $10,000,000 of United States notes within six months, and $4,000,000 per month thereafter. This act was repealed February 4, 1868.

A controversy having arisen over the question whether the interest-bearing debt of the United States was payable in greenbacks, Congress passed a joint resolution, March 18, 1869, declaring that all Government obligations were payable in coin, unless the law under which they were issued expressly provided for some other payment. This was the first great controversy that grew out of the legal-tender act. It was bitter and long continued. Political parties made platforms in reference to this issue. Congresses and Presidents were elected upon it. The Greenbackers were finally beaten and driven out of the field, but they contended for the right to pay the bonds with greenbacks until after specie payments were resumed.

February 12, 1873, Congress passed a law regulating the coinage. By this act the coinage of the silver dollar was discontinued, and the legal-tender faculty of silver coins was limited to five dollars in one payment (afterwards raised to ten dollars), and the gold dollar was made the unit of value. This act was passed unanimously in the Senate and with only 13 negative votes in the House. The author of the bill was the late John Jay Knox, Comptroller of the Currency. Neither he, nor anybody else at that time, anticipated the decline that afterwards took place in the price of silver. The silver dollar was then worth two cents more than the gold dollar. No silver dollars had been in circulation for thirty years. The only purpose of the bill was to consolidate and revise the coinage laws and bring them into conformity to facts. The act must be regarded a most fortunate one, although it led to one of the most protracted controversies on the money question that the country has ever seen.

April 22, 1874, Congress having passed an act to increase the amount of United States notes by $44,000,000, President Grant vetoed it, and it was not passed over the veto. This was commonly called the "Inflation Bill."

January 4, 1875, Congress passed an act to provide for the resumption of specie payments on the 1st of January, 1879. It fell to the administration of President Hayes to carry this law into effect. John Sherman was Secretary of the Treasury. He acted in a very energetic and intelligent manner, and he was helped by a very favorable condition of the foreign trade of the country. Specie payments were resumed at the date named in the law. The premium on gold had disappeared before the time fixed for resumption. No gold was called for on the day when the Treasury doors were opened, and only $11,000,000 of greenbacks were presented for redemption during the succeeding twelve months.

In 1876 the decline in the value of silver had become sufficiently marked to attract the attention of ambitious politicians and the so-called "debtor class." An agitation, led by the late R. P. Bland of Missouri, was started for the remonetization of that metal, which became the most important issue in politics. The Bland bill passed the House in 1877, was sent to the Senate, and there amended, on the motion of Senator Allison, so as to require the Government to buy at least $2,000,000 worth of silver bullion per month, and coin it into dollars which should be legal tender, and pay the same for Government expenses, or to purchase more bullion. As thus amended the act was vetoed by President Hayes, and was passed over his veto February 28, 1878. The sum of $378,166,793 was coined under it.

The act continued in force until July 14, 1890, when it was superseded by the

so-called Sherman act, which increased the Government's purchases of silver to 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion per month. In order to avoid the delay of coining, it was provided that legal-tender notes should be issued to the sellers of the silver, and that the bullion should be kept in the Treasury.

This act caused the panic of 1893. It continued in force until October 30 of that year, when it was repealed by Congress at a special session called by President Cleveland for that purpose.

Such is a brief résumé of a most prolonged and perilous controversy now brought to an end by the present currency bill, which makes gold the standard of value beyond dispute or peradventure. It imposes upon the Secretary of the Treasury the duty of redeeming the legal-tender notes in gold and maintaining the parity of all forms of money issued by the Government, and gives him ample means therefor. No political party can successfully assail this legislation during the next six years, and it is not likely that any party will desire to do so at the end of that time.

THE CUBAN SITUATION.

In his article in the *North American Review* for February, the republication of which in Havana has just caused such an outburst of indignation there, Major James E. Runcie thus summarized the history of the year of American government in Cuba under Gen. Brooke: "It is a record of error and neglect; of folly, ending necessarily in failure, and, possibly, in shame and disgrace. . . . After almost a year of American supremacy, Cuba is governed by Spanish methods. The only change has been in the substitution of Cubans for Spaniards as the administrators of the machinery of government." This was the deliberate conclusion of an able army officer and lawyer, put on paper without the slightest expectation of its publication, after a year and a half of unselfish and gratuitous labor on Gen. Wood's staff, on behalf of the Cubans.

If these words seem strong to those of his readers who have taken it for granted that the administrative successes achieved by Gen. Wood and his officers in the province of Santiago were paralleled throughout the island, they have but to read on to find many sound reasons for Major Runcie's forcible language. They will learn also the vitally important fact in the Cuban situation, that the responsibilities assumed by the United States require not merely the honest and able administration of the government, but radical social reforms as well, if the purposes for which the Americans intervened are to be accomplished, and the Cubans given a fair start in self-government. Even Gen. Wood's work in Santiago, as he would be the first to admit, was of a superficial nature, since the fundamental laws and the governmental procedure can, of course, be altered, for the benefit of the entire island, only in Havana.

Major Runcie's sweeping charges relate to the American failure to grapple with the underlying reforms. Their publication, even though unauthorized by him and without his consent, and their truth, for as a whole they cannot be denied, brought down upon him the wrath of Washington officialdom long before they roused the Cubans to anger by their accompanying reflections upon the ability of the latter to govern themselves and to institute reforms. It was not timely that such revelations, even though hinted at when the new Governor went to Havana in December, should come just at the moment when the Porto Rican inhumanity led many loyal Republican newspapers to doubt the McKinley ability to solve the McKinley expansion problems. The article might even cause some uneasiness in the simple Filipino mind, should it follow Senator Beveridge's "traitorous" and sedition-making words across the Pacific.

With the arrival of Gen. Wood in Havana, a vigorous reformation of the imperfections in the machinery of government was begun. Commissions were appointed to revise the barbarities of Spanish legal procedure and the antiquated codes; to reorganize the judiciary; to adopt a modern charter for the cities of the island, with the especial purpose of returning to the municipalities some of the powers now centralized in Havana; to arrange for municipal elections; to reorganize the systems of finance and of taxation, perhaps the most difficult and vital problem of all; and to regulate and expedite the transfer of real estate. It has even been found necessary to go so far into social details as to prescribe the methods under which brokers shall conduct their business, and meanwhile the great humanitarian work of cleansing the cities and making their public institutions habitable has gone on unceasingly.

Secretary Root, however, will discover, in the course of his present trip to Cuba, that nothing more than substantial progress has been made in the short time of Gen. Wood's governorship. He may learn of Americans being confined two months before trial on what we should consider a police-court charge; he will hear that the Cubans caught months ago in robbing the custom-house are still unpunished, and that the courts have not yet learned to respect and use their new-found freedom from interference by the executive branch of the Government. He will find, too, that the new administration has embarked upon the very questionable policy of buying off and silencing clamorous Cuban agitators with offices and, in a very few cases, with sinecures; and that, being human, it is making still other mistakes. But Secretary Root cannot fail to see that Gen. Wood, and not his cabinet, is the real ruler of Cuba to-day, and that he has made an excellent beginning along the right lines. Furthermore, it must become plain to him that the only true way to govern the island is to place the responsibility squarely upon the shoulders of the Governor-General, to remove him at once if he is not equal to it, and, what is most important of all, to back him up with a firm and definite policy, as long as he is in office. The dangerous silence as to the intentions of the United States, so fatal in the Philippines, has been happily broken by Gen. Wood's repeated declarations as to Cuban independence. Any attempt to run the island for the benefit of the Republican party in the approaching Presidential election, or any display of the changeability of opinion which has characterized the Administration's course in the Porto Rican question, will only place additional burdens upon Gen. Wood's shoulders, and again bring up that vision of failure and disgrace which stirred Major Runcie so deeply. It is bad enough now that an Assistant Secretary as head of an insular bureau should be in a position to interfere and to meddle, and that important pending reforms should be held up because of White House fears as to their effect upon Southern Republicans.

Gen. Wood's task and that of the United States in Cuba is to build a governmental structure from the bottom upward, which shall have greater elements of strength than any yet upraised south of Washington. The American spirit of honesty and fair play demands the working out of this problem without reference to any elections at home. The most skilled English colonial administrator might well think twice before undertaking a task requiring such infinite patience, diplomacy, and wisdom as the regeneration of the island; and if American ability is to solve the problem, the "powers that be" must place success in Cuba above personal ambition and party triumphs. Mr. McKinley has had, and has failed to take advantage of, some glorious opportunities. The chance offered him in Cuba, of rehabilitating and setting upon its feet a crushed people, suffering from a frightful heritage of ignorance, dishonesty, and crime, and of nursing into full bloom the strongly budding desire for national life and self-government, should stir even a politician's heart to a realization that there are better and nobler things in life than national aggrandizement and all the commerce of Cathay and the Indies combined.

POLITICS AND PLAYS IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, February 26, 1900.

While the devil's work is proceeding in South Africa, and we may presume in the Philippines (though latterly we have thence

heard little), Irish affairs are not likely to be of absorbing interest outside our own shores. Yet they are not without their influence on your and imperial politics, and it may be allowable to devote a short space to them.

A reunion of Irish parties in the House of Commons has come about as unexpectedly, to most even of the "best informed," as did disunion nine years ago. An approaching general election, with the certainty of disaster to all parties if feuds were maintained, common sympathy for the Boers, and the extension of the United Irish League were doubtless the principal compulsions. It is all satisfactory, but it does not tend to increase our conception of the reasonableness of politics, that men who theoretically were sworn opponents two months ago, are now, with little real alteration in the situation of affairs on which they differed, sworn friends. The country has the Parliamentary union for which it is said to have been pining and praying. It remains to be seen whether it is still in the same temper as to Home Rule that it was when the split took place—whether increasing deadness upon that subject of late years has been due only to the want of Parliamentary union, or whether it may not rather be attributable to a general cooling of sentiment upon the subject. There is certainly apparent in Ireland a greater proportionate contempt for the constituted government than in any other country in the world but Finland. The exertions now having to be put forth by the moderates to return to Parliament their man as against the candidate of the extremists—the commander of an Irish regiment in the Boer service—is striking proof of this. The question is the real extent and basis of this contempt and dislike; whether, as without doubt successive reforms have circumscribed its volume, further changes, short of Home Rule, might not further circumscribe and eventually extinguish it altogether. To what extent is this dislike but upon the surface, or, where heartfelt, but in the minds of a generation passing away? Home Rule is undoubtedly desired, but is it desired to the degree of the curbing individual and class interests, and the curtailing of present pleasures, necessary for its accomplishment? Enthusiastic open-air meetings are held in favor of the Boers, but I remark at last night's fortnightly meeting of the Dublin Trades Council protests, not against Irishmen enlisting to fight them, but against military uniforms being manufactured in England rather than in Ireland. The progress of the war reveals that a larger proportion of our young men voluntarily take "the Saxon shilling" than of the men of other portions of the United Kingdom. Seldom has the world seen more sickening exhibitions of mock sentimentality and unreal feeling than Irish regiments leaving Ireland for the war, cheering for Mr. Krüger and singing "Who Fears to Speak of '98?" As to our commercial, official, and upper classes generally, the Jingoism out-Herods that of Great Britain. However, upon the whole, to the credit of our people it must be said that their sympathy for the Transvaal arises more from the absence of a domineering imperial spirit and the knowledge of what it is to be a small people, than from animosity towards England; and this sympathy is expended towards an almost exclusively Protestant people.

Meanwhile, whatever may be the course of politics, we are separated from our ante-Land League days almost as widely as you are from your ante-bellum period. The uprising of twenty years ago has compelled a greater respect for the masses of our people than previously. There is an inclination in the upper classes to interest themselves as they never did before in the material prosperity of their poorer neighbors. The country never was so peaceable and free from crime. Moreover, a literary movement has taken hold of classes of our people. It is of it I desire mainly to write.

Irish is being generally studied as it never was before. Its process of rapid disappearance as a spoken language has been arrested. Next year's census will probably show an extension of its domain, not as one only spoken, but as spoken beside English. It is true that this movement is as yet confined mostly to Catholics. Some of the principal leaders of it are, however, Protestants, and there is no reason why there should be anything sectarian about it. Efforts are being made to encourage the study in schools, to make its preservation by those who already speak it a matter of pride rather than shame, and to insist that in Irish-speaking districts children shall be taught English through Irish, rather than, as heretofore, English merely by rote, and without proper understanding. Barring extravagant claims put forward by some, the movement is healthy and elevating. Multitudes of our young people of both sexes are coming together to cultivate and enrich their minds by the acquisition of a second language, and that a beautiful and expressive one. Irish, in the surroundings of most who are cultivating it, will give an interest to daily life such as it is not likely any other language could give; and in gatherings for the cultivation of Irish songs and music, hours are spent that otherwise would be less profitably employed. I am not at all sure that this sphere of thought, however little those engaged in it may be aware, does not tend to the obliteration of the national ideals struggled for during the past sixty years. The principal popular bookseller in Ireland lately told me that the sale of Irish primers, grammars, and reading-books is supplanting that of Davis's Poems, Sullivan's 'Story of Ireland,' and 'Speeches from the Dock.' There are now two weekly Irish papers and one monthly journal. Interesting current reading is being supplied where there was none formerly. Indeed, one of the causes of the discouragement of Irish study in parts of the country sixty years ago by the Catholic clergy is said to have been that the only available printed literature in Irish was then the publications of the various Protestant controversial societies—a propaganda that has long come to an end. It is interesting to note that one of the leaders in the movement in Ireland, a writer of vigorous idiomatic Irish, is a Scottish lady, who commenced the study but ten years ago.

Following upon the language cult has come that of the Irish Literary Theatre. W. B. Yeats, George Moore, Edward Martyn, Alice Milligan, and others are giving themselves to the production and presentation of plays supposed to be peculiarly expressive of Irish genius and sentiment. They are backed by an imposing list of guarantors of all classes and opinions—from Lord Dufferin and Lord Ardilaun to Mr. Healy; from John O'Leary, Mr. Dillon, and Mr. O'Brien to Mr. Lecky and Horace Plunkett. Many of us believe that there is in our people, more especially those of Celtic blood, a spirituality, a preference of the ideal to the coarser things of life, such as there is not among similar classes across the Channel. It would be difficult, however, to endorse the claims put forward by the enthusiasts of the Literary Theatre. In the last number of their magazine, *Beltaine* (Irish for "May"), against Matthew Arnold's estimate of England—"our upper classes materialized and dull, our middle classes purblind and hideous, our lower classes crude and brutal"—is set, "Ireland is virgin soil, yielding endless inspiration to the artist; and her people, uncontaminated by false ideals, are ready to receive the new art. . . . Dublin audiences have awakened to the insipidity of the modern English theatre." Again: "The best thing that could happen to the intellect of Ireland would be if England were blotted out of Ireland's sphere. English influence can be nothing but bad." Three of their plays, "The Bending of the Bough," "Maeve," "The Last Feast of the Fianna," have just been produced at our principal theatre. They were altogether charming; in their simplicity of presentation, and reliance rather upon interest in motive and dialogue, a refreshing change from the glare, glitter, artificiality, and cumbering attention to dress and scenery of the modern stage drama. To those acquainted with Irish legend there could scarcely be a more thrillingly beautiful piece than Miss Alice Milligan's "Last Feast of the Fianna." It is to be hoped some of these plays will be produced in the United States. They will doubtless appeal to many in English-speaking lands who would desire the stage to be more of a teacher and elevator, less of a mere amuser. But there has been nothing in their reception by the Dublin public, appealing in their motives as they specially did to them, to lead us to believe that Irish taste is in such matters superior to British taste. They were anything but well attended. "Good plays, poor houses" was the comment of one interested in theatrical property. A new English farcical comedy took their place this week, and the papers report the theatre as "crowded in every part."

Let us here encourage every movement likely to conduce to our improvement; but do not let us hug the delusion that we are so much more finely constituted than other peoples that we can safely dispense with the self-discipline and plodding essential to all peoples who desire to maintain a position in a practical work-a-day world. D. B.

Correspondence.

THE UNSELFISHNESS OF IMPERIALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was amused, in reading to-day the letter from Washington of a Republican correspondent to a Republican paper, to find in it the following assertion: "One thing is reasonably certain, and that is, that if called upon to surrender the protective tariff or the Philippines, the Republican party would give up the Philippines." This may be commended to the attention of those who think the Republican leaders are keeping these islands for the good of their inhabitants. As soon as the tariff is threatened, the corporations and manufacturing interests which control the Republican party threaten to abandon the

Philippines. What then will become of "benevolent assimilation"?

Yours sincerely, H. M. CLARKE.

ELDRED, PA., March 9, 1900.

FELLOWSHIPS FOR WOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The committee appointed to examine the applications for the European Fellowship which is awarded each year by the National Association of Women College Graduates, has again to report that no one of the professors who has written a letter of recommendation for a candidate, after saying, "She has shown marked originality," has added the phrase, "so rare in a woman." This information was regularly volunteered in the early years of this fellowship, and the fact that it has now fallen into desuetude may be taken as showing that women college graduates, as a class, have been found to show every bit as much capacity for original investigation at the end of their course of study as do men. That they also have an eager enthusiasm for work of that sort is evidenced by the increasingly large number of them who take it up, in spite of the financial obstacles which, as a general thing, it is harder for women to overcome than for men. This year, for instance, of the fifteen students who are studying at the School of Archæology at Athens, four are women, and this proportion will be found to hold approximately at many centres of learning.

It is interesting to note each year in what terms distinguished professors speak of the candidates whom they recommend. This year, for instance, a Harvard professor says:

"As an undergraduate she distinguished herself in this subject, obtaining Honors. I have seldom had a pupil who equalled her in the accuracy, breadth, and largeness of view of her scholarship. She is at present, out of a large section of twenty-five graduate students, distinctly one of the very best. She has force and originality; and will, I am confident, make a distinguished record, and contribute to the advancement of learning."

Another writes: "She is one of the two or three best students I have ever had." A great German mathematician writes of one that she has "in meinem Seminar eifrig theilgenommen"—what we should have regarded a few years ago as an impossible feat for an American man during his first year in a German university. A professor writes: "She has a thoroughly logical and analytical mind" (with no word about this too being rare in a woman); and again; "She is one of the two most promising and able students whom I have had during my entire work since the opening of the University" (Chicago). They refer to "her unusual ability, her thorough training, her brilliant work"; they say:

"No reservations are needed; I have found her attainments, ability, and critical power distinctly exceptional and worthy of note; and she shows logical accuracy of the highest order." "As a matter of native endowment she possesses one of the most remarkable minds I have ever known"; "of extraordinary strength of mind, and has before her a brilliant career." "She has received the highest honors which the University could confer upon a student"; "this capacity is in no measure limited to her special subject—in no one of the branches required for her first degree did she fail to win high honors." "She possesses distinct originality, and gives promise of admirable results in research"; "the Association would be doing a genuine service in the promotion of investigation by giving her a fellowship." And to end with, this: "It is only justice to her to say that she is decidedly the ablest student in this subject who has had connection with this university."

Lest it should be supposed that all this learning and ardor of research makes women disagreeable and pedantic, it is worth while to add one more quotation: "I venture to mention that few women are so likely to enjoy a successful academic career as Miss ——, provided personal charm and beauty of character are of moment."

The Association has it in its power to offer only one fellowship. It solicits contributions, in order that scientific investigation may be promoted by putting women who have shown the most remarkable ability for original research into a position where their powers may be effective.

C. LADD FRANKLIN.

1507 PARK AVENUE, BALTIMORE,
March 10, 1900.

STUDENTS AND LIBRARIES IN BERLIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot resist saying a few words in answer to the remarks in this week's *Nation* about the reading propensities of the students of the University of Berlin. Every student is a member of the University Library, from which he draws books of reference, classics, and all that is needed for scholarly work. Both this and the other great library—the Royal Library, to which students have free access also—are always thronged with students standing in long lines as they wait to receive their books. The Akademische Lesehalle, which is a private and privileged institution of the students themselves, is meant mainly to supply the magazines and fiction which the regular libraries consider beneath their dignity. Perhaps this may explain why only 335 out of 5,000 students subscribe, and why so few classics are taken out. Moreover, very few homes, even of the lower middle class, are without their Goethe, Schiller, Heine, and Shakspere; and, apart from that, their plays are acted regularly. I myself have found among the students an enthusiasm and appreciation—an *absorption*—of the classics, that contrast strangely with the cold and superior spirit or impersonal criticism which has become so prevalent in our own schools and colleges. How and why Hermann Kantorowicz comes to give such a queer impression of this matter, I cannot understand; but all I have said is my own personal observation.

A FORMER STUDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BERLIN.

March 11, 1900.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue during the present season only the large-paper edition of Edmund C. Stedman's 'American Anthology,' which has been delayed by the compiler's illness; the edition uniform with his 'Victorian Anthology' being deferred till the autumn. They will shortly publish also 'Notes on the Bacon-Shakspere Question,' by the Hon. Charles Allen, particularly from the point of view of legal attainment; 'The Hôtel de Rambouillet and the Précieuses,' by Leon H. Vincent; and 'A Danvis Pioneer,' by Rowland E. Robinson.

D. Appleton & Co.'s March announcements include the fifth volume of Prof. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States,' reaching to the verge of the great anti-slavery conflict in Jackson's administration; 'The Principles of Taxation,' by the late David A. Wells; 'Bird Studies with a Camera,' by Frank M. Chapman; 'Stories of the Great Astronomers,' by Edward S. Holden; 'The Storied West Indies,' by F. A. Ober; 'A History of Russian Literature,' from the French of K. Waliszewski; and 'The Chronicles of Sir John Froissart,' an abridgment for children by Adam Singleton.

Dodd, Mead & Co. promise 'From Cape Town to Ladysmith,' by the late G. W. Steevens; 'Paris,' by Esther Singleton; 'A History of Scotland,' in three volumes, by Andrew Lang; 'Grey Stone and Porphyry,' verse by Prof. Harry Thurston Peck; 'English Embroidered Book Bindings,' by Cyril Davenport; and 'Down North,' travel in Nova Scotia, by Margaret W. Morley.

'Flame, Electricity, and the Camera,' by George Iles, a record of man's progress, is in the press of Doubleday, Page & Co.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will add to their "Master Musician Series" 'Bach,' by C. F. Abdy Williams.

'Israel's Messianic Hope,' by Prof. George S. Goodspeed, and 'The Reign of Law,' by James Lane Allen, are further announcements by Macmillan Co.

Meyer Bros. & Co. will publish as the third volume of their "Philobiblon Series" 'Bibliomania in the Middle Ages,' by F. Somner Merryweather.

John Lane will issue "Flowers of Parnassus," illustrated booklets edited by F. B. Money-Coutts; and, as agent of the Vale Press, its new edition of Shakspere's Plays, limited to 310 sets, of which 100 are for America.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish 'McLoughlin and Old Oregon,' an historical chapter, by Eva Emery Dye.

To the regret, we must suppose, of the Pacific Coast, Mr. Doxey removes his "Sign of the Lark" from San Francisco to New York in the course of the present month. His latest venture in publishing is an illustrated edition of Omar Khayyám's Quatrains, for which Miss Florence Lundborg of California furnishes designs that must stand comparison with Vedder's. They have been executed in line.

The Department of History, University of Pennsylvania, will change its Translations and Reprints from original sources (primarily intended for class use) to a series of volumes containing each the translation of some complete historical source or of selections from a single author, and edited with notes. The first volume will be 'Selections from the Writings of Zwingli,' by Samuel Macauley Jackson, D.D. Herman V. Ames, Ph.D., will edit "State Documents on Federal Relations: The States and the United States," *e. g.*, 'Interpretation of the Constitution prior to the War of 1812'; 'The Reserved Rights of the States, 1812-1832'; 'Nullification'; 'Slavery and the Constitution.'

For the Dante Society, Ginn & Co. announce, for May, Pio Rajna's Critical Text of the De Vulgari Eloquentia, by Paget Toynbee; a compilation of additions to the Harvard Dante collection by Theodore W. Koch and W. C. Lane; and Dante's references to Æsop, by Kenneth McKenzie.

A second edition of Prof. Karl Pearson's 'Grammar of Science' (Macmillan) makes a much bulkier volume than the first; but

the additions to it are inconsiderable. Prof. Pearson has contributed to the theory of evolution much that is of great value, in addition to highly important work in mathematical physics. But, notwithstanding that, the new edition of the present work, like the first, contains a good deal that is simply untenable. The author seeks to ally idealism and scientific philosophy—an attempt which is, in itself, altogether praiseworthy. But the work is not sound either on the one side or on the other.

Heinrich Hertz, who revolutionized current conceptions of electrical action by developing the theory of Maxwell, and who was incontestably one of the most extraordinary intellects that have illumined nineteenth-century science, left behind him, at his early death, an unfinished work, of which a translation now appears under the title of 'The Principles of Mechanics Presented in a New Form' (Macmillan). The manuscript had been laboriously edited, at the desire of the lamented author, by Prof. P. Lenard, and the present translation, by D. E. Jones and J. T. Walley, has received the care of Prof. Lenard. The book is an attempt to elaborate with a strict logic a conception of dynamics which excludes action at a distance, substituting for it concealed connections. Accordingly, we find energy defined as kinetic energy. At this rate our famous doctrine of energy is dissipated into thin air by being reduced to a mathematical truism. It is curious that the work is preceded by an introduction from the pen of Helmholtz, than whom, for all his ineluctable admiration of Hertz, nobody could naturally be less disposed to accept the doctrines of the present essay. Nothing in the notable volume better deserves to be pondered than this same introduction as a lesson in scientific calm and openness to every idea. A logician trained in modern conceptions will not have to read far in Hertz's Spinoza-like presentation to see that it abounds in logical crudities. But these are not inseparable from the doctrine; and perhaps continued health and vigor would have eliminated them before publication. It is certainly a book to be reckoned with and an historic monument. There is no complicated mathematics to be dreaded in it.

A contribution to the much-discussed question of the future of the small college comes to us in the shape of an address by the Rev. Henry Hopkins, D.D., of Kansas City, delivered at the Boston meeting of the International Congregational Council, last December, and now printed in pamphlet form. The address strikes us as special pleading rather than sufficient argument, but it will doubtless help to confirm the faith of some. While giving large praise to the university and its work, Dr. Hopkins emphatically believes that it is in the college, and not in the university, that the best all-round education for the average man or woman is still to be had. That so many men conspicuous in public affairs are graduates of small colleges seems to him to augur well for the future of those institutions. The question is, of course, two-sided. There are colleges and colleges. What Dr. Hopkins, and many others who take pronouncedly his view of the matter, fail to put with sufficient clearness, is the fact that we have in the United States an array of insignificant institutions (most of them, it must be admitted, established in the interest of denominational aggrandizement), which fulfil no indispensable function, and which ought never to have existed at all. It is these superfluous enterprises, with the form but not the substance of sound learning, which most discredit our higher education, and bring the name of college into contempt. We quite agree with Dr. Hopkins that twenty million dollars bestowed in a lump upon some great university might, very likely, accomplish less for the educational welfare of the community than the same sum allotted to twenty small colleges; but we should wish to pick the colleges with care.

The twenty-seventh instalment of the Hatzfeld-Darmesteter 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) passes from S to T. The tract in question is rather remarkable for the non-appearance of new words in the quarter-century since Littré. In fact, we have noticed only *téléphone* (non-existent in 1875, although Littré has, in an older sense, *téléphonie* and *téléphonique*). The Academy in 1878 set its seal of approbation on a number of words and senses, mostly English, to be found in Littré, such as *spirite* and *spiritisme, steeple-chaise, stéréoscope, stériliser* (which fell into disuse in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and was revived in the nineteenth), *stock*, and *thalweg. Sous-main, syndicat* (financial), *taille-plume, tandem, téléphone* are still unauthorized neologisms.

The first of eight large octavo volumes of a new 'Weltgeschichte' (Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut) has reached us through the publishers' agents in this city, Messrs. Lemcke & Buechner. The work is edited by Dr. Hans F. Helmolt of the Institut, with the collaboration of thirty specialists of good repute. The reasons which induced the editor to plan the work, contrary to all precedent, on an ethnogeographical rather than a chronological basis, and, beginning with America (according to Ratzel the "orient of the inhabited earth"), to proceed westward, reaching western Europe and the Atlantic Ocean last, are sufficiently explained in the preface and the introductory chapter. Two chapters, both very interesting, the one by Prof. J. Kohler (Berlin), the other by Prof. Friedrich Ratzel (Leipzig), deal with the general conditions of the life and development of man on the earth. Prof. J. Ranke (Munich) discusses the prehistoric times in about sixty pages. Then follows the history of North and South America from the earliest times to the present (368 pp.); and a brief chapter (30 pp.) on the historical significance of the Pacific Ocean, succeeded by a good index, completes the volume. Prof. Konrad Haebler's contribution to the volume (America) combines as well as could be expected the spirit of scientific research with the encyclopædic character conditioned by the general plan of the work; and his history of the United States, for example, may well afford pleasure with reliable information to the German readers of the 'Weltgeschichte.' Prof. Ratzel's statement (p. 69), however, that after the abolition of slavery "white masters emigrated and black ex-slaves immigrated, and the Black Belt of negro majorities from South Carolina to Texas was darkened" is to be challenged. The spelling "carpet-*beggar*tum" (p. 568) no doubt results from an unintentional overdose of humor. The strange form *kännte* for the preterite subjunctive of *kennen*, occurs at least three times in the volume.

The revival of historical study in the South has been one of the most gratifying symptoms of recent years. The South Carolina Historical Society, founded in 1855, has felt the impulse, has trebled its membership, engaged a secretary, treasurer, and librarian in one (A. S. Salley, jr.), and founded the quarterly *South Carolina Historical and Genealogical Magazine* (Charleston). Number one contains a list of members in which the names Barnwell, Bull, Calhoun, Gadsden, Gaillard, Grimké, Lowndes, McCrady, Memminger, Pinckney, Ravenel, Rhett, and Tillman occur, and a list of the Society's publications hitherto. There is a very interesting inedited letter from Jefferson to Judge William Johnson, June 12, 1823, noticeable for its recollections concerning the authorship of Washington's Farewell Address and its censure of Marshall; inedited papers touching Col. John Laurens's mission to Europe in 1781; papers of the first South Carolina Council of Safety; and a genealogy of the Bull Family. This is a vigorous beginning.

The *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima*, Peru (*trimestre primero*, 1899), contains a list of all the published works of Raimondi, embracing 87 items, exclusive of 14 maps, covering a period of extraordinary activity extending from 1853 to 1890. The announcement is also made that Sr. José Balta is preparing a critical study of the life and works of Raimondi, which promises to be of more importance than the brief appreciation, "La Obra de Raimondi," by Emiliano Llona. Although somewhat neglected in the latter part of his life, for which the savant himself was largely to blame, he has his reward now in an adoration by the Peruvians which amounts almost to a cult. Other articles of more than passing interest are the conclusion of J. T. Polo's synopsis of all recorded earthquakes and volcanic eruptions in Peru, and a brief but comprehensive account of the Department of Libertad, by Carlos B. Cisneros and Rómulo E. Garcia, which is evidently an advance chapter of the next volume of their Commercial Geography of South America.

That sociological considerations, quite as much as educational, are involved in the modifications everywhere of secondary and higher education appears again from the debates in the Swedish Chambers on which Dr. Klinghardt reports in the *Zeitschrift für ausländisches Unterrichtswesen* (v., 2). As a result of these discussions the gymnasial course in Sweden is to undergo a radical change, the Latin being entirely relegated to the four upper classes. The Swedish gymnasium will then consist of a common substructure of five years, and a twofold superstructure of four years, one with and one without Latin—not unlike our own high school. Besides, there will be a sort of rounding-up one-year course for pupils who have gone through the first five years and do not intend to enter the higher courses—an innovation which would greatly benefit the many thousands who pass from our own grammar schools directly into life.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for March contains a sketch of the Transvaal, in which the author, Mr. F. F. Hilder, dwells particularly on the native races, holding that the future of South Africa depends largely, not on the supre-

macy of any one European nation, but upon the manner in which the natives are treated by the whites. Surgeon-General Sternberg gives an historical review of the bubonic plague with many facts and statistics. He closes with an extract from a graphic account by Dr. L. F. Barker of Johns Hopkins University of a visit last year to Poona, India, where the deaths were 150 a day. "Such a rate of mortality in New York would mean about 10,000 deaths per day, 70,000 per week." Other articles are on the ice-cliffs on White River, Yukon Territory, and a hunting trip for walrus and reindeer in Northern Greenland.

An interesting account of the present condition of labor in Hawaii is given in the Consular Reports for February, showing the manner in which laborers are engaged, lodged, cared for, and paid. The Japanese, who are a little more than two-thirds of the whole number (36,000, it is said), can live on from $4 to $6 a month, or about half what it costs a Chinaman. There is also a description of the methods of cultivating cacao in Samoa, by an American planter, with an estimate of the possible profits in it. A report on the French wine crop refers to the immunity of the imported California vines from the phylloxera—"the small cicatrice that it leaves being filled with sap and closed as soon as made"—and adds, "No vine can be looked upon as worth cultivation until it is grafted with the American vine." On the other hand, the Consul at Tientsin reports that attempts to introduce American cotton into northern China, which produces a large quantity of native cotton, have proved a failure. The plant "grows to a luxuriant height, but it has no bolls." There is also a brief reference to the ten free household schools in Liège, nine being evening schools, in which girls from 12 to 13 years of age are taught "cooking, washing, mending, hygiene, household economy, and, in fact, everything relating to housekeeping. Of late, the care of little children has been added."

Corals, as is well known, form a large proportion of the fossils found in the palæozoic rocks of Canada. The classification and nomenclature of these corals, however, have been in a state of some confusion, and, with a view to remedying this, Mr. Lawrence M. Lambe has undertaken a revision of the genera and species. His report on the *Madreporaria perforata* and the *Alcyonaria*, with five plates, forms the first part of the fourth volume of "Contributions to Canadian Palæontology" published by the Geological Survey of Canada. He gives as complete a description as possible of structural characteristics, and attempts to show that some forms, hitherto considered of little value as regards the determination of the age of the deposits in which they occur, really indicate "definite horizons through the possession of distinctive structural peculiarities." The advances made in palæontology during recent years, and the new light thrown on some doubtful points, have necessitated the transfer of certain species to different genera, and have strengthened others in the positions already assigned them. A second part, illustrated by thirteen plates, is in preparation, and is intended to conclude the revision of this class so far as available material permits.

A year ago, some evening lectures on Browning's poetry delivered at University College, London, by Mr. Stopford Brooke, excited a movement to provide for the regular delivery of such a course, as well as to testify to public appreciation of the distinguished lecturer. It is proposed to raise $50,000 for the perpetual endowment of a Stopford Brooke Lectureship or Professorship of Literature or Poetry, he being the first incumbent during his pleasure. An English general committee has been formed, and an American auxiliary is in contemplation. Sir W. Besant, Mr. Bryce, Mr. Sidney Colvin, Dr. Furnivall, Dr. Garnett, Mr. Gosse, Mr. Henry James, Mr. George Meredith, Mr. Leslie Stephen are among the members of the former. Subscriptions may be sent to the Honorary Treasurer, J. Foster Howe, Holwood, Grove Park, Lee, London, S. E.

The University of Edinburgh, which has not hitherto conferred an honorary degree on a woman, will, it is announced, confer the degree of LL.D. on Eleanor A. Ormerod. Miss Ormerod has long been well known, not only as an entomologist of great learning, but also as one who has been the source of most important practical measures for the extermination of insect pests.

The late Daniel G. Brinton, the Americanist, is the latest addition to Mr. F. Gutekunst's (Philadelphia) gallery of imperial panel photographs.

—The *Atlantic* for March opens with Mr. Olney's much-heralded article on the "Growth of Our Foreign Policy." He begins, as all writers of his class do, with the statement that until within two years the characteristics of the foreign policy of the United States was "isolation"; isolation was brought to an end by our annexing the Philippines, which was a great mistake, but is now past talking about, because "the thing is done." "We are no longer an American Empire simply—we are become an Asiatic Empire also," and, so far from being isolated, are elbowed by armed neighbors on every side. What do we deduce from all this? Evidently that we need help. "Except for Great Britain's countenance," we should hardly have got the Philippines; except for her continued support, "our hold upon them would be likely to prove precarious, perhaps altogether unstable." It follows that "we now find ourselves actually caught in an entangling alliance" with Great Britain. Besides the English alliance, moreover, we must have plenty of guns and ships and a large standing army. Through this, however, we shall get an enlarged trade, because the simple Orientals trade by preference with those who make a great display of warlike resources. The only really strong thing in the article is the author's résumé of the reasons why the Philippine adventure is sure to be disadvantageous and dangerous; and if this paper represents the highest level of Massachusetts imperialistic thought, we should strongly recommend the "antis" to republish it as a tract, double-leading the passages which show the real nature of the scrape into which we have got. A political paper of considerable value is that on "British Shipping Subsidies," by J. W. Root, in which the author shows, by means of statistics, how absurd is the pretence that these subventions are anything more than reasonable payments for carrying the mails. Mr. George McLean Harper has a readable article on "The Place of French Literature," in which he points out that the uniformity of the French language, in style and orthography, and the simplicity and neatness of its mechanism, make it the most useful of all to foreign students. Of all great literatures—and it is one of the greatest—French is most open and hospitable. It is only the degenerate writers of our own time "who have gathered slang and thieves' jargon from the gutters of Paris," and "the half-crazed decadent poets who, in their ignoble scramble for notoriety, have invented meaningless phrases"—"it is only through the deliberate efforts of these men that the French language has suffered any radical change in the last three hundred years."

—*Scribner's* publishes the second instalment of H. J. Whigham's narrative of the Boer war, which improves in interest as it goes on. "The Fighting with Methuen's Division" (Belmont, Gras Pan, and Modder River) is here described; and the reader gets a very good idea of these engagements, and of the nature of the campaign in general. The newspapers, notwithstanding their enormous enterprise, give us a very confused notion of the war, and we shall need to revise our impressions as time goes on. Nevertheless, this article confirms the general idea that Lord Methuen's advance was conducted with a wonderful disregard of all the conditions by which he was faced. At Modder River the Boers had an intrenched position extending for about three miles along the steep banks of the river, "having, therefore, not only plenty of material shelter, but a background of trees, which made them absolutely invisible to our advancing troops." In front of them was a field of fire extending for two miles to the horizon of their vision, with no cover. To the Boer in his trench, therefore, the advancing British soldier was an exposed target on the sky-line until he got within a thousand yards, and after that the ground was as flat as a cricket field. For the advance over this deadly plain, no preparation was made by a cannonade, and the British infantry "were well within the range of the enemy's rifle fire before the strength of his force was grasped." The attack was begun in broad daylight, and lasted all day. In the night, the Boers took away their guns and evacuated the position. They "left a position which seemed impregnable, and the march to Modder River was over." George F. Pentecost, jr., has a paper on "The Renaissance of Landscape Architecture," accompanied by a plan based on Bacon's essay. The author is a lover of the Formal or Geometrical style, and insists that new interest is awakening in it. He admits, however, that the question in treating a site is not, Which is the superior style? but, Which treatment does the ground itself call for? To enable artifice to adopt or simulate the methods of nature, the scale must be large.

—The leading paper in the *Century* for March is an article by Ernest Seton-Thompson, illustrated by himself, on the "National Zoo at Washington," in which he makes a strong argument in favor of the preservation of all breeds of animals. Many boasted human inventions, he thinks, have been of less use to mankind than some animal, if preserved, might have been. Grateful as we

ever must be for gunpowder, Mr. Seton-Thompson is doubtful whether we owe it as much as we have lost in the extinction of the buffalo. We, to-day, "who deliberately exterminate any large and useful, possibly domesticable, wild animal *may* be doing more harm to the country than if we had robbed it of its navy." It is to be remembered that the total destruction of an organized being is irreparable, and that "each animal is in itself an inexhaustible volume of facts that man must have, to solve the great problem of knowing himself." It must be said for man that he is quite as ready to exterminate varieties of his own species as he is to destroy the brute creation. In another article, on "The Giant Indians of Tierra del Fuego," Dr. Frederick A. Cook of the Belgian antarctic expedition gives some account, illustrated with pictures made from his own photographs, of what is going on in that little-known part of the world. From this it seems that the Yahgans are already nearly extinct, and that the Onas, who have taken their place, are in a fair way to perish, being helped on the road to extermination by the white sheep-farmer and the missionary. There is no "Zoo" to preserve them, and before long these fine savages will be numbered among the races destroyed by civilization. It is amusing to see how the *entente* with England affects magazine literature. One of the old periodical English stand-bys was the article on the "Designs of Russia," showing how the progress of that Empire threatened the future of the world, and consequently must be checkmated. Formerly these vaticinations of disaster attracted but little attention in this country, and it was rather difficult for an American to understand why there was not as much room in the world for Russia as for some of her rivals. But since the Spanish-American war has opened our eyes to what the world really is, this Russophobe article now makes its appearance in our magazines. Under the title, "The Warfare of Railways in Asia," it may be found in the current *Century*. The author, on this occasion, is Alexander Hume Ford, and he shows conclusively that Russia is at her old tricks. She is "advancing" and "is almost ready once more to close her ever forward hand," and "again reach out for more"; but now, God be praised, "the Great Bear finds her way contested" by every other great Power in the world. The question is now, Who will get their railways built first? By "completing their routes," England, Italy, Germany, Japan, and the United States may "checkmate Russia"; but if we remain apathetic, and leave our routes uncompleted, "the Great Bear will have all Asia in the merciless grasp of his steel-shod claws, and no man can foretell the outcome." It hangs in the balance.

—"Moose-Hunting with the Tro-chu-tin" is the title of a descriptive paper in *Harper's*, by Tappan Adney, with illustrations by the author. The Tro-chu-tin are the Klondike Indians, and the paper is a lifelike account of a primitive winter hunt by a village community. The more one hears of Alaska, the more clearly one perceives that its government by the United States is a sort of constitutional fiction, at least so far as the Indians are concerned. They either shift for themselves, or else they apply for alms to the Alaska Commercial Company—and are told that the Company can do nothing for them. There seem to be no game-laws of any kind, the Indians killing the cow-moose when they are heavy with young. Yet in Bering Sea we were maintaining the other day, at enormous expense, the proposition that sealing of this sort was *contra bonos mores*. Among the heavier articles, Capt. Mahan begins a discussion of "The Problem of Asia." So far as we are concerned, any one can hold what opinion he pleases about the future of Asia, but we must protest against Capt. Mahan's attempted reinforcement of his positions by false or misleading doctrines of public law, manufactured by himself for the occasion. For instance, in this article he undertakes to draw a line between matters which can be arbitrated and those which cannot, and lays it down that "when a difference between two States can be brought to the test of ascertained and defined *right*, this carries with it a strong presumption in favor of submission"; but "when a matter touches only *advantage*, not qualified by law or by prescription, and the question is one of expediency, it is justly and profitably considered in the light of self-preservation." (The italics are not his.) If this were true, then if England set up a claim to sovereignty in the United States, this being a matter of clearly ascertained and defined right, we ought to submit it to arbitration; while over a matter like the neutralization of the Isthmus Canal we ought to go to war and fight to the death. Hitherto publicists have maintained, and the course of history has been supposed to demonstrate, the exact opposite of Capt. Mahan's proposition—that matters of right, such as sovereignty, independence, and freedom, are worth fighting for, but that matters of expediency may be better compromised or arbitrated. Capt. Mahan must surely be aware that one of the arguments by which the arbitration treaty between this country and England was defeated was that we were threatened by it with having to submit fundamental questions of sovereignty and territory, and the attempt was made to exclude these by means of an amendment; both sides admitted that questions of mere expediency were fit subjects for arbitration. But we must be patient and humble with the reactionary writers who are expounding for us the new Jingo learning. From the nature of the case, they are, if possible, to persuade themselves that black is white.

—Eighteen large "colortype" plates, very well reproduced from water-colors by E. W. Deming, twice as many black-and-white drawings by the same artists, and accompanying nursery-keyed "stories" by Therese O. Deming, fulfil a showy and not unattractive album of 'Indian Child-Life' (Stokes). The book is sympathetic in its attitude of introducing the baby original-American to the friendly consideration of the youthful new-American, and for its human tolerance is best worth while. The color schemes are nearly all decidedly good; the compositions generally pleasing. On the other hand, there is a surprising amount of very bad drawing and even more of impossible characterization. Such wooden anatomies as here persistently recur (for egregious examples, the elder Indian's neck, or the child's head and torso, in colorplates 8 and 2, respectively), of course, largely carry their own refutation. Even the young will outgrow any faith that Indians are so inhumanly framed. But such an irremediable jumble of tribal face-types and "properties" is more misleading; and it would be difficult to recall a more serious offender in this regard. Not only is there no suggestion of Burbank's splendid type-portraiture or Lungren's almost prophetic interpretation of the arid atmospheres and landscapes, but no hint of the scrupulous regard to ethnographic truth which distinguishes these masters of the Southwest. It is all the more surprising that this carelessness of fact should inhabit with so sensitive a feeling for color. There never was a pueblo which resembled that pictured for "the Burro Race," nor any such cliff-dwelling as is here shown forth. No Pueblo woman ever wore such dress as all Mr. Deming's Pueblo women wear—nor is ever likely to; for, when she shall depart from the rigid convention of centuries, it will be to something very unlike his fashion-plate. She never even wore a dress of the color he finds most consonant with his scheme; and she cannot until she ceases to be a Pueblo Indian. Scores of these hopeless incompatibilities—facial, geographic, habilimentary, architectural—make it most charitable to presume that the artist has relied mostly upon photographs which left much to the imagination.

—The International Society of Painters, Sculptors, and Gravers, in two years' time, has made a reputation for itself by giving by far the finest exhibitions of contemporary art held in London. It is appropriate, therefore, that its catalogue should also be the best as yet produced in England. Last year's, in its *édition de luxe* (London: William H. Ward & Co.), has just reached us, at a moment when it seems doubtful if the first and second shows will be followed by a third; at all events, none is announced for this coming spring. But to the work already accomplished by the Society the catalogue is a fitting monument. It proves that there are good engravers and printers in England, when they are wanted, just as the exhibitions proved that there are good artists, though they receive little, if any, official encouragement. Last year not a member of the Academy was on the Council, only one or two Academicians were among the contributors. But the Society, with Mr. Whistler as its President, already holds a position among artists that the Academy lost nearly a century ago and has never made the effort to regain. The first great merit of the Catalogue, therefore, is that it contains reproductions of pictures and drawings, prints and sculpture worth reproducing. But, more than this, the reproductions are excellent. There are a number of photogravures, chief among them Mr. Whistler's "Little Lady Sophie of Soho" as frontispiece; and all are fairly successful in suggesting the quality of the originals, great as the reduction has necessarily been. There are also numerous process blocks, clean and clear, and not the mere smudges with which the compiler of catalogues is too often content. It is the invention and development of half-tone, really, that has all but ruined the Salon catalogues. In the old days, the artists themselves often made amusing line drawings after their own pictures, but nowadays the camera does the work for them, and the engravers and the printer apparently do not think the results worth much trouble. But Messrs. Ward's blocks are good, and they, and also the photogravures and the well-arranged types, are admirably printed. Altogether the Catalogue is interesting, in itself and as an his-

torical record of a very striking and influential artistic venture. There is also an illustrated catalogue of the first year's show issued by Mr. Henschel in London, and, in the event of the Society's not making a third appearance in public, the two volumes together will have an additional attraction for the collector. However, it is to be hoped that the Society still has a great future before it.

—The Messrs. Putnam have reprinted for Mr. Archer M. Huntington the 'Relation du Voyage d'Espagne' of Mme. d'Aulnoy (1679), done into English shortly after its first appearance as a collection of letters. This "ingenious and diverting" narrative, as it is styled in its title-page, is here and there retarded by long-winded stories of casually encountered travellers, much after the fashion of the fiction of those days, as in 'Gil Blas,' for instance; but the rest is sufficiently lively to warrant Taine's desire of seeing the work rendered generally accessible to modern readers. In fact, it might well have been advisable not only to rewrite this somewhat slovenly seventeenth-century translation, but to add from its companion work, 'Mémoires de la Cour d'Espagne,' a selection of passages further illustrative of manners of the time; for in the latter occur several of the episodes which give its piquancy to Taine's familiar essay. To cite but one instance, the anecdote of the cobbler who buys two superfluous pounds of dear salmon with the strut and swagger of an hidalgo, for the silly vanity of making the stranger stare, is not found in the present volume. A biographical introduction sketches the historical and literary aspect of Spain in Mme. d'Aulnoy's day. We must point out, however, that the entertaining French woman wrote neither 'Contes des Fées,' nor 'L'Oiseau Bleue,' although the latter elementary mistake is countenanced in Dunlop's 'History of Fiction.' Her husband's name is commonly given as La Mothe, not La Motte; and the lady herself, here reduced to the rank of a baroness, is presented as a countess in several leading authorities.

HART'S CHASE.

Salmon Portland Chase. By Albert Bushnell Hart. (American Statesmen Series.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 16mo, pp. 465.

It is a pleasure to see the life of Mr. Chase in the popular handy-volume series of American Statesmen. The larger book published by Mr. Schuckers five and twenty years ago still remains a faithful and well-written guide to the study of the career of the statesman and judge; but Prof. Hart has had access to new materials and large files of intimate correspondence, and the lapse of time creates a demand for an estimate of the man in accordance with the fuller light and a more distant perspective. Mr. Hart, himself born an Ohioan, inheriting the great regard and respect for Mr. Chase which his family shared with the anti-slavery men of the last generation, is so well fitted by tradition, by education, and by his favorite studies to do justice to the subject of his memoir, that we feel at once that the task has fallen into the right hands.

Mr. Chase, like many men of large frame and muscle, was slow in maturing intellectually. The body, when rapidly growing and filling out, uses nature's forces so lavishly that the brain must wait, or at least does wait, in many cases, till, the physical man being otherwise fully grown, the development of mind goes on with accelerated momentum far into middle life. The final result was, in his case, a constant gain in weight and power of thought and will, proportioned to the body and capable of responding to demands upon him in a way to produce the conviction that he was equal to the greatest occasion, and at his best when the juncture was most important and critical. This was a solid basis for leadership. His contemporaries Ewing and Giddings in his own State were men of similar mould, and so were Miller and Davis, his associates on the bench. Great latent strength and force marked them all, and all were formidable when aroused.

Mr. Chase formed high ideals in morals, early in life, and through his whole career was sincerely frank in bringing his private and public conduct to the test of true standards of right. Zeal for a cause might warp his judgment, or an ambition based upon a consciousness of his capacity to guide great affairs might at times mislead him and make him connect personal success too closely with public duty. Taken as a whole, however, his life was an example of no ordinary devotion to principle. An attempt to crush liberty of the press by mob law in Cincinnati in 1836 made him volunteer as counsel for James G. Birney, the eminent anti-slavery leader; and the conduct of the case worked such deep conviction as to right and duty that, from being the legal advocate of the oppressed, he passed on to a life-long devotion to the cause of negro emancipation. It seemed to be a renunciation of all selfish ambition in his profession or in politics, and the step was taken in full knowledge of the cost. In the progress of public affairs he came to hold party allegiance very lightly, but no exigency or temptation ever made him waver in devotion to the practical purpose of ridding the country of slavery, and of promoting the enlightenment and the citizenship of the freedmen.

Mr. Hart's sympathy with the cause to which Mr. Chase devoted his life never makes him an indiscriminating eulogist. He calmly weighs the motives and reasons for Mr. Chase's action in each phase of his career, and we feel that approval thus given may be accepted as justice and not favor or affection. In this spirit we are led through the stages of a brilliant public life—a senatorship conferred by a Legislature having little sympathy with anti-slavery doctrine; a splendid fight against the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and in support of freedom in Kansas and Nebraska; a governorship busy with preparation for terrible contingencies; a ministership of finance with operations so vast and difficult as to make all preceding experience in this country trivial in the comparison; a chief-justiceship busied with reducing to order the laws and the administrative acts of a period of convulsion, and with the reconstruction of constitutional government in States recognized as belligerents in a great rebellion lasting for years. To find steady adherence to principle controlling such a career, to find broad and calm statesmanship dominating it, without panic or passion, to know that faith in his country's destiny never faltered, to see him as judge overruling, with calm and strong appeal to fundamental principles, conclusions which had made his great glory in popular opinion as a minister of state—if these are not marks of a great character, where shall we find it? The final judgment of history may not approve the wisdom of every step or find every act free from human fallibility of motive; but it is so clear in the summing up that the ruling purpose was noble and patriotic, that carping at the few debatable incidents is silenced. We are sure that we are dealing with a life which ought to be and will be the pride of the nation, and which is worthy to be associated with that of Lincoln in permanent reverence.

Passing from the broader view of Mr. Hart's treatment to minor matters of detail, we occasionally find ourselves hesitating to accept the biographer's view. The statement (p. 34) that the prohibition of slavery by the Ordinance of 1787 did not apply to slaves already in the Northwest Territory, seems to go too far. The language of the Ordinance does not warrant it, and the most that can fairly be said is that there was for a time a tacit tolerance of slavery in the case of Southern visitors or squatters, and some hiring of slave-labor along the Ohio River.

In drawing a contrast between Mr. Chase's views and the more radical ones of Giddings (pp. 65, 66), Lysander Spooner is said to have "worked into logical form," in 1845, Mr. Chase's argument. But Spooner's book, so famous in that early controversy, was entitled 'The Unconstitutionality of Slavery,' and went the whole length of contending that, by fixed rules of legal interpretation, slavery had no constitutional existence, either in the national domain or in the several States; that it was within the power of Congress to sweep it away by law, and it was the duty of the judiciary to deny its lawful existence. Spooner was, therefore, the radical of radicals, and his position far beyond Chase's.

We cannot go with Mr. Hart in finding Chase involved in a contradiction by "declaring that the acts of Congress establishing slavery in the District [of Columbia] were void, and yet that Congress had power to repeal them" (p. 71). Surely unconstitutional laws ought to be removed from the statute-book. While they remain there they are a continual source of contention, and a ground for new revival of agitation in both legislatures and courts. But the only possible way of removing them is by repeal, and their unconstitutionality is the strongest of reasons for resorting to it.

The period of hesitation at the beginning of Lincoln's Presidency was not to be charged to the President or his cabinet as a fault. The more sure one might be that war must be the result of secession, the wiser it might also be to wait for the ripening of the public sentiment of the Northern people, and to let the secessionists assume the full responsibility of beginning the clash of arms. Such seems to have been Mr. Lincoln's attitude, with whom the practical was always a dominating idea. Mr. Chase, however, was more under the dominion of systematic theory, and love for self-government embarrassed him when it came to the question of forcibly suppressing a revolution organized by several States. His letter of April 20, 1861, which Mr. Hart quotes (p. 209), seems to us to show, not a "wavering judgment," but an adherence to what he fairly calls "a positive policy," viz., recognizing the Montgomery Government "as an accomplished revolution, accomplished

through the complicity of the late Administration, and letting that Confederacy try its experiment." Greeley, Gen. Scott, and others gave expression to the same thought in different forms. The more determined nationalists were so fully convinced that it was only a question of a short time, and that flagrant war was both inevitable and near, that they thought it was not worth while to debate whether this would be a war of conquest, or whether we could look forward to holding millions of people in a federal union they hated. We said, the occupation of national forts, arsenals, custom-houses, and navy-yards *is* war, and complete disintegration of the nation must follow unless we assert our nationality by arms. A quarrel over a demand to give up half the Western Territories, over the control of the navigation of the Mississippi, over the money value of public property in the hands of either party, would be no more a challenge to arms than the actual expulsion of national officers, civil, military, and judicial, from their functions in the insurrectionary States. Mr. Lincoln was believed to share this opinion, and to be watching for the evidence of support in it by a public sentiment he could rely on.

Mr. Chase's opinion was entirely consistent with readiness to wage war resolutely whenever it should be begun by aggressive military action on the part of the insurrectionists. Events moved so fast that the attack upon Fort Sumter, which gave Mr. Lincoln the indubitable assurance of popular support that he desired, was also the termination of the peaceful experiment which Mr. Chase favored. They were never apart in the practical question, What is to be done to-day? and the 12th of April found them equally in readiness to prosecute the war then made flagrant. This was not by change of "wavering" opinion, but by the logical outcome of the theoretic policy of each. Each may have thought the other was "drifting," but we can now see that neither was doing so.

The mental and personal characteristics of Lincoln and Chase were so different that it it is not strange that chafing occurred. Chase's standards of deportment and of the gravity of thought proper to the conduct of great affairs made him impatient with the President. He evidently shared the error of nearly all the members of Congress in depreciating the abilities and statesmanship of Lincoln, by reason of their failure to see beneath the surface. When we add to this Mr. Chase's natural growth of confidence in his own powers, his increasing ambition to lead, and disposition to press his opinions on others, we do not wonder that the two great men drifted apart. This tendency culminated when the most active Unionists in Congress became hostile to the candidacy of Mr. Lincoln for a second term, and turned to Chase for a successor. From that time they were political rivals in fact, whatever efforts might be made to smooth their current relations. Lincoln's greater suavity and real kindliness of character made the situation easier for him; but Mr. Chase was too vehement to maintain his self-control, especially when his own State very promptly declared for the renomination of the President. His pride and self-esteem met a rebuff which could not fail to humiliate and irritate. From that time matters ran on rapidly toward a separation. All this is treated with a firm yet delicate touch by Mr. Hart, with fulness enough to make the attitude of the men sufficiently clear without belittling either of them by making too much of their differences. Justice is also done to Mr. Lincoln's characteristic magnanimity in the appointment of Mr. Chase to be Chief Justice. True loftiness of soul was shown in his superiority to all considerations but those of patriotism, and a sincere desire to place at the head of the Supreme Court a man who should combine a statesman's breadth of view with solid judicial ability.

The country soon found the benefit of this in being saved from the shame of making political differences about policy the ground of impeaching and removing a President. The partisans of impeachment were swift to claim to be the party of the Union, while they were only the most excited faction of it, and they began the denunciation of Chase as a renegade from party. To be above party in doing his judicial duty should have been, on the other hand, a new claim to honor.

When the legal-tender cases came before the court, the Chief Justice was forced to consider the constitutional validity of a law which, as Secretary of the Treasury, he had himself supported. The truth seems to be that his original opinion as Secretary had been adverse to making Treasury notes a legal tender. But, in the straits for money to carry on the war and in the face of the danger of destruction to the public credit, he was persuaded that the legal-tender act was the most promising measure for relief, and it was passed with his approval. The exigency of a great war for national existence was the only excuse for it. When all the departments of the government had proclaimed the end of the war and the restoration of peace, this exercise of war power continued with little prospect of repeal. Some of the leading politicians of the dominant party advocated even the substitution of the greenbacks for the funded debt of the country. Cases brought by private citizens were pending in the Supreme Court in which the decision necessarily involved the question of the constitutionality of the law when passed, its applicability to contracts previously made, and its continuing validity after peace had been officially declared.

It is safe to say that, as a statesman, the Chief Justice believed that Congress should have acted by making provision for the resumption of specie payments. This would have disposed of the most troublesome practical questions, and the court would have felt justified in avoiding the constitutional question by postponing decision till resumption should have solved the whole difficulty. Not only was no resumption then provided for, though the court delayed decision for a year, but the current seemed running toward the terrible dangers of fiat money. In these circumstances, studying the subject in the light of his experience as finance minister and of its historical development, Chief Justice Chase was convinced that he had erred in thinking the legal-tender law a necessity during the war. He believed that it had, in fact, been of no benefit in upholding the credit of the country, and had demonstrably failed in that which had been supposed to be its peculiar virtue, viz., the prevention of the depreciation of the Treasury notes as currency. The measure had proved a mistake in fact. But the ground on which it had been defended was its necessity as a war measure for the national safety—not its supposed or imagined, or asserted, necessity, but its real necessity. Its constitutional support was found, by the judges who upheld the measure, in the war powers of the Government given by the fundamental law to do those things necessary for carrying on the war.

Mr. Hart seems to go too far in saying that the opinion of the Chief Justice in the Hepburn and Griswold case was "practically a legal defence for a change of mind which was founded really on financial and political considerations" (p. 394). The discussions of the consultation room had divided the court on the question of the necessity of the legal-tender act as a war measure. The judges were agreed that if it was unnecessary, it was unsupported by the war powers granted by the Constitution. On the question of the necessity, the experience of the Chief Justice as Secretary and the study he had given to the finances of the country made his opinion outweigh that of his colleagues. The intimation that it was weakened by his change of mind was only an argument *ad hominem*, which made it necessary for him to give reasons for the change. This he did not only with dignity, but with an avoidance of personal treatment that is remarkable.

The practical sense of intelligent laymen in close contact with the business community seized on the overturning of contract obligations as the fatal vice of the law. An editorial in the *Nation* of December 9, 1869 (before the decision by the court) may be taken as a fair index of such enlightened mercantile opinion, which great courts have often received as a good basis of mercantile law. Of the law itself it said: "It was undoubtedly a measure of injustice and spoliation, justifiable in the minds of the public by the supposed invincible necessities of war." It referred to the principle "that a contract is to be interpreted according to the intentions of the parties making it," recognized as fundamental law by every intelligent business man. Under this self-evident rule, it was declared to be indisputable, first, that contracts to pay money made before the passage of the act were contracts to pay coin; second, that, after the law passed, such contracts were intended to be in currency as defined by the law, unless the parties specified coin; third, that a system based only on the "invincible necessities of war" ought to terminate at the official declaration of peace, and *a fortiori* when the court of last resort should remove the asserted foundation upon the necessities of war. A reasonable consensus of the business community in such principles of action would remove all the practical difficulties, and save the assertion of the repellent doctrine that wanton destruction of the obligation of contracts is at the discretion of Congress.

The dangerous tendency of the doctrines held by the majority of the court on the rehearing was shown more plainly in Justice Bradley's concurring opinion than in the official one. He took the extraordinary ground that as the prohibition to the States to make anything but coin a legal tender was accompanied by no express prohibition on the Federal Government in the Constitution, "it must have been expected that it would issue them" (p. 407). This was, too, in the face of the declaration of the

Constitution itself against any such loose implication of powers, in the face of the fact that the inviolability of contracts was destroyed in the same fell swoop, and in the face of the strongest repudiation by the Constitutional Convention itself of the whole odious doctrine of paper legal tender. Ten days before this reversing decision, the *Nation* had published (April 21, 1870) a correspondent's full quotation from Elliot's Debates, of the warm expression of the Convention in this regard, and its decisive vote. In sharpest contrast to the words and the act of the Convention, Justice Bradley declared the making of Treasury notes a legal tender a merely "incidental power" following "almost as a matter of course" from the power to issue such notes at all (p. 407)! The power to make fiat money could hardly be more explicitly declared. Judicious men grieved over such revolutionary doctrine. Respect for the Chief Justice's sounder reasoning does not diminish with time and reflection. He did not swerve from the righteous judgment that the right of private property, like that of life and liberty, underlies the whole Constitution.

Although there was no party issue involved in this question, it became such by the subsequent drift of events, and Judge Chase was charged with abandoning the cause for which he had fought and labored as few others had done. The accusation itself tended to estrange him from old associates; and when he dallied with the idea of accepting a Democratic nomination for the Presidency upon his platform of universal freedom, suffrage, and amnesty, a retroactive hostility to him led many old friends to condemn a whole life of conduct based on patriotism, on deep study of republican institutions, and a wise judgment as to governmental guidance of affairs in a terrible crisis. He yielded somewhat to impatience at tendencies in the impeachment, in the dominant reconstruction policy, and in the greenback craze, and hurried into antagonism when it might have been wiser to await the clarifying process of political fermentation. He was alive to motives of personal ambition when he felt sure that he had the capacity and saw the way to guide affairs by a better standard, and ambition is most apt to be misleading. But as the gap widens between our time and his, the dominant purpose of his life comes into better perspective, the defects in his career seem comparatively trivial, and we recognize in him a great character and a patriot.

Literary Reminiscences. By Édouard Grenier. Translated from the French by Mrs. Abel Ram. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

French Portraits: Being Appreciations of the Writers of Young France. By Vance Thompson. Boston: Badger & Co. 1900.

To have lived as a privileged literary satellite, revolving in turn around most of the great luminaries of French Romanticism, constitutes a fair title to attention, even though the borrowed light gives out no dazzling glow. In the anecdotic recollections of M. Édouard Grenier, the brilliant array of creators and critics from Béranger to Sainte-Beuve, whose achievement relieves the dulness of one reign and conceals the corruption of another, finds a faithful veteran admirer. We are told (p. 110) that "the present generation knows nothing about heroes and hero-worship"; in which remark we trust there lurks neither sarcasm nor irony. But many of us are yet capable of enjoying "belated confessions," innocent of malice or guile, and candid in their simplicity. There is some pleasure also in seeing justice done to men misrepresented by unsympathetic critics, or even through their own perverseness. Mérimée, for instance, is here presented as a charming companion, as the most considerate and obliging of friends. "The Parisian," says M. Grenier (p. 150), "is a thousand times better than he wishes to seem." Few men, indeed, are capable of such delicacy as Mérimée showed proof of, on hearing of the public communication of his outspoken pamphlet on Stendhal and the simultaneous smudging of his last private copy. Good service is also done in these memoirs by the demolishing of fanciful legends, as in the case of Heine. Gautier, carried away by his romantic imagination, gave to the German poet the face of a Greek god; and Mr. Stigand, a most partial biographer, refused to admit any serious blemishes in the character or conduct of his hero. But M. Grenier, who looked on Heine with the eyes of a man of the world and a diplomatist, saw in him "a good northern bourgeois, with a slight German accent." We discover, too, that Heine's boasted bilingualism was something of a myth, his celebrated articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* having invariably undergone correction from more competent hands; for which assistance, it would seem, adequate recognition was not commonly given, as M. Grenier found to his cost.

Of the latter's accuracy, in so far as his own recollections are concerned, there seems to be no doubt; but he occasionally goes astray in dealing with writers out of his more immediate ken. Lammenais, he says, "after he had forsaken the sanctuary, wrote 'Paroles d'un Croyant'" (p. 10). Now, this little volume followed immediately upon Lammenais's formal submission to the Church, and was intended by him as a definitive explanation of that act; but, seeing that the bull *Singulari nos* promptly condemned his work in the words, *Mole quidem exiguum, pravitate tamen ingentem*, all further connection with Rome became impossible for him thenceforth. In the case of Lamartine, George Sand, Montalembert, Nodier, the author's intimacy, having been closer, supplied the material for faithful, though not strikingly vivid, portraits. According to his own admissions, M. Grenier's lifelong devotion to literature manifested itself in early youth in the somewhat singular freak of composing letters or dedicatory verses to almost every one of these celebrities, none of which reached their destination, for the timidity of the writer invariably held them back at the very mouth of the post-box. Fortunately for him, the future offered opportunities for regular introductions. Such acquaintanceships must help to console one for the damper of being talked of for many years as a "candidat perpétuel" for the Academy. Want of success, however, leaves no real bitterness in these recollections by a genuinely modest survivor of the days in which it was still thought meet for the lesser man to own his lawful lords. Readers unacquainted with the original chapters in the *Revue Bleue* will find in the present translation no inadequate substitute.

Mr. Vance Thompson, writing of to-day, belongs in almost every particular in a very different category. He has been preserved, he says, for many years "from the sin of inutile reading." In what respect this abstention can serve such "appreciations" as his profess to be, is primarily, not exclusively, his own concern. But a timely refreshing of one's memory of trite scraps or quotations —nay, the mere consulting of a dictionary— is not ordinarily deemed a hindrance to accurate literary work. The veriest "village-schoolmaster" critic, sneeringly girded at in his preface, might tell him that "gossip with *Pym* and Pistol" is neither simultaneously possible, nor profitable; and any schoolboy can point out the hackneyed phrase aimed at, but missed, in the futile barbarism of *et id omnes* (p. 66). Any one who assumes what Mr. Thompson seems to imply in the description of Georges Eekhoud as "semi-paganus," might surely have discovered for himself that Persius, in that expression, referred possibly to his own rustic surroundings, possibly to the *Paganalia*, or festivals taken part in by common dwellers in a *pagus*. Excusable though these slips may be, what warrant have we of the soundness of a critic's knowledge when we find him capable of writing *pointe du départ* (p. 51) in a work on French literature? And Walt Whitman, for whom boundless admiration is here professed, did not glory in a "*barbarous* yawp" (p. 115). This insecurity of touch increases as the themes recede the farther from easy grasp. "The ideographic hand is that of Mallarmé, but the voice is that of Beau Tibbs" (p. 226). Reading not altogether "inutile" teaches that Beau Tibbs is Goldsmith's conception of a shabby second-rate buck, while M. Robert de Montesquiou, the subject of this sarcasm, is, according to his critic, a "gentleman." The 'Tristia' doubtless suggests a variety of impressions to readers of Ovid; did any one before now ever discover that in this poem the exile "sang like a nightingale" (p. 51)?

The essays composing this volume deal after their own fashion with the leaders in the now well-known symbolist and decadent movements, together with the chief writers of young Belgium, all more or less anti-academic, and not disinclined to carry the spirit of opposition into the sphere of such practical institutions as government, conventional morality, and society. These men, as the critic says in terms of his own invention, from being "improbable," have become "accomplices in the bright glory of France"; their names are Verlaine, Mallarmé, Maeterlinck, Verhaeren, Mendès (the last Parnassien), *et id omnes*, as Mr. Thompson will have it. Adopting for the most part their doctrine and practice of cultivating the new and bizarre, without reference to standards except by way of dissent, Mr. Thompson, like many other transplanted and only half-initiated critics, disposes summarily of traditions in regard to French prose and verse. For him, the old versification is "merely cadenced and T-square prose [p. 100] . . . Just as Poe created modern French prose, Whitman recreated modern French verse [p. 103]." It is true that in declaiming the verses of "Grisélidis" Mme. Bartet, through occasional elisions of the mute *e*, demonstrated the possibility of recognizing more fully the value of the rhythmical accent in French versification of the

traditional type; the practice of the Comédie-Française also shows signs of modification; but it is much too soon to speak of *recreation*. More striking still are the facts that many of the "vers-libristes" are foreigners, and that their most uncompromising admirers are likewise of exotic origin. It is generally such extraction that leads a critic to curl the lip at "Théodore de Banville's *treaty* of versification" (p. 107). For every literary language possesses an inherent sound-quality, to the composite formation of which many elements have contributed, and which from this very complexity rarely reveals its subtler secrets to any but natives. They, even in revolt, never fail sooner or later to pay their tribute to this inflexible law. Not to speak of Richepin's 'Prière de l'Athée,' we need but glance over the following verses of Adolphe Retté, quoted by Mr. Thompson:

"Je m'arme; soulevé contre les sots moroses
Qui radotent de règle ou de lois qu'on impose,
Je sonne la révolte et je brandis l'Idée
Pour la libre bataille et la libre épopée!"

A revolt so mild as this the conservative may contemplate with equanimity. He may receive in like spirit the cryptic utterances of Mallarmé, as interpreted by the author of 'French Portraits.' Mr. Thompson offers an elucidation (p. 20) of the sonnet

"Surgi de la croupe et du bond
D'une verrerie éphémère," etc.,

of which the verses are undeniably sonorous and sweet; but the unabashed Philistine, after hearing that "Mr. Sharp is quite abroad and Mr. Moore halts" in their respective explanations of symbolism, will probably reply to Mr. Thompson's version, "Comment! c'est tout?" If a poet has so little at bottom to disclose, why so needlessly obscure on the surface? But Mallarmé, with his profoundly artistic sense, doubtless had something more elusive to tell, for the perfect comprehension of which specific habits of thought must be requisite, since no two scholia ever coincide.

It is pleasant to turn from the jaunty hastiness that marks such "appreciations," wherein it is casually declared that we are weary of serious critics and sick of fluent impressionism, to the capital marginal sketches, the real portraits, from which we can obtain some faithful presentment of at least the outside of a most interesting group of contemporary French authors.

History of Education. By Levi Seeley. American Book Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 343.

Montaigne: The Education of Children. Selected, translated, and annotated by L. E. Rector. Appleton. 1899. 8vo, pp. 191.

Common Sense in Education and Teaching. By P. A. Barnett. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 321.

We hear in certain quarters praise too unstinted of modern school-books and methods of teaching. Such self-adulation is not wholesome; and there is another side to the question. Turn over a fair sample of the old school-books and compare them with ours, and see if what we are about to remark is not true. Take Priscian's Latin Grammar and compare it with the latest new-fangled English grammar; take the 'Summulæ' of Petrus Hispanus, as compared with Miss Jones's 'Elements of Logic'; take the 'Colloquia' of Erasmus, as compared with Sauveur's 'Entretiens'; take Cataldi's Arithmetic, or even Recorde's 'Ground of Artes,' as compared with Dunton's 'Arithmetic in Primary Schools' or Rickoff's 'Numbers Applied'; take Euclid's Elements as compared with Smith's 'Introductory Modern Geometry.' We are naming rather superior modern books, and not the very best of the old ones; yet the impression any cultivated man will get from the comparison is, if we mistake not, that of a certain intellectual and spiritual meagreness in the new treatises. We need not go back several centuries; there were books in use fifty years ago that had a certain atmosphere of the mountains—Peirce's Geometry, Whateley's Logic, Reid's 'Intellectual Powers,' 'Philosophy in Sport Made Science in Earnest,' Stöckhardt's 'School of Chemistry,' Agassiz and Gould's 'Principles of Zoölogy,' Guizot's 'History of Civilization in France,' etc. We do not say there has not been great improvement, but it is not pure improvement. The old books were written by large men of rich spiritual culture and superabundant learning: the new ones are written by professional "educators" trained to a most mechanical understanding of some Herbartian system of pedagogics. It is enough to enter a modern school-room and see how these systems are applied, with the very minimum of genuine reflection and good sense on the part of the teacher, to understand at once why it is that the rising generation produce upon men now in the afternoon of life such an impression of feebleness.

The 'History of Education,' before us, written by an eminent professor of pedagogy, certainly displays considerable ability of such a kind as it is. That it is filled with such remarks as that the inductive method was "a great educational discovery" of Francis Bacon, that Bacon's 'Novum Organum' "revolutionized science," and the like, is too trifling a fault to be dwelt upon. But the manner in which the matter is prepared for the student, so that with no effort of thought he can gather skeleton generalizations of history, as clean of all food for further thought as they possibly could be picked, illustrates well the vice of modern pedagogical perfection. At the end of each chapter is a little summary of the lessons of history, drawn up in the form of a numbered list of items, each forming a little paragraph. Thus, under Charlemagne, we have:

"5. He believed in the education of women."

This is, no doubt, a fact to be remembered; but when the student is thus incited to cut it out of the historic picture, we fear he will lose the perspective that is the very essence of historical knowledge.

Dr. Rector has made a little book of the passages in Montaigne about bringing up children, to which he adds a most un-Montaigne-like elaborate topical analysis, a critical introduction ending with a list of twenty-one items of modern educational ideas found in Montaigne, and two very full indexes. The translation is rather free. It conveys the general sense, and in some degree the general air of Montaigne. The following is the shortest passage we light upon to illustrate this:

"Quant aux facultez naturelles qui sont en moy, dequoy c'est icy l'essay, je les sens flechir sous la charge; mes conceptions et mon jugement ne marchent qu'à tastons, chancelant, bronchant et chopant; et quand je suis allé le plus avant que je puis, si ne me suis-je aucunement satisfaict: Je voy encore du païs au de là: mais d'une veüe trouble, et en nuage, que je ne puis demesler."

This is Englished thus:

"Concerning my natural faculties, of which you behold an example, I perceive them to be indifferent. My fancy and my judgment march in an uncertain way—as it were, groping, staggering, and stumbling. And when I have gone as far as I can I have in no way satisfied myself. The further I sail the more land I descry, and that so dimmed with fogs and overcast with clouds my sight is weakened."

It is very refreshing to see a ray of common sense—that perfect wit which is perfectly true (contrary to Landor's dictum)—thrown by Mr. Barnett upon the pedagogic nonsense of the day. Not that we would subscribe to every opinion put forth. We incline to think, for example, that Mr. Barnett himself hardly understands the true purport of Herbart's four or (by the common reckoning) five formal steps in teaching much better than those whom he justly accuses of making too much fuss about them in their practice. If these steps are founded on psychological laws, they will always be present, whether we design to have them there or not. Take, for instance, a proposition of Euclid. The first step, that of Preparation, is found in the preceding propositions. The second step, of Presentation, appears in the general enunciation, followed by the construction and the application of the enunciation to that construction. The third step, Comparison, follows when the subsidiary lines are drawn and the different parts of the figure are considered, with the result for the construction. The fourth step, Abstraction, is taken when it is considered that the like would be true of any similar construction, so that the proposition may be stated in general terms. But the theorem is certainly not yet understood unless the pupil is able now to take for himself the fifth step, that of practical Application. Nor is the assimilation complete even then. A sixth step is requisite which we need not define. In short, there is a good deal in the book that might be improved; but, being a product of real observation and reflection, and not of a mere turning of the crank of a system, it is well worth reading. The very style of it makes us feel that we are out of the stifling air of the pedagogic school.

The Life and Letters of Lewis Carroll (Rev. C. L. Dodgson). By Stuart Dodgson Collingwood, B.A. The Century Co. 1899.

The Story of Lewis Carroll. Told for Young People by the Real Alice in Wonderland, Miss Isa Bowman. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1900.

When the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' died two years ago, his admirers, on whom the sun never sets, were interested in hearing something of his personality. This had been successfully hidden behind his pen-name, not so much as the result of extraordinary efforts to conceal it as because there was not, after all, a great deal of it to conceal. We learned from the fugitive notices of the time that Lewis Carroll was really the Rev. Charles Lutwidge Dodgson, a Christ Church don and mathematical lecturer, and that his amiable life passed uneventfully in the exercise of an exquisite kindness and a slender mathematical talent. These facts, once known, fell back

into proper subordination to the only important fact connected with him—that he produced a masterpiece and one or two worthy successors of it. In these circumstances it would seem to most people that no permanent record of his private life was necessary. His nephew, Mr. Collingwood, has, however, furnished one, characterized rather by pious admiration than by a sense of proportion. Mr. Dodgson's acts of private kindness, his penchant for little girls, his indifference to little boys, his jests which were the life of the common-room, his objection to profane language, his method of making tea, his interest in the drama and in amateur photography, are chronicled with the affectionate and garrulous particularity generally associated with books printed for private circulation. The luminous nature of the biographer's literary comments may be illustrated by the following hint to the readers of 'Hiawatha's Photographing,' to which the author prefixed the words, "In an age of imitation I can claim no special merit for this slight attempt at doing what is known to be so easy." "It is not every one who has read this note," says the shrewd Mr. Collingwood, "who has observed that it is really in the same metre as the poem below it."

If the motive of this biographer was a somewhat naïf affection, Miss Bowman's was, we fear, of an even more personal character. It is well known that Alice Liddon, afterwards Mrs. Reginald Hargreaves, the daughter of the dean of Christ Church, was the original of Lewis Carroll's heroine. This fact makes the style of 'The Real Alice' assumed by Miss Bowman on her title-page a matter on which she might well have offered a word of explanation. She was, in point of fact, one of the child-actresses who presented "Alice" on the London stage, and enjoyed, as a result, the friendship and interest of Mr. Dodgson. Her little book contains some unpublished letters and verses of no great value, and is remarkable chiefly for a number of full-page illustrations representing Miss Bowman in various rôles, as well as in her proper character.

A History of the English Poor Law. Vol. iii. From 1834 to the Present Time. Being a Supplementary Volume to 'A History of the English Poor Law,' by Sir George Nicholls. By Thomas Mackay. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

As material for some future scientific history of the English Poor Law during the present century, this book is not without a certain value, for Mr. Mackay has been given access to a number of the unpublished papers of Nassau Senior, and he is thus able to throw a good deal of fresh light on the circumstances attending the passage of the great reform measure of 1834. For the rest, the book furnishes an abstract of subsequent legislation, and of the early reports of the Poor Law Commissioners, accompanied by a running comment, together with interesting though very inadequate chapters on a number of special topics, such as settlement, vagrancy, the education of pauper children, and the like. It is too limited in its range, too vague in its information, too unbalanced in its judgment to be the authoritative treatise for which we are waiting.

Mr. Mackay belongs to the severest school of poor-relief restrictionists; even Nicholls and Babbage are not thorough-going enough for him. Any form of relief by the state he regards as an "anachronism"; he has a limitless faith in "the absorbent power of the economic system based on exchange." Even the experience of the Guardians in Whitechapel and some other East London "unions," who have abolished out-door relief by working in concert with the Charity Organization Society, has no lesson for him; he thinks that the Guardians can carry out "sound principles" without any such assistance, and he evidently believes that the Charity Organization Society has made a fundamental mistake in furnishing any direct relief from its own funds. Though he informs us that he was born seventy years after Nicholls, he is blessed by a self-confidence which would have been quite in keeping with an earlier epoch, and he does not hesitate to settle off-hand the problem of value in its relation to cost of production without any weak regard to the economists. How profound is his general culture may be judged from the fond imagination that his doctrine of the non-intervention of the state in the economic sphere is in harmony with "the Hegelian principle of liberty."

All this is a great pity. It not only disqualifies Mr. Mackay from writing objective history, but it prevents the lessons of 1834 from receiving the attention they well deserve. Fortunately, the cause which he has at heart is in abler and more prudent hands. Neither Mr. Bosanquet nor Mr. Loch supposes that he will commend his opposition to old-age pensions by falling foul of the factory acts.

What the purely scientific observer of English conditions and the English reformer alike want just now is an unbiassed survey of the actual situation, district by district. Perhaps this is a task which transcends the power of one man; it may need to be intrusted to a band of investigators like the Assistant Commissioners who did such admirable work in 1832-4. We want to know to what extent private charity has intervened to prevent grave hardships in districts where the "workhouse test" has been rigidly applied. And, above all, we want some material whereon to found an opinion upon this point: Whether, given the sort of people who are likely to become Guardians, it is reasonable to expect the majority of them ever to be converted to the abolition of out-door relief. If not, that is a consideration for practical men to reckon with.

Homes and Haunts of the Pilgrim Fathers. By Alexander Mackennal, D.D. With colored frontispiece and ninety-three illustrations from original drawings and photographs by Charles Whymper. London: The Religious Tract Society; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1899. Pp. 200.

"The purpose of this book," as frankly stated in its preface, "is to present to the reader—by means of a series of carefully planned illustrations—buildings, places, objects, and portraits in England and Holland indubitably associated with the Pilgrim Fathers." As such, it has very decided merits. Gainsborough, Scrooby, Austerfield, the Standish Country, Boston, Cambridge, Wisbech, Southampton, Plymouth and the cities of Holland, have all yielded their harvest to the illustrator, and his subjects have been well chosen. No attempt has been made to depict scenes on this side of the Atlantic. The frontispiece, a view of Scrooby, is an excellent specimen of color-printing, while wash-drawings, pen-and-ink sketches, and photographs are well reproduced by "process" throughout the work. One naturally turns for comparison, however, to the volume by Mr. William H. Bartlett entitled 'The Pilgrim Fathers,' published forty-six years earlier than the work now under consideration, in which much the same scenes are depicted. As one glances over its steel-engravings and wood-cuts when fresh from an examination of the more recent volume, the first thought is that of the great change in illustration which half a century has wrought; and the second is the query whether, even if truth may have been the gainer, sentiment has not lost something of the charm of the earlier representations. The later volume is doubtless the more faithful, the earlier the more poetic.

The illustrations are accompanied by an attractively written, gossipy, descriptive letterpress, largely from the pens of Dr. Mackennal and of the artist, Mr. Whymper. It is a real addition to the value of the book. Some of Dr. Mackennal's observations are of decided interest to the American explorer of Pilgrim England. Speaking of the Scrooby-Austerfield region, he remarks of its modern inhabitants:

"The men whose haunts we come seeking are forgotten. Their emigration was so thorough that no tradition of them lingers in the place which once knew them so well. What calls itself tradition is the new play of a somewhat sluggish fancy. American visitors arrive in numbers every year; and from their questions and their talk fragments of story are picked up which the villager tries to associate with the familiar objects about him, but not with much success. He calls these modern Americans 'the Pilgrims'; he is very vague about the difference between the martyrs of Mary's reign and the persecuted in the times of Elizabeth. The exodus has been complete."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Kipling Note-Book. M. F. Mansfield & A. Wessels. Vols. VII. and VIII.
Atkinson, Prof. G. F. Lessons in Botany. Henry Holt & Co.
Balzac's Letters to Madame Hanska. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co. $1.50.
Bancroft, F. Life of William Henry Seward. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Brontë, Charlotte. The Professor. (Haworth Ed.) Harpers.
Churchill, Prof. G. B. Richard the Third up to Shakespeare. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Cook's Literary and Historical Map of London. London: Thomas Cook & Son. 2s.
Cornford, L. C. Robert Louis Stevenson. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Davis, G. B. Elements of International Law. Harpers.
Dickens, C. The Old Curiosity Shop. Martin Chuzzlewit. [New Century Library.] Thomas Nelson & Sons. Vols. IV. & V.
Flowerdew, H. The Realist: A Modern Romance. John Lane. $1.50.
Frederici, G. Indianer und Anglo-Amerikaner. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Friedman, I. K. Poor People: A Novel. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Gollancz, I. The Works of Shakespeare. [The Larger Temple Shakspeare.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vols. VII. & VIII.
Harrison, Eveleen. Home Nursing. Macmillan. $1.
Hauptmann, G. Die Versunkene Glocke. Henry Holt & Co. 80c.
Heckethorn, C. W. London: Souvenirs. A Wessels Co. $2.
Hickson, Mrs. M. Concerning Teddy. A. Wessels Co. $1.25.
Hornung, E. W. The Boss of Taroomba. Scribners. 75c.
Hurll, Estelle M. Michelangelo. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Johnson, S. Rasselas. Cassells. 10c.
Keller, G. Kleider Machen Leute. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Lamb and Hazlitt: Further Letters and Records Hitherto Unpublished. Edited by W. C. Hazlitt. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Love, W. D. Samson Occom and the Christian Indians of New England. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.50.
Maclure, D. Kennedy of Glenhaugh. The Mershon Co. $1.

Magruder, Julia. A Manifest Destiny. Harpers. $1.25.
Malory, Sir T. Le Morte Darthur. 2 vols. [Library of English Classics.] Macmillan. $3.
Mann, R. The Prelude and the Play. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Mann, Rev. C. H. Psychiasis: Healing through the Soul. Boston: Massachusetts New-Church Union. 35c.
Marlin, Jane. Reminiscences of Morris Steinert. Putnams. $2.
Masayoshi, Count M. Report on the Adoption of the Gold Standard in Japan. Tokio: The Government Press.
Mather, F. Modern Fish Culture in Fresh and Salt Water. New York: Forest & Stream Pub. Co. $2.
Merrick, E. M. With a Palette in Eastern Palaces. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Meyers, R. C. V. The Colonel's Christmas Morning. Philadelphia: Franklin Book Co. $1.
Miles, E. H. How to Prepare Essays, Lectures, Articles, Books, Speeches and Letters. London: Rivingtons. 6s.
Miller, J. Chants for the Boer. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co.
Miller, Sara. Under the Eagle's Wing. Philadelphia: The Jewish Pub. Soc. of America.
Molière's L'Avare. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Moore, C. The Northwest under Three Flags. 1635-1796. Harpers. $2.50.
Morris, C. Man and His Ancestor: A Study in Evolution. Macmillan. $1.25.
Nettleton, A. B. Trusts or Competition? Chicago: The Leon Pub. Co. $1.
Newman, Rev. A. H. A Manual of Church History. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society. Vol. I.
O'Neil, Rev. J. L. Was Savonarola Really Excommunicated? An Inquiry. Boston: Marlier, Callanan & Co. 75c.
Painter, Prof. E. V. N. A History of English Literature. Boston: Sibley & Decker. $1.40.
Peck, H. T. Greystone and Porphyry: Poems. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Phillpotts, Eden. Lying Prophets: A Novel. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Prior, E. S. A History of Gothic Art in England. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $10.
Richter, V. von. Organic Chemistry, or Chemistry of the Carbon Compounds. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. Vol. II. $3.
Ridge, W. P. Outside the Radius. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Riggs, Rev. J. S. A History of the Jewish People. Scribners. $1.25.
Roberts, I. P. The Farmstead: The Making of the Rural Home and the Lay-out of the Farm. Macmillan. $1.50.
Robinson, R. E. A Danvis Pioneer. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Schmid, M. Klinger. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Schopenhauer, A. The Will in Nature. New York: Peter Eckler. 50c.
Shakespeare, W. King John. [Chiswick Ed.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 35c.
Sheehan, Rev. P. A. My New Curate. Boston: Marlier, Callanan & Co.
Skeat, W. W. Malay Magic: Being an Introduction to the Folklore and Popular Religion of the Malay Peninsula. Macmillan. $6.50.
Spalding, Bishop J. L. Opportunity, and Other Essays and Addresses. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Spearman, F. H. The Nerve of Foley, and Other Railroad Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Spielmann, M. H. John Ruskin: A Sketch of his Life, his Work, and his Opinions; with Personal Reminiscences. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Stevens, Rev. G. B. The Messages of Paul. Scribners. $1.25.
Stickney, A. The Transvaal Outlook. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Storey, M. Charles Sumner. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sweet, H. The Practical Study of Languages: A Guide for Teachers and Learners. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Taylor, M. I. The Cardinal's Musketeer. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Tefft, Rev. L. B. Institutes of Moral Philosophy. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society.
The Domestic Blunders of Women. By a Mere Man. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
The International Geography. By Seventy Authors. Edited by H. R. Mill. Appletons. $3.50.
Tolstoy, L. The Resurrection. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Vos, B. J. Materials for German Conversation. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Waliszewski, K. Littérature Russe. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Waterbury, Jennie B. A New Race Diplomatist. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 22, 1900.

The Week.

The most striking feature of the Porto Rico imbroglio is the fact that the moral issue involved appeals most strongly to the people of what we have always called the West—that great stretch of country between the Alleghanies and the Rockies, full as it is of life, eager to make money, enthusiasitc over material prospects, so busy that one might think it had not time to bother over a mere question of right or wrong. Yet it is this very section which has been most deeply stirred by the new issue in our politics, which is most impatient of the excuses and pleas for injustice that are put forth, which is most insistent that the nation shall treat its new possessions with justice, whatever the cost. The Puritan conscience may not find expression when the Maine Senators speak, as it did when Representative Littlefield was heard from, but what we have always known as the New England spirit is now shown to pervade that great Western region which is coming to dominate the United States. The best hope for the republic is the proof now afforded that moral issues are still potent with the American people.

The Senate on Friday finally reconciled itself to passing the $2,000,000 appropriation for the relief of Porto Rico. When the tariff bill was before the House, Chairman Cannon of the Appropriations Committee insisted that it must be passed, or $2,000,000 must be given in charity, to which latter policy the Republicans were opposed. Within three days after passing the tariff bill which was to render unnecessary a relief bill, the House voted the $2,000,000 appropriation. The Senate has now agreed to this grant, and thus removed all excuse for making the tariff bill a law. But the Senate champions of the protected interests are still trying to save the discredited measure. The question is simply whether they will yield to the popular demand for free trade, or obey the orders which were recently issued by the New York *Press*, organ of the protected interests, in these words:

> "The Porto Rico tariff is a protective measure, passed by the House and favorably reported in the Senate upon the demand of protected industries. It is going to stand as long as the Republican party is in power, whether two years or twenty. It is silly as well as cowardly for those who call themselves Republicans to lie about the matter."

In a private letter allowed to be given to the public last week, Dr. Schurman declares himself for free trade with Porto Rico as a matter of moral obligation, and the only way in which we can keep the promise made by Gen. Miles, in behalf of the United States, when he secured the easy submission of the people by pledging that they should enjoy the same rights, privileges, and immunities as our own people. But the most important part of President Schurman's letter is that in which he takes up the pretence that a tariff must be put on Porto Rico in order to provide a case for the courts and test our rights in the Philippines. The President of the Philippine Commission admits that our legislation about Porto Rico must be a test, and a test before the eyes of the Filipinos, but it will be in their eyes a test of our national good faith. Spain made such promises to the Filipinos as we have made to the Porto Ricans. Dr. Schurman says that the Filipinos keep well informed of all our doings, and if we break our word to the Porto Ricans, they will believe that the Americans are no more trustworthy than the Spaniards. The Senators who are standing out for a Porto Rican tariff are thus, to quote President Schurman, "strengthening the hands of Aguinaldo and the insurgents."

President Schurman made some interesting remarks at the banquet to the navy given by the Colonial Club on Thursday evening. He paid a deserved tribute to the integrity, manliness, and sense of honor exhibited by the naval officers at Manila after the destruction of the Spanish fleet and the capture of that place last year. Duties of civil administration were thrown upon them necessarily, and these were performed by them in the most exemplary manner. Not a stain was found on their record from first to last. From Dewey down to the youngest subaltern, all performed their tasks with fidelity. It was incumbent on the speaker to give effect to this honorable example by applying it to the future administration of the islands. "To this high standard," he said, "the *civil* administration has been foreordained and called by the anterior achievements of the navy." Called, indeed, it has been, but not foreordained. We should be glad to think that there was some invisible but omnipotent force working for civil-service reform in the Philippines more effectively than in the United States, so that when a number of offices are wanted—to control a nominating convention, in Ohio for example—the civil-service debauchery necessary for the purpose shall be confined strictly to ourselves, and not find any reflection or counterpart in our colonies. But we can see no element of foreordination in the case which promises better government in the Philippines, where our civil servants would not be exposed to constant observation and criticism, than in the United States, where they are subjected to daily scrutiny.

As the war in South Africa is apparently nearing its term, the Associated Press correspondent in Manila starts up to remind us that we have a war of our own. Our Philippine war began seven months before the Boer war, and we wager that President McKinley would give an elegantly bound copy of his car-platform speeches to any man who would guarantee him that the fighting in Luzon would be over in seven months' time after it has ceased in the Transvaal. Just when Lord Roberts is having the happiest kind of time in Bloemfontein, receiving the surrender and the allegiance of the Free Staters, Gen. Otis reports that Manila, after American occupancy for nineteen months, is "the most troublesome centre in the situation." Now why is this? Why must we hear of "active rebel organization" in several provinces? Why have we to learn of the municipal presidents, under our rule, committing acts of "treason and perfidy"? What is implied in the assertion that "travel between the towns garrisoned by the Americans is becoming more dangerous"? One might say that this is "anarchy," did he not remember that the wise and good men who took the islands did it precisely to prevent anarchy. Therefore, it cannot be anarchy, but what it is we wish some good Imperialist authority would explain. No pessimist need mutter, no Mugwump sneer, no "little American" peep; but just let a vociferous patriot of the order of the screaming eagle get up and tell us about the present situation in the Philippines—just what it means, how he likes it, and how long this sort of thing is going to last.

Secretary Root's statement to the editor of the Havana *Discusión* that the term of American intervention will be brief, cannot fail to have a good effect even upon those Cubans who desire the immediate departure of the American troops and government. Similarly, his reported statement that the Cubans "will be fit to govern themselves after a proper experience," will do much to smooth Gen. Wood's way, and to counteract any uneasiness which the visit of the Senate sub-committee on Cuba may cause in Cuban circles. These three Senators, it is stated, are to see for themselves whether the Cubans are fit for self-government, and it is extremely unfortunate that their departure should give rise to press statements that an unfavorable report from them may mean a change in

the Administration's declared policy of granting absolute independence to the island. As long as such rumors as these are afloat, and as long as such a man as Mr. Richard Olney openly advocates the seizure of Cuba without regard to the nation's solemn pledge to it of freedom, it is impossible to expect the Cubans to be in anything else than a restless and excited condition. Nor does the spectacle of the President's wabbling over Porto Rico, or the present split in the Republican party, give them much confidence in the statesmen in whose hands their fate lies.

Secretary Long's order for the creation of a navy general staff, or permanent strategic board, is another evidence of a willingness on the part of army and navy men to accept European ideas and methods, which was wholly lacking a few years ago. The value of such a supreme board has been recognized in Europe for many years past, and was thoroughly demonstrated in our own conflict with Spain. It is natural, therefore, that it should be instituted in time of peace, with a view to its being all the better prepared in time of war; and the appointment to it of the chief intelligence officers and the heads of the Naval War College will lead to the board's being supplied with the latest foreign and tactical knowledge. It is not unreasonable to expect that a similar board may grow out of Secretary Root's excellent plan for an Army War College, and there should be the closest connection between the two. From the purely military point of view, the two services have reason to be pleased with these evidences that some of the lessons of the Spanish war are being taken to heart.

There are many interesting and novel features in Representative McClellan's bill for the reorganization of the army. If it provides for the much-needed general staff by the consolidation of the Adjutants-General, the Inspectors-General, and the Record and Pension Office, it fails, on the other hand, to amalgamate the existing supply departments with the line, and adds still another staff body, to be known as the Equipment Corps, to those already in existence. It merges the Signal Corps with the Engineers, and the Ordnance Department with the Artillery, and then increases both bodies, giving to the fortress and light artillery 21,500 of the 63,143 combatant troops provided. Should the bill become a law, the cavalry would consist of fifteen regiments instead of the existing ten, and the infantry of sixty battalions instead of the seventy-five now organized. Still another novel feature of the bill is a proposition to "territorialize" and popularize the different regiments by having them draw regularly upon a fixed territory for their recruits and remounts, as is the custom in the English army. Furthermore, Mr. McClellan's measure provides for the automatic expansion of the army to 150,000 men, on the outbreak of war. This fact alone should insure its receiving a careful hearing and close study in Congress, apart from the reputation of Mr. McClellan as a thorough and scientific student of military affairs.

Some days ago the abandonment, for the present session, of the ship-subsidy bill was announced from Washington. The news is confirmed by the Philadelphia *Ledger*, whose Washington correspondent quotes a member of the committee on merchant marine as saying:

> "I know that a number of members who favor the bill would vote against it if it were to be pressed to a vote this session. No matter how fair and just the pending measure may be, nor how much some members from the West may be in favor of building up our foreign commerce, there is a strong feeling of criticism in some parts of the West since the vote on the Porto Rican tariff bill. The people of Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin are stirred up over the Porto Rican matter, and in a temper to kick on anything else that they do not fully understand or that they may dislike."

The Porto Rican tariff bill comes in very opportunely as an excuse for Republican Congressmen who have wanted all the time to kill the bill, but did not know exactly how to accomplish that object. There have been plenty of votes to defeat it, or any subsidy bill; but certain members who wished to do so were wearing the yoke of Mark Hanna, and they did not see exactly how to cast it off. Their opposition took the form of amendments here and there, and of delays in bringing up the consideration of the measure. It was the kind of opposition which is always the most dangerous—an opposition which makes use of any weapon that comes handy to stab the hated thing to the vitals. The Porto Rican tariff is such a weapon. But, even without it, the subsidy bill would have failed this time.

In connection with the statement that the subsidy bill will not pass at this session of Congress, the *Ledger* publishes, in deadly parallel, two deliverances of opposite character from Mr. Charles H. Cramp, the great Philadelphia shipbuilder. One of these is a very fresh statement (fresh in more ways than one), from Mr. Cramp, saying that "the cost of building merchant ships is from 15 to 25 per cent. higher in this country than in other countries, and it will remain so as long as the present restricted demand for merchant ships continues in the United States." This is dated March 13, 1900. The other is from an article from Mr. Cramp's pen in the *North American Review* in 1892. In this article Mr. Cramp puts to himself the question: "Can you build a ship to do the work of the *City of New York*, or the *Majestic*, or the *Columbia* for the same cost, *i. e.*, the same as the cost of those ships?" Then he continues:

> "To that question I would reply, 'Yes, or within as small a margin as would be likely to prevail in a similar case between any two British shipyards.' . . . The 'first cost' of ships is not only not a prime factor, but it is not even a serious factor, in any competition that may occur between this country and Great Britain for a share of the traffic of the ocean."

Now it is not pretended that the cost of ship-building has risen here relatively more than in Great Britain since 1892. There has been an advance in iron and some other materials, but not more here than there. In fact, we are able to export steel to Great Britain now. We could not do so eight years ago. Mr. Cramp evidently had the prophet's vision enabling him to foresee this condition of things, since, in the concluding paragraph of his article, he expressed the belief that within a few years Englishmen would be asking each other: "Can we build ships as economically as they can in the United States?" Which of these two Cramps ought Mark Hanna to put confidence in?

Every such movement as that of the Gold Democrats of Indianapolis toward some other resource than McKinley and Bryan in next fall's election is to be welcomed. It is, of course, too early to take any definite action, but it is not too soon for those who want something better than a choice of evils in November to hold conferences. The feeling of disgust with McKinley has gained greatly in force since he "changed his mind" about "our plain duty" as a nation to Porto Rico, at the demand of the protected interests. On the other hand, Bryan still seems an intolerable alternative to Independent voters who feel that they cannot help the President to a reëlection. Between now and midsummer it ought to be possible to secure a candidate and a platform worthy of enthusiastic support.

The chief part of the platform adopted by the Nebraska Democrats, Mr. Bryan being present, on Monday, relates to what is commonly called Imperialism, and here, contrary to our expectation, we find an explicit demand that the Philippine Islands be first provided with a stable form of government; second, that they be made independent; and third, that their independence be guaranteed by the United States, under a protectorate similar to that which we have tacitly afforded to the republics of South and Central America hitherto. As incidental to this programme, it is declared that the American Union cannot long endure half republic and half empire; that wars should not be undertaken for conquest and for colonial dominion; that militarism is a danger to republican insti-

tutions, and that the United States should cultivate peace, commerce, and friendship with all nations, and entangling alliances with none. The fact that Porto Rico is a part of the United States seems to be recognized, and the tariff bill lately passed by the House of Representatives is condemned as a violation of the Constitution and a flagrant breach of good faith. These declarations are free from ambiguity, and would undoubtedly attract to the Democratic party the great majority of the Anti-Imperialists if they were not deterred by other considerations. On the currency question the platform demands "an American financial system," "secured by the free and unlimited coinage of gold and silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1," without international aid.

A bill providing for a written contract of marriage, instead of the verbal one now recognized as valid by the law of New York, has passed the Assembly, with little opposition. Contracts of marriage pursuant to the rules of a religious society to which either party belongs, as well as those before magistrates, are recognized as valid; but where the religious ceremony does not take place, both parties must sign a written contract, stating their place of residence and the date and place of marriage, which instrument must be acknowledged like a deed, and filed in the proper office within six months. The introducer of the bill defended it chiefly as a measure intended to protect wealthy bachelors, while living, against the blackmailing devices of adventuresses, and to guard their estates against similar attacks after they had died. It is also defended as a protection to women who may suppose themselves to be married according to the common law, but find they are mistaken. Incidentally there may be some relief from the dangers to real-estate titles from claims of dower-right on the part of "common-law wives," which in such a city as New York are a serious matter. Probably even here there are few women, even among the most ignorant classes, who do not regard religious sanction as essential to marriage, so that the requirement of a written contract is not likely to work injustice.

The development of the machinists' strike in Chicago will be regarded with much uneasiness throughout the country. People have not yet forgotten the terrible scenes of 1894, following the Pullman strike; and in some respects the conditions now are worse than they were then. According to all accounts, the government of Chicago is unable or unwilling to deal with ordinary crime, and, should any considerable outbreak of violence occur, little reliance could be placed on the police force. As to what may be expected from the State authorities, Gov. Tanner has already made his record. He has declared his determination to employ the forces of the State of Illinois in support of men defying the law, and has said that he would shoot to pieces men coming into the State to do the work which men already there refused to perform. This precedent shows that the strikers need not fear that the troops of the State will be used to protect those against whom their violence may be directed. In 1894 the President of the United States was Mr. Cleveland, and every one knows how he dealt with the situation. When it became apparent that the local authorities were not going to suppress the rioting, Mr. Cleveland promptly used the Federal forces and put an end to it off-hand. We doubt if the country feels confident that Mr. McKinley will act with such vigor. He is supposed to be very anxious for a re-election, and it might be fatal to his hopes to offend the "labor vote" by using Federal troops to put down rioters.

As "an experiment in Christian journalism," the Rev. Charles M. Sheldon's transformation of the Topeka *Capital*, for one week only, proves absolutely nothing that was not known before. It was known that excellent men could do silly things. It was no secret that people would, for a time, run curiously after a novelty, however labelled. Mr. Sheldon announced that the one test applied to everything admitted to his paper would be, "What would Jesus do?" This is, to our minds, a form of that sacred profanity in which good people sometimes indulge without seeing how it cheapens and degrades a holy name. One effect of the announcement was to bring this pointed question from an old subscriber, who objected to the price of the paper being more than doubled for the sake of the experiment: "If Jesus were to assume the management of the *Capital*, do you think he would put up the price on us like that the very first dash out of the box?" As far as "sales" go, it is clear that a newspaper edited for a week under the avowed auspices of the Devil would dispose of as many copies as the large number which, in the case of the *Capital*, seems so extraordinary a phenomenon to some innocent minds. Let Mr. Sheldon give us a Christian daily newspaper, not for a week, but for a year or five years; let him sell it on its merits, not by flashy methods of artificial bidding for favor; and then let him at the end exhibit his moral and financial balance-sheet. Under those conditions, some conclusions of value could be drawn. At present, the only clear inference is that a nine days' wonder may have the character of a religious sensation. But we knew that before.

It is an interesting coincidence that on the very day on which the gold standard was formally adopted by the United States, the German Reichstag adopted the coinage bill which is intended to reduce the dangers of the "limping standard" by converting the unused silver in the Treasury into subsidiary coins. The quantity of silver thus held has been so large as to be felt as a menace ever since the sale of it was stopped in 1879 by Bismarck. At that time there were some 450,000,000 marks in thalers and 420,000,000 marks in other silver coins on hand, and, a few years after, the silver money of the Empire stood to the gold money in the ratio of three to two. The law now passed provides for calling in the gold five-mark piece and some other minor coins, and for the issue of subsidiary silver coins up to fifteen marks per head of the population. It is one more stage in the process of discontinuing the use of silver as a standard of value. The bimetallists opposed it, and tried to amend it so that the Government should be obliged to buy silver bullion for minting into the new coins, as our Government was compelled to do by the act of 1890; but they were beaten by 161 to 61 votes. Had our free-silver party had its way, the German Government would have been able to unload its superfluous silver on our people; but, that possibility having been extinguished, there is nothing better for it to do than to use as much of its stock as the German people need for small change, and hoard the rest, or sell it for what it will bring.

Lord Roberts's formal occupation of Bloemfontein is evidently intended as the formal annexation of the Orange Free State to the British crown. That there is at least a faction of the burghers to whom this result will not be unwelcome, is clear from the reception of the British troops. It is to be remembered that the Free State did, in fact, long before these latter-day troubles, make official application to the British Government to be annexed. If the Free Staters still believe, as did their fathers, that their rights and the equality of the white races will be preserved under the British flag, their resistance will not be prolonged. It was a generous instinct of race sympathy which led them to cast in their lot with the Transvaal. Mr. Balfour called it an "idiotic" thing to do; but ties of blood and common aspirations lead men to do many things undreamed of in the philosophy of the abstract political philosopher. We can but think it a pity that Lord Salisbury, in his necessary rejection of President Krüger's terms, did not see fit to indicate the conditions of peace he would accept, including a general outline of the government intended for the two republics in the future. A little far-sighted and generous statesmanship now might save many lives.

HOLE-AND-CORNER IMPERIALISM.

It would take an extraordinarily optimistic Republican Macbeth to see in the events at Washington

"——happy prologues to the swelling act
Of the imperial theme."

If this is the prologue of imperialism, the Republican party may well exclaim, what will the fifth act be, and how many of us will be left on the stage when the final curtain is rung down? Never was there such a lamentable descent from the heights of imperial rhetoric to the mire of imperial fact as the Republicans have executed in their attempts to legislate for Porto Rico. That island is but a tiny speck in the ocean. The problems connected with its government are but kindergarten exercises compared with the difficulties which loom before us in Cuba and the Philippines. Yet our glib and gleeful imperialists cannot take this first easy step in carrying out their jaunty policy without treading on each other's toes, barking each other's shins, and quarrelling like a set of ward politicians, instead of being the large-minded statesmen they would have us believe them. Imperialism has been hailed as the great unifier and inspirer of the Republican party. It has proved to be about as much of a howling success, in that respect, as would be a bone flung among a pack of wolves.

The reason is not far to seek. An imperial policy requires imperial men. If a great empire goes ill with little minds, it cannot go at all with minds that reach their vanishing-point in a pocketbook. Little minds in agreement may among them muster the small amount of wisdom necessary to govern; but little minds distracted, little minds engaged in big quarrels, can scarcely trick the most simple into supposing that they are the fit guardians and administrators of empire. What we are seeing at Washington is the effort of parochial toads to swell themselves into imperial oxen. An ominous sound of bursting is the natural result. Where is there a sign of yielding petty local interests to the good of the whole? What Senator, in the face of imperial obligations, abates one jot of the old selfish determination to secure or retain special advantages for his State, even if he wrecks the whole pending measure and tears the party in two? We have carefully watched for the predicted appearance of the new, the noble, the large imperial spirit in imperial legislation, but we have not seen it. What we have seen is the old narrowness intensified, the former local greed become more exigent and defiant than ever. The imperialism now on exhibition at Washington is a thing of shreds and patches. Instead of an eagle, flying in the eye of the sun, the Republican party has taken for its imperial symbol the humble dunghill fowl, mounted aloft to change with every gust of the changing wind.

It is a sure instinct which leads disgusted Republicans to fix the greater part of the blame for their unhappy plight upon the President. Vacillating leadership means a rent and dissevered following. Mr. McKinley can execute his rightabouts with the ease of long practice, but his army necessarily straggles in the operation. Lord Charles Beresford once neatly returned a left-handed compliment. A trimming politician was congratulating him on a recent speech—"Capital speech, that of yours, Beresford—very good speech, indeed—but you don't look like a statesman." "I dare say not," replied the bluff sailor, "but no more do you look like a weather-cock." President McKinley looks like a statesman, but this Porto Rican episode has left it for ever certain that he is the merest weather-vane of a leader, pointing north by south.

Everybody knows that the strongest gales which blow over the White House, revealing to anxious observers the direction of the wind, come from the cave of that political Æolus, Senator Hanna. He has to raise the wind, and is necessarily the great authority on it. Unusual significance attaches, therefore, to his explanation of the strange veering of the wind in the Porto Rico affair. He roundly declares that all the outcry about free trade for the Porto Ricans is merely "sentimental." Can any man look on Hanna and suspect him of sentiment? Keeping our promises, relieving the starving, doing what we have declared to be our plain duty—all this, to Hanna, is mere mawkish sentiment, and he will none of it. It will all blow over and be forgotten, he asserts; while, if he can show any protected interest that he has helped it make larger profits, if he can go to a Trust and prove that he has put money in its purse, he knows that he has established a sure basis for gratitude, and so for campaign contributions, and so for success at the polls. That is his frankly mercenary platform; and it remains to be seen if the party of moral ideas will put itself into the hands of a man who sneers at good faith and humanity as "sentimental," and who sums up politics as the art of buying votes.

The appeal now lies to imperialists to be truly imperial. They have freely taunted their opponents with being parochial—little Americans, unable to see beyond their own noses. But who are the parochial statesmen now? Who is now "shrinking from responsibilities"? Why, even Lodge is shivering at his own greatness, and treating the large question of government of our new possessions as if it were an intrigue to carry a caucus in the third ward of Lynn. So we say to our erstwhile loud-sounding imperialists that it is time for them to come out of their holes and caucuses and make their boasts good. Having foisted an empire upon the country, let them stand up like men and insist that its affairs be conducted in a truly imperial way; so as to bind our new fellow-citizens to us, not drive them to despair and revolt. Thus far the imperialism of action, as distinguished from the imperialism of talk, has shown itself at Washington to be of the most wretched description—nothing but the whiffle-and-squeak methods which we have been accustomed to in ward politics, but which so ill become the stage of empire.

NEW MEN IN PUBLIC LIFE.

In Sir Richard Temple's recent and rather dull book on the House of Commons occurs this expression of opinion: "Of all advantages in the House, the greatest is youth." By this is not meant that Parliament puts a premium upon conceited ignorance or callow bumptiousness. What Sir Richard had in mind is the fact that a member who begins young is more apt to make a great figure in the House, in time, than one who begins late in life. Mr. John Morley entered Parliament in middle life and shortly won a high reputation, which he still enjoys; but he is about the only instance of the kind we can think of. Mr. Lecky has been a member of the present House, but is evidently ill at ease in his surroundings; and, while respected on all hands, will clearly never acquire great Parliamentary influence.

Youth in public life has, however, more than the mere advantage of elasticity and ready adaptability. An expectant and benevolent audience is assured it. The older generation of legislators and the community at large turn with almost pathetic eagerness to the new men who appear upon the scene. Will they uphold the honorable tradition? Will they bring fresh courage and enthusiasm, as well as ability, to their task? Any young public servant who shows signs of answering these questions in the affirmative, has an enormous advantage in his career. The country and his fellows in service are drawn to him from the start. Look, for example, at the prestige won in the House of Commons by Mr. George Wyndham. Almost unknown before the present session, except as a clever writer and a charming personality, he has stepped at once into the front rank. As Under-Secretary for War, his speeches on military matters have been marked by such grasp of detail and lucidity of exposition, by such a high personal note and unaffected eloquence, that he has conquered all judgments and captivated all hearts. The older members almost wept tears of joy over him, and Sir William Harcourt nearly sang his *nunc dimittis* at the appearance of a young man promising to uphold the noble traditions of the House. It was a

signal instance of the way in which the world looks to youth for perpetual renovation.

Congress is not behind Parliament in this perennial renewal of hope in young members. Senator Depew could not quite understand why his maiden speech should have fallen flat while Senator Beveridge's went reverberating. The New York Senator was suffering from the disadvantage of *anno domini*. It was the youth from Indiana, not the veteran from New York, that the Senate and the country were interested in. Senator Hoar spoke for all in welcoming young blood and "silver speech" in the Senate; though, in his moral castigation which followed, it might have seemed that his welcome was "with bloody hands to hospitable grave." But all the old Senators, we know, were most friendly to the new arrival. One of them was talking the other day about Mr. Beveridge. The trouble was, not his youth, but his conceit. He had coolly asked to be put on all the important committees of the Senate. "Well, the Senate is a good place to take the conceit out of a man?" "Yes, but if that is all there is in him, the operation is likely to be fatal." This cynical word was not meant, however, to be taken as all that was to be said about the new Senator.

At the other end of the Capitol, the session has seen a new man leap into national prominence. Some of the old stagers cannot account for Mr. Littlefield. Seldom, indeed, has such impact been made on the House and on the country by a man in his first term. It is admitted, too, that his influence and repute are not likely to be ephemeral. He has made for himself a great place, and can fill it as long as he likes, and make it greater. It is a puzzle to the party hacks. Have they served and slaved for years to have this newcomer throw them into the shade? They fail to see how courage and conviction and good-natured strength have not lost their power to sway the country. The people are not yet discouraged by party tyranny and the dead uniformity of party men. Still springs the hope that the old moulds will be broken; that public men of original force will arise; that independence and the initiative of native leadership will assert themselves. Hence the joyful acclaim which marks the advent of every able and fearless man like Mr. Littlefield, every honest and outspoken official like Mr. Coler. The public is eager to be served by, and will delight to honor, such men. In the very weariness which the country has come to feel with the dead routine of party politics and with the endlessly repeated and uninteresting type of party servant, lies the opportunity of young men who would breathe the breath of life into the dry bones of our public life. They may be sure of public favor from the beginning; and it is for their talent and character to command public coöperation, and such rewards as a grateful people can bestow upon the man who renews the age-long hope of purity and capacity in the affairs of the commonwealth.

SECRETARY ROOT'S ARMY BILL.

The bill drawn by Secretary Root to put into legislative shape some of the sweeping army reforms advocated by him in his annual report, carries with it several radical changes in the status of the officers of the line and staff, and in the organization of the artillery. Briefly stated, its important provisions provide for the amalgamation of the line and the staff corps; for the introduction of the principle of promotion partly by selection, instead of wholly by seniority; and for the reorganization of the artillery after the English example, together with its increase by 5,000 men and 184 officers.

To the other officers of the service, mindful of decades of fruitless efforts to obtain intelligent legislation for the army, the preparation of any measure to recast the service on modern lines must be a source of great encouragement such as they have never before experienced. That it should be drawn by a Secretary who, eight months ago, had no knowledge of military affairs, is a tribute to his unusual ability as well as to his desire to master the problems of his department, and to reform some of the conditions which brought discredit upon the army and the country during the little war with Spain. Both the Secretary's inexperience and the well-known conservatism of army men have led to unusually careful consideration of the measure, and it is greatly to be regretted that it contains certain defects which have made the army as unanimous in opposition to it as it is in favor of the underlying principles involved.

The advisability of doing away with nearly all the permanent staff corps is generally conceded by military men and military writers. The only criticisms of the plan now heard come from some of the present staff officers, who are anxious to retain the prestige and influence of their corps, or who sincerely believe that officers temporarily detailed to their duty for four years will not be able to master the details within that time—a criticism which holds good in regard to the very technical Ordnance Corps. Were Secretary Root's bill confined to this reform, with the Ordnance Department left unchanged, in addition to a recommendation to decrease the number of staff corps by consolidating the Quartermasters and Commissaries, as well as the Adjutants-General and Inspectors-General, the chances are that it would receive the united support of the army. Similarly, if the projected remodelling of the artillery, by doing away with the useless regimental organization of the foot and mounted batteries, stood by itself, as a very desirable administrative measure, it would meet with little or no opposition.

It is the clause that permits some promotions by selection which has called forth a chorus of protests from the army. This provides that every third promotion to the grade of colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and major, respectively, in the line shall be by selection from the next lower grade in the same arm. In each case the choice is to be made by the President from three names prepared by a board of officers, "sworn to impartially select officers for promotion according to their service records." It is the opinion of nine-tenths of the officers of the army, and also that of the leading military journal, that this will simply throw open the line to the same vicious influences which have made the staff corps the resting-place of men selected almost solely because of their "pulls," or their relationship to some Senator or Congressman. It is a long pent-up protest against "Corbinism" which is now being heard, and which prompts an old officer to write that, if the bill passes, it will be "the severest blow to our army ever struck by politicians," and that there is no use in talking about the safeguard of a board, because, as long as the President has the selection, "it will be made by him to satisfy the strongest political influence."

The protestants do not hesitate to admit that promotion by seniority alone has very obvious defects, in that men rapidly lose ambition and zeal when their advancement depends solely upon their continuing in good health. They point out, however, that nothing is more destructive to an officer's enthusiasm for his duty than to see Senator Quay's or Senator Sewell's son jumped over the heads of hundreds of older men, or to serve under brigadier-generals like Frederick Grant, or Irving Hale, or other graduates of West Point given high rank, after years in civil life, over classmates who had stayed in the army. They cite with great force many cases of gross favoritism—such as the appointments direct from civil life of a broken-down editor and a presidential milkman to majorities, which have taken place under the present Administration, and some since Secretary Root has been in office—as evidence of the kind of treatment to be expected from the Executive. They also truthfully point out that similar abuses were not at all unknown under previous Administrations.

Theoretically, the principle of promotion by selection is an excellent idea, but, under present conditions, and because of the additional fact that worthy officers often have most unequal opportunities for meritorious service, it must be conceded that the opponents of the Secretary's plan have by far the best of the argument. "Corbinism" and the spoils

system gravely weakened the Government service when the country was engaged in war. What guarantee can Secretary Root furnish of better things in time of peace? Certainly not the mere swearing-in of promotion boards, because he could be shown at once many cases where physically and mentally disqualified officers have been allowed to pass the present examining boards. Until some better system has been devised, the principle of seniority advancements should be adhered to.

There are still other provisions of questionable value in Secretary Root's bill, such as those increasing the artillery, empowering the President to transfer the duties performed by one staff corps to another, and permitting him to select the chief of any staff corps or department from the army at large—even from the newest lieutenants if he sees fit. It is sufficient to say of them that together they should make it impossible for the bill to pass in its present form. Great as is the desire for the sound reforms proposed, it is better that they should be delayed than that they should be enacted in conjunction with other changes certain to injure the service. The best way would be to submit the important propositions in separate bills for careful discussion as to their merits. If this were done, the amalgamation of the line and staff, and the remodelling of the artillery, would certainly be made possible within a short time.

THE NEW BANK CURRENCY.

There begins this week an experiment in American currency, of peculiar and exceptional interest. The purpose of the bank-circulation clauses of the act of March 14, 1900, unquestionably was to increase substantially our national bank-note issues, while retaining the old system of Government bond security. It is directly to that end that the tax on bank circulation has been cut in half, and the banks permitted to issue notes to the par value of the bonds deposited, against 90 per cent. as heretofore. With the further view of dispelling the reluctance of banks to invest a premium in high-priced bonds which are certain to depreciate as their maturity draws near, the plan of refunding most of the older issues into 2 per cent. bonds has simultaneously been made law. It is assumed that whereas banks providing for new circulation may hesitate to pay the current price of 117 for the 4 per cent. bonds redeemable at par seven years from now, they will be ready to pay for the new 2 per cents the moderate premium to which the bonds would be restricted by their low rate of interest.

This law being now in full operation, three problems of the first importance at once arise to be tested: Will the banks make very large addition to their outstanding note circulation? Will that addition be permanent? And, if so, what will be the result of this currency expansion, directly on the money market, and indirectly on financial and commercial prices? On all these points, competent expert opinion differs widely. It will be useful to examine each of them.

That very considerable additions to the currency will be made, is conceded by everybody. All banks now having bonds on deposit to secure circulation will take out the additional 10 per cent. in notes permitted by the new rule. About $250,000,000 notes are now in circulation; upwards of $27,000,000 new notes will, therefore, be added as a matter of course. The lower tax and easier provisions as to bond collateral will tempt national banks to enlarge their note issues still further, and will possibly induce some State banks to surrender their charters for a national franchise. The lowering of the minimum limit of capital for a national bank will add still other new institutions to the system.

The question, how large the amount of these new issues will be, is stoutly debated. At first sight, the average observer, unfamiliar with the working of the system, would say that, since some profit appears in any case to be assured to the issuing bank, the amount of issues will be limited only by the proviso that they are not to exceed the capital of the issuer. Now the aggregate capital of the national banks is $606,000,000, and will presently be more—which would admit theoretically of an addition of some $350,000,000 to the notes now in circulation. Unfortunately for this argument, the theory has already been tested and proved erroneous. The profit on circulation has always varied with the price of Government bonds, but there has probably never been a time when there was not some profit. Yet even in 1882, when national-bank circulation reached its maximum, and when the volume of interior trade was at the highest level of the generation, outstanding note issues fell short by $100,000,000 of aggregate national-bank capital. The subsequent rapid decrease in circulation accompanied an equal rapid increase in banking capital. The simple explanation of these apparent anomalies is, that bank-notes are not profitable unless they can be kept in outside circulation. The notes are not available as lawful reserve against deposits; yet if they are issued in excess of the needs of hand-to-hand trade, a good part of them will certainly drift back as deposits into banks of the locality, and ultimately into the bank of issue. If they lie idle there, they bring no return to the issuer, but still bear the tax on circulation. There is, therefore, a very sure limit on the amount of issue, though it cannot be accurately measured in advance.

The question as to the influence of expanded bank-note currency on money rates and prices is likely to engage most of the community's attention. Broadly speaking, it is safe to say that the bank-note issues cannot directly influence either. The currency is in effect redeemable in gold; it cannot therefore depreciate, and hence the measure of values remains unaltered. As for the money market, what the borrower secures by his interest payment is the use of capital, and his bank must provide that capital in the form most convenient to the user. The simple loaning of its credit by a bank is in no respect facilitated by a power to issue notes, even if the issuing power were unlimited. Indirectly, however, the notes have a very manifest influence, from the fact that by using them, in place of Government legal-tender paper, to provide for the retail needs of depositors, the bank may be able to retain in its own vaults the Government notes and specie which are required, in the ratio of 25 per cent., as reserve against deposits. A so-called "drain on the reserves," whether from local depositors or from interior institutions with accounts in Eastern banks, necessitates, if long-continued, wholesale reduction of deposits; and this may be accomplished only by reduction of the loan account. Such a curtailment usually means a rise in money rates, followed, it may be, by a fall in speculative prices. The problem of the new bank circulation, therefore, rests on the extent to which, in a season of active demand for loans of credit, the bank-note may be substituted for the Government legal tender in providing for outside hand-to-hand circulation. This is by far the most interesting part of the experiment. The utility of the note in this direction, it may be safely said in advance, will depend on two factors: demand for retail currency which will decide whether any substitution of notes is necessary; and demand for loans, which will settle the question whether legal reserves do or do not need at the moment to be protected against enlarged deposits. Probably the new notes will serve to relieve the money strain at times of extremely active trade; in times of dulness, their influence will for the most part cease.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, March 8, 1900.

M. Claude de Barante has just published the seventh volume of the Souvenirs of his grandfather, Baron de Barante. The voluminous correspondence which appears in this new volume extends over a very interesting period, from 1841 to 1851—that is to say, from the most prosperous period of the reign of Louis Philippe to the eve of the Second Empire. The reader will be chiefly interested in the events which brought about the fall of the July Monarchy, and in the history of the short-lived Republic which took its place.

"Our government," wrote Barante in 1846, "is stronger at home and more respected abroad than it has ever been, but the future does not appear certain. It seems as if we were approaching an unknown horizon." Nobody, however, was prepared for a revolution. On the 29th of February, 1848, Barante writes:

"Paris was for three days and three nights given over to the caprices of the will of several thousand workingmen, who roamed the streets, armed with guns, pikes, and swords. You can imagine the anxiety and terror of the population. The aspect of the city was dreadful. Order is beginning to be reëstablished and people to be reassured—at least, for the present, for the Government has no means of repression. If it had them its situation would hardly allow it to use them. The immense majority of the population with any distinction of opinion, class, or fortune, hurries into the ranks of the national guard. Whatever happens, my political life is finished."

His friend, the Duchess de Sagan, writes to him from Berlin (March 8, 1848): "You cannot imagine how eagerly we seek details on the three days of February. . . . What is unfortunately certain is that it is a downfall without any prestige. . . . The Queen and the Duchess d'Orléans are the only ones, I believe, who inspire interest and esteem. The latter is on the borders of the Rhine, where she will receive the regrets, the attentions, and the affection of everybody." To M. Guizot, Barante writes on the 12th of March:

"I know that you have calm and courage. . . . People are preparing for the elections. Our Conservatives have now no other shibboleth than respect for property. The Legitimists are delighted; their joy is all compounded of revenge, and even dispenses with hope in the chances of the future. If they had to declare themselves as between the Republic and a government that would not be Henri V., they would be Republicans. The dominant sentiment, nearly universal, is *Væ victis*. King, princes, ministers, all are anathematized for having lost the game so completely and so rapidly. The more people have criticised, blamed, attacked them, have worked for their ruin, the more they reproach them with not having sufficiently defended themselves. For instance, M. Thiers and his friends are more furious precisely because the Government has not obtained a victory by which they would have profited. This is, my dear friend, what seventeen years of order, of peace, of liberty, of prosperity, have left, in the way of gratitude, in our unreasonable country. The provinces are in a state of consternation, and very apathetic towards the Republic, which lives only by the extinction of other opinions and by the state of insurrection among the workingmen."

M. Guizot was in London; M. de Barante retired to Auvergne, a quiet province; his correspondents sent him news from all parts of Europe. Princess Lieven wrote to him from London:

"Prince Metternich talks and talks before a very limited audience, . . . having only a few foreigners in the evening. He always talks of himself, and so lengthily and slowly; in fact, he bores everybody. M. Guizot is very busy with his son first, and then with 'Charles I.' He dines out a good deal, for everybody wants to have him. He bores nobody."

The Duchess de Sagan's letters to Barante are very interesting. She has had news from Claremont, and writes: "They say that there are the young princes, who suffer bitterly from their forced inactivity; that this bitterness finds vent in harsh words about their aged father, whom the children reproach with having lost the game. The father is preoccupied with the judgment which posterity will pass on him. The mother is perfectly courageous, mild, resigned, and dignified."

The reaction of the provinces against the Republic increased after the repression of the bloody insurrection of June. The name of Napoleon was in every mouth; though he was almost unknown, he appeared like a saviour. From Tours, the Duke Pasquier wrote to Barante on the 21st of June, 1848:

"The movement in favor of Louis Bonaparte, whom we both had once to sit in judgment on, is increasing in Paris, and people talk only of him in all this neighborhood from which I write. . . . President of the Republic, or Emperor, or King, never mind which, I go for whoever will give us security and confidence; and I well know that there is such a need of these two blessings that they will be gratefully received from any hand that offers them. But it is not enough to be the heir to such a great name; one must be capable of bearing it and of finding people to help him do so. There is the difficulty."

"We need a Washington," wrote Barante to the Count d'Houdetot, "but Washingtons are as rare as Napoleons." Gen. Cavaignac had triumphed over the June insurrection, but "France is not out of the chaos into which the revolution of February threw her. There is no courage left in France except for attacking or defending barricades; there are no opinions, only a desire to preserve one's life and property. Nobody in the Government or in the Assembly will dare to do anything. The Republicans doubt the possibility of the Republic, and are not zealous for its establishment. Those who wish it democratic are so near those who wish it socialistic that they cannot be separated." In another letter Barante says:

"General Cavaignac, whom nobody among honest and sensible people now refuses to trust, is a man of courage and of conscience, sincerely determined to oppose all disorder. But his family surroundings, his political friendships, the way in which he attained to power, all help to give him many prejudices and illusions. He has in his imagination a Republic which is neither red nor socialistic, but would be democratic—that is to say, a republic in which his friends of the *National* [a paper of the time] would remain the aristocrats and the masters."

Cavaignac, after the June insurrection, became, in fact, a sort of military dictator.

"Among the few abiding convictions I have cherished," said the Duke Pasquier to Barante, "is this: These sorts of adventures, said I to myself after the revolution of February, never end otherwise than by the sword. The only port which it is possible to enter is a military despotism. But I added to this *consoling* thought, that we could not flatter ourselves that this refuge would be soon open to us; that perhaps we should have to wait a long time. . . . Well, this happy military despotism, denominated state of siege or dictatorship, as you like, is granted to us in the course of four months! What a benediction! I don't say that the benediction is complete: either the dictator must organize something for his own profit, or he must prepare some more or less analogous solution for the profit of some other power. What will that power be? I don't know; I don't see it, in truth."

We find a pretty letter from the Princess de Sagan:

"I spent a few days at Eisenach with the Duchess d'Orléans. I found her horribly thinner. She is but a shadow—but so calm, so serene, so lucid, so dignified, so strong in the truth on all subjects, so admirable at all points, that I now mix some personal tenderness with all the sentiments which I felt *de reflet* for her. She keeps far aloof from any intrigue; she allows herself no illusions or discouragement; there is in her no bitterness, no passion, no anger. . . . Her establishment is simple but decent. She is surrounded with the most tender care by her maternal family; she leaves all the rest to God. I thought I had remarked in Paris that she had some little tendency to *bel esprit*, and an imagination which might sometimes influence her judgment of persons. But misfortune has cleared and simplified all. She could not have profited better by events. Well, nothing is wanting in this admirable person but physical strength."

All the letters of the Princess de Sagan—and there are many in the volume—have this delicacy of touch, a certain sort of feminine grace; and they show a large acquaintance with the general affairs of Europe, which is often wanting in the letters of the French politicians.

The nomination of Prince Louis Napoleon as President was a surprise to all the politicians and to the Republicans, whose candidate was Gen. Cavaignac. The majority obtained by Prince Napoleon was overwhelming; it was a spontaneous protest of the provinces against the tyranny of Paris. Alexis de Saint-Priest tells in a letter of a dinner at Princess Mathilde's:

"We were all there, and the Prince had not yet appeared. When he arrived, the ladies present, who will soon be the ladies presented, rose all at once. The Princess Mathilde named all of us to him; there were among others Mignet, the Prince de Craon, etc. He met us with a mixture of timidity and of princely laconism. His appearance is ordinary, his face very ugly, and his accent very Swiss. At dinner time, he walked and was served before all the men, including his cousin Murat, with the exception of Lord Normanby. During the first part of the dinner, he did not say much; towards the second part, he began to talk, rather unexpectedly, of his candidacy, of his election. In France, he said, public opinion had never received a direction; it was time it should. This seemed to me rather proud and strong."

This dinner took place a short time before the election.

The end of the seventh volume shows, in numerous letters, the state of mind of the leading politicians during the Presidency of Louis Napoleon. The uncertainty about the future was great. Would Napoleon make a *coup d'état* something like the 18th Brumaire, and proclaim himself Emperor? Would he be content with changes in the Constitution, and with the prolongation of his powers? Was it better for the Conservative leaders of the Assembly to humor the President, to give him some satisfaction, to make war on him, or to trust to the support of Gen. Changarnier, the commander of the army in Paris? Would it be expedient to effect a reconciliation of the two branches of the royal family, and to work boldly for a restoration? Such were the problems of the time, and the correspondence of M. de Barante well exhibits all the doubts, uncertainties, difficulties which kept the political world in a state of ferment.

Correspondence.

THE DECLINE IN TEACHING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial upon the Decline of Teaching ought to arouse very general solicitude throughout the profession; it gives notable emphasis to the condition which some of us have perceived for several years, although, so far as I am aware, stress has not hitherto been laid upon it in any pub-

lic way. Your statement of the facts implies, without directly asserting, both the magnitude of the evil and its causes. Possibly both of these should receive at the proper time and place more extended and exhaustive consideration.

The decline of teaching is found in elementary, secondary, and collegiate schools. In the lower schools it is due to the absurd importance which is given to pseudo-pedagogy. Child study, the new psychology, the curriculum-making craze—in fact, all the prominent aspects of present educational literature and thought—are directed entirely to the mechanics of teaching. They create the belief that teaching will be good and successful if the teacher has only at command a sufficient number of the various nostrums. The tendency of our educational literature, so far as it deals with the lower schools, is to draw the attention of teachers away from the fundamental principles of the profession. These are not to be summarized in any offhand way, but they deal with questions of character and aptitude on the part of the teacher; with regard to the student, they are absolutely centred on questions of discipline, using the term in its broad and true meaning.

The American teacher who receives occasionally in his classes a young American boy, trained in the average German and French school, never fails to observe the wonderful neatness of his work, the care and method in its preparation, and his absolute grasp of those topics which he assumes to know. The average American boy from the average American school shows all the vices which are the reverse of those virtues. Yet educational experts continue to search in the organization and mechanics of the French and German schools for the cause of their superiority over ours!

In the upper schools—high schools and colleges—the evil which has brought about the decline of teaching is an entirely different one. There is no evidence that the pseudo-pedagogy has won any hold on these men, except as subjects for wise admonitions to elementary teachers. The evil here is that original research has been confounded with true teaching. Original research is an independent profession, worthy of all honor and respect, but its processes are not in any essential or fundamental way those of education. We can never bring back to our colleges the nobler ideals of character and culture until we separate them from an ideal which is purely that of a trade or profession. We should have a very analogous confusion if our lawyers were to contend that education consisted in mastering the process and methods of the law. In so far as our colleges are converted into workshops where "the bounds of knowledge" are widened, their real and greater function becomes restricted if not forgotten.

FREDERICK WHITTON.

MICHIGAN MILITARY ACADEMY,
ORCHARD LAKE, March 12, 1900.

THE RANGE OF ANIMAL FOLK-LORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like, with your permission, to reply to a few of the criticisms on my 'Animal and Plant Lore' contained in the *Nation* of March 8. The reviewer objects to the fact that citations are not made of the persons who are authorities for the various superstitions collected in the book. The reason why such references were not given is because, in a very large number of instances, it would have been wholly impossible to make them sufficiently definite to be valuable. An immense number of the superstitions collected were gathered from house servants and other people whose residence in any one spot during their adult life, was often measured by months rather than by years, and for whom it would be as impossible to give a permanent address as it would for a flying-squirrel or a robin. In other cases the information was communicated to me by careful observers and collectors, in very many instances members of the Folk-Lore Society, who did not give, with the items which they communicated, the exact addresses of the persons from whom the matter was obtained by them. In all such instances it would have put my correspondents to much additional trouble to give names and addresses of the persons from whom the matter was obtained. In an exceedingly large number of cases the material had been collected from people not now living, and a goodly proportion of my own collections consists of matter which was current in my childhood in the mouths of people long since deceased.

Another explanation is perhaps due, namely, as regards the statements made concerning the geographical range of the superstitions cited. Where a belief was recorded as being current in one or more specific localities, it was because the author had definite knowledge of its occurrence just there. Where the expression "General in the United States" was used, it not infrequently occurred that twenty, thirty, or more informants had communicated to me the same item from localities ranging all the way, perhaps, from New England to California; or, in other instances, correspondents who had travelled widely in the United States assured me that they had met these beliefs in most portions of the country which they had visited. In all instances where the distribution of a given belief seemed to be pretty extensive, but I was not sure of its occurrence in more than from four to ten somewhat widely separated States, I qualified the statement of its distribution by saying, "Somewhat general in the United States," or "Central States," etc., etc., as the case might be.

Very truly yours, FANNY D. BERGEN.

47 RAYMOND ST., NORTH CAMBRIDGE, MASS.,
March 12, 1900.

COMMERCIAL COURSES AT MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct an error in your announcement of the so-called "commercial courses" at the University of Michigan. I refer to the omission of English from the list of required studies. Since one of the proposed courses is entitled "Preparation for Newspaper Work," the inclusion of English among the requirements has seemed to the faculty to be a matter of some importance. F. N. S.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, March 11, 1900.

"ANOTHER."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By no means satisfactory is the information regarding this common word, in certain of its constructions, which is furnished by the dictionaries.

Though its termination is comparatival, yet, primarily, as signifying 'one more,' 'a second,' it denoted addition, and, in the next place, unlikeness, diversity. Only at a relatively late period, that is to say, apparently in the first half of the sixteenth century, when *than* is found subjoined to it, did it take possession of its etymological inheritance.

As a language develops, its old concinnity of idiom, at any given time, is less acutely perceived and less nicely appreciated, by those of whom it is the mother-tongue, than it was by their predecessors. This fundamental linguistic fact is illustrated in the history of the phrase about to be discussed.

Appended to a host of words, *than*, to express comparison, had long been demanded, when, as has been said, our ancestors chose to include *another* in the same category. Owing to the influence of Latin, however, before, so far as has been observed, no more than a generation or two had elapsed, an equivalent of *another than* emerged, namely, *another from*. To this I return farther on.

Of *another from*, a synonym, from the first, of *different from*, it has been the fortune to have, at the bidding of a sense of euphony, a rival, though a feeble one, in *another to*, an expression which lexicographers have strangely slighted. Some quotations for it follow:

"A good Beliefe will now arme well, indeed; but, alas! that's quite *another* thing *to* this confident Audacity." Rev. John Gaule, *Select Cases of Conscience* (1646), p. 145.

"This nightly meditation was clean *another* thing *to* their nightly speculation." *Id.*, *Magastro-mancer* (1652), p. 8.

"In a Word, I am quite *another* Man *to* what I was." Addison (1714), *Spectator*, No. 556.

"She was so perfectly *another* thing *to* what she used to be." Defoe, *Colonel Jack* (1721), p. 206 (ed. 1840).

"Expence incurred in the common way of a man's living is quite *another* thing *to* an extortion of this sort." Frances Burney, *Cecilia* (1782), vol. i, p. 175 (ed. 1809).

"I was quite *another* sort of a thing *to* what I am now." Samuel J. Pratt, *Liberal Opinions* (1775, etc.), vol. iv., p. 83 (ed. 1783).

"She is quite *another* thing *to* what she was two years ago." Isaac Jackman, *All the World's a Stage* (1777), Act i., Scene ii.

"To see a gannet in Faroe is quite *another* thing *to* seeing a gannet on the Bass." Sir G. W. Dasent (1864), *Jest and Earnest* (1873), vol. i., p. 82.

"It would be quite *another* dance *to* catching fleas with gloves on." *Id.*, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1873), p. 7 (ed. 1874).

"Quite *another* thing *to* the way," etc. E. A. Freeman (1889), in *Life and Letters* (1895), vol ii., p. 394.

"To be treated in quite *another* way *to* that in which all other wares are treated." C. Kegan Paul, *William Godwin and his Friends* (1876), vol. ii., p. 68.

To return to *another from*, which Dr. Murray considers to be catachrestic, its antiquity and prevalence have escaped due notice. I have collected exemplifications of it from no fewer than forty-four authors. Of these, three belong to the sixteenth century, being Nicholas Udall, Meredith Hanmer, and Sir Philip Sidney; eleven to the seventeenth century, notably the Earl of Monmouth, Henry Hammond, Thomas Fuller, Glanvill, Samuel Pepys, and Henry More; nine to the eighteenth century, such as Dr. Johnson, Thomas Amory, Mrs. Frances Sheridan, Bp. Hurd, and Uvedale

Price, and twenty-one to our own century, among whom are Sydney Smith, Lord Teignmouth, Landor, De Quincey, Christopher Wordsworth, the Duke of Somerset, Cardinal Newman, Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, Matthew Arnold, J. A. Froude, E. A. Freeman, and Sir G. W. Dasent. May not, then, *another from* by and by come to be deemed as correct as *another than?* F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 2, 1900.

P. S.—An error in my letter at p. 90, *ante*, has been kindly pointed out to me. I was mistaken as to the sense in which I supposed T. L. Peacock to use the verb *doubt*.

In p. 127, *ante*, col. 2, line 3 from bottom, read *phantomate* and *phantomation*.

LITERATURE AND FLEAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The aphorism of David Harum—already become famous, and which will probably be long quoted as an Americanism—"A reasonable amount of fleas is good for a dog—they keep him f'm broodin' on bein' a dog"—has light shed on it from an unexpected source, a scientific authority, though it is unlikely that Mr. Westcott ever read the passage on stimuli to energy from Galton's 'Inquiries into Human Faculty,' which I here quote:

"The stimuli may be of any description; the only important matter is that all the faculties should be kept working to prevent their perishing by disuse. If the faculties are few, very simple stimuli will suffice. Even that of fleas will go a long way. A dog is continually scratching himself, and a bird pluming itself, whenever they are not occupied with food, hunting, fighting, or love. In those blank times there is very little for them to attend to besides their varied cutaneous irritations. It is a matter of observation that well washed and combed domestic pets grow dull; they miss the stimulus of fleas. If animals did not prosper through the agency of their insect plagues, it seems probable that their races would long since have been so modified that their bodies should have ceased to afford a pasture-ground for parasites."

As to the range in nature of this benevolent (?) parasitism, Swift's observation is in point, that fleas

"have smaller still to bite 'em;
And so proceed *ad infinitum*."

H. M. STANLEY.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY LIBRARY,
March 12, 1900.

Notes.

Truslove, Hanson & Comba announce 'The Imperial Russian Navy,' by Fred. T. Jane, with more than 150 illustrations; 'Among Horses in Russia,' by M. H. Hayes, with 60 photographic illustrations; and 'From the Alps to the Andes,' the autobiography of Mattias Zurbriggen, Mr. Fitzgerald's companion in the ascent of Aconcagua.

Further announcements by D. Appleton & Co. are 'The Individual: A Study of Life and Death,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'Familiar Fish, and How to Catch Them,' by Eugene McCarthy; and 'The Story of the Alphabet,' by Edward Clodd.

Macmillan Co. will publish immediately 'The Epistles of the New Testament,' rendered into current and popular English by the Rev. Henry Hayman, D.D.; and the second volume of 'Old Testament Theology: The History of Hebrew Religion,' by Prof. Archibald Duff, whose theme is the Deuteronomic Reformation in the seventh century B. C.

From Messrs. Harper we are to have 'The Nicaragua Canal,' by W. E. Simmons; 'Our Presidents and How They are Made,' by Col. A. K. McClure; and 'The Story of the Boers,' an official presentation of their case, with numerous illustrations.

John Lane is about to issue 'Rudyard Kipling and his Work,' by Richard Le Gallienne, with 'Travels in England,' by the same writer; 'The Chronicle of a Cornish Garden,' by Harry Roberts; 'Birds of My Parish,' by E. Pollard; 'The Rhodesians: Sketches of South African Life'; 'Side-Lights on the Reign of Terror,' by Mlle. des Écherolles; 'All about Dogs,' by Charles Henry Lane, illustrated; 'What is Poetry?' by Edmond Holmes; and 'The Professor, and Other Poems,' by Arthur Christopher Benson.

Spring announcements by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. embrace 'The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War,' by John Fiske; 'The *Constitution*, and the Navy under Sail,' by Prof. Ira N. Hollis; 'The *Monitor*, and the Navy under Steam,' by Lieut. F. M. Bennett; 'The *Mayflower* and her Log,' by Dr. Azel Ames; 'A Critical History of the Evolution of Trinitarianism and its Outcome in the New Christology,' by Prof. Levi Leonard Paine; 'The Conception of Immortality,' the Ingersoll lecture for 1899, by Prof. Josiah Royce; 'The Light of Day: Religious Discussions and Criticisms from the Standpoint of a Naturalist,' by John Burroughs; 'Amos: An Essay in Exegesis,' by Prof. H. G. Mitchell; 'The Arts of Life,' by R. R. Bowker; 'Numbers and Losses in the Civil War in America, 1861-65,' by Thomas L. Livermore; 'The Woodpeckers,' by Mrs. Fannie Hardy Eckstrom, illustrated; 'Squirrels and Other Fur-Bearers,' by John Burroughs, and 'A School History of England,' by John N. Larned.

The Harper "Haworth Edition" of the Brontë sisters has reached vol. iv. with 'The Professor.' This posthumous volume, with its working up of material used to so much better advantage in 'Villette,' Mrs. Humphry Ward dismisses with a brief though appreciative preface. We observe that Mrs. Ward's estimate of the genius of Emily Brontë, in 'Wuthering Heights,' has called out remonstrances in England. Appeal has been taken back to Arnold and his "Haworth Churchyard."

Baedeker's 'Canada' ("with Newfoundland and an Excursion to Alaska"), compiled by Mr. Muirhead, who achieved so marked a success with his Baedeker's 'United States,' has just been revised in a second edition (Scribners). The changes for the Dominion at large could not be great, but the rise of the Klondike in importance has necessitated some new pages. No map, however, of this particular region on a sufficient scale has been attempted. This guide-book will commend itself to all tourists.

Our Paris correspondent, some two and a half years ago, reported upon M. Funck-Brentano's authoritative work on 'Legends of the Bastille.' This has now been translated, with Sardou's introduction, by George Maidment (London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners). The author's footnotes have been omitted, while the translator has supplied a few of his own. There is a view of the model of the old prison, and a contemporary portrait of Latude, whose career and escapes form a large part of the narrative. Here, too, the Man with the Iron Mask is unmasked. There is a too brief and unworkmanlike index.

Under the rather inappropriate title, 'The Puritan as a Colonist and Reformer,' Dr. Ezra Hoyt Byington has published a companion volume to his 'Puritan in England and New England' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). It is not, as one might infer, a comparative study of the colonizing ideals and methods of the Puritans, or of their peculiarities as reformers, that the author presents. It is rather a somewhat loosely connected group of essays. Of these, the first two sketch, in happy narrative style, the more salient facts of the history and institutions of the Pilgrim and Puritan colonies of New England, from their settlement to the establishment of the Provincial Charter of Massachusetts. To these essays the author has added three others, treating the life and missionary labors of John Eliot, Jonathan Edwards, and the Great Awakening; and, finally, attempting to estimate Shakspere's relation to the Puritan movement. All are agreeably written, and the essential outlines are skilfully presented; but the concluding paper is hardly germane to the general theme of the rest of the volume, and is its least valuable portion. The book, as a whole, is worthy of cordial commendation.

'Cook's Literary and Historical Map of London' (London: Thomas Cook & Son) is strongly backed and folded in covers for the pocket. It is rendered available by several lists and indexes, as, "Historical and Literary Landmarks," arranged alphabetically by personages—Addison, d'Angoulême, d'Arblay, etc., including Dickens for the houses in which he lived; but a whole section is given to "some places and houses referred to" by him. Relics of Old London, Old Churches, Historical Tablets, Palaces, Railway Stations, Restaurants, etc., are other rubrics; and there is a select list of streets for ready location upon the map.

In an interesting little pamphlet (Paris: Colin), entitled 'De l'Éducation moderne des jeunes filles,' M. Dugard discusses very fairly some of the most striking results produced in many young French girls by the conflict of modern ideas taught in state schools with the reactionary influences of home and social environment. According to him, this disagreement frequently leads towards almost incurable moral vacillation and weakening of character; while, on the other hand, self-assertion tends naturally to convert the youthful enthusiast into a troublesome *frondeuse*. M. Dugard touches but very gingerly on the fact, recently mentioned in more than one official report, that the ranks of social outcasts contain regrettably large numbers of *diplômées*. The remedy suggested in this pamphlet points to more deliberately effective organization of social life, which, by establishing closer relations between parents and teachers, might help to reduce the alleged antagonism of their respective opinions; but there is very little doubt that efforts in this direction would be met with counter-organization by those who deem it their sacred privilege to control and guide the family through the emotions of its women.

As a pendant and complement to 'Victor Hugo, le Poète,' there now appears 'Victor Hugo, le Philosophe,' from the pen of M. Ch.

Renouvier (Paris: Colin). This work, evidently written under the influence of German thought, strives to find a synthetic philosophy in the scattered utterances of the poet on the ultimate questions of life; but, just because of this, it seems to introduce into a mass of incoherent utterances a principle of unity which their author probably never fully grasped. Further, such treatment implies the laying of stress on precisely those productions which are generally admitted to possess the weakest title to durability, namely, "Les Quatre Vents de l'Esprit," "Religion et Religions," "L'Âne," etc. It is perfectly true that Hugo himself gloried in being the expounder of all the general ideas that had won life in his time. Still, there is a great difference between the eloquent expression of vast truths or truisms and the systematic conception of the cosmos as a metaphysical whole. It must be added that the omission of Hugo's nebulous political speculations leaves his alleged philosophy in a state of incompleteness.

The Harvard Cercle Français not only performed an abridgment of Cyrano de Bergerac's comedy, "Le Pédant Joué," last year, but was the cause of the handsome publication of the accommodated text, with an introduction in which was discussed the question whether the play had ever been acted before (Boston: Jean de Pfeiffer). The conclusion was in the negative. The brochure was illustrated with a portrait of Cyrano and a scene from the third act, both from old plates. In like manner, the present month witnesses the production at Harvard of Goethe's "Iphigenie auf Tauris," by the Irving Place Theatre Company of New York, on behalf of a projected Germanic Museum at the University. This has led to a publication of Goethe's text face to face with Miss Anna Swanwick's translation, Prof. Kuno Francke furnishing a brief introduction analyzing the drama. We have thus another permanently valuable volume to mark the progress of the cultivation of modern languages at Harvard.

Those who read Hauptmann's "Die Versunkene Glocke" in the German edition, and recall the difficulty of the peculiar, if graceful, typography superadded to the dialect difficulty, will be glad to secure an edition of the play less comely but more clear just issued by Henry Holt & Co. An introduction, with welcome notes, is furnished by Thomas Stockham Baker of Yale. The prefixed bibliography is noticeably extensive, though not meant to be anything but selective.

'De Goeie Jo,' by G. O. Van Wijk, is a novel of Dutch life in Java. The story possesses little technical perfection; the plot is commonplace, and motives are not very profoundly developed. The work is something of an historical novel—indeed, this characteristic constitutes its chief claim to attention. It is a study of Dutch colonial life and methods of the present century, and the reader is introduced to the many evils of the Dutch system—the illicit trade and other frauds, the insecurity of life and property, the immorality, and the greed of gain which has always distinguished the colonial functionaries of the Dutch; men who were intent only upon the rapid acquirement of wealth and a speedy return to their native land. The different elements of the mixed population, Chinese, Arabs, natives, and half-breeds, are presented as typical characters; and the picture of the misery of the oppressed Javanese graphically supplements the data given in economic and ethnographical works. The novel is, in part, a study of the phenomena attendant upon the contact of two unequally advanced civilizations; the chief character being a half-breed, or sinjo, who displays, as a result of his birth and half-education, the most objectionable characteristics of both his European and his Javanese ancestry. Many of the methods and measures which brought the Dutch system into disrepute and failure, are presented in an interesting way.

The next number of the *American Historical Review* will contain, in its section devoted to "Documents," an interesting journal kept by Moses Austin during a journey from southwestern Virginia to Missouri in the winter of 1796-97. Among the body-articles an especial interest attaches to Prof. E. G. Bourne's paper on the history of the plan developed in 1847-48 for retaining all of Mexico, as a result of the Mexican war; and that of Prof. F. Wells Williams on "The Chinese Immigrants in the Farther East."

Three portraits arrest attention in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March, viz., of the late John C. Ropes, the late Gen. Lawton, and M. Henri de Régnier, the third annual lecturer of the Hyde foundation of the Harvard Cercle Français. Three different but harmonious tributes to Mr. Ropes depict his character truly, while sketches of the career of Gen. Lawton and of the French poet, son-in-law to another French poet—José de Heredia—accompany their effigies also. The dedication of Phillips Brooks House forms part of the University chronicle, and there is the usual summary of President Eliot's annual report.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number one, are upon the Danish Ingolf expedition, which, in 1896, investigated the specific gravity and temperature of the waters of the north Atlantic and its animal and vegetable life; and upon the so-called rising and sinking of the land in Samoa. There is further an account of the Russian Potanin's travels in western China in 1892-93, with a sketch of his eventful life. The census of the white inhabitants of German southwestern Africa shows that the Transvaal Boers number 637 out of a total of 2,872, and that they are decreasing. Maps of the separate districts indicate their settlements.

Paul Heyse, who on the 15th of March passed the line of three-score and ten, writes in the current *Rundschau* with rather striking unreserve about his boyhood years, his parents and relations. These reminiscences, together with those published in five previous instalments (October, 1899-February, 1900), which, chronologically, they ought to precede, are for the most part fascinating reading. Both at Berlin and at Munich, whither the young poet went in 1854 by invitation of King Maximilian, and where his home has been ever since, the literary and social circles in which he moved included many of the celebrities of the day, and what we learn concerning them is not the least interesting part of the reminiscences. There is also many a piece of *Kulturgeschichte* woven into this autobiography, sketches from life in the two capitals during the middle decades of the century. Still, the writer reserves for himself the central position throughout his story, which he carries to his thirty-fourth year (1864), which is well worth telling, and is told in a masterly way.

The change in the entrance requirements at Columbia College, allowing students to enter without Latin and receive their first instruction in the language in the college, suggests the possible transference in the more or less distant future of Latin and Greek from the preparatory schools to the curriculum of the college or university. Not that the present change at Columbia implies any such far-reaching purpose; it simply puts Latin and Greek on a par with French and German, the elements of which have long been taught in our higher institutions. But many other signs, changes actually made or merely suggested or debated, point in the same direction. The shifting of Greek from the gymnasium to the university was some years ago referred to by the eminent classical philologist Prof. Wilamowitz-Möllendorf, as a plan fraught with no serious consequences. Quite recently Prof. Steinmann, the geologist, in a pamphlet 'Über die Ausbildung der Studierenden der Mathematik und Naturwissenschaften für das höhere Lehramt' (Freiburg, 1899), advocates providing instruction in Latin and Greek *in the university* for students not sufficiently prepared in these subjects. And many others, like Prof. Bernheim of Greifswald, are showing an active interest in securing the benefits of university training for advanced and earnest students, even though their secondary instruction has not been along traditional lines.

The University of Grenoble, France, has just issued its prospectus for 1900, concerning the special courses, in the French language, organized there for the benefit of foreign students. The pamphlet is embellished with a view of the city, showing the solidly built quays of the river Isère in the foreground, and the beautiful snow-clad mountains of Dauphiny beyond; and this panorama should add something to the list of more serious inducements drawing students of language to Grenoble. The variety of valuable courses offered, the access to the libraries and museums of art and natural history, the mountaineering, and the famous resorts of many kinds near at hand, the moderate price of living, and many other advantages are dwelt upon. The "Cours de Vacances," or vacation courses, at that town would seem to be highly successful. They were established only two years ago, and are already followed by 110 students. The local "Comité de Patronage des Étudiants Étrangers" may be addressed at No. 4 Place de la Constitution.

The Boston Public Library is putting its lecture-hall to use for free evening courses of a literary, biographical, and bookish nature. Col. Higginson, J. L. Whitney (the present librarian in succession to Mr. Putnam), Lindsay Swift and Worthington C. Ford of the library staff, Rev. Jesse H. Jones, Rev. E. E. Hale, and William Everett are some of the March-April lecturers.

—The Rev. Walter Lloyd has written, and Philip Green, No. 5 Essex Street, London, has published, 'The Story of Protestant Dissent and English Unitarianism,' which, coming to hand almost simultaneously with the death of Dr. Martineau, has a special significance that is purely accidental, but is not to be escaped. For it is known to many that Dr. Martineau had a very tender feeling for the Presbyterian origins

of the English Unitarian churches; and, while he objected to the name Unitarian as designating a sect (though frankly accepting it as expressive of his personal belief), he did not object to the name Presbyterian, contending that it had no doctrinal force, but merely indicated a form of church government. Not many years ago he worked up an elaborate scheme of Presbyterian organization for the Unitarian churches. Others besides Dr. Martineau have made much of the Presbyterian origins of the English Unitarian churches, notably Dr. John James Tayler in his once famous 'Retrospect of the Religious Life of England.' And now comes Mr. Lloyd and explodes this whole business of Presbyterian origins as a myth which has no justification in the history of English dissent. At least he attempts to do so, and he goes over the ground very carefully and makes a good show of arguments for his conclusion. Incidentally, he strips the Presbyterians of the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries of much of the liberal and heretical plumage with which they have been tricked out by Unitarian fancy, and exhibits them as no better (Dr. McGiffert's critics would say "worse") than Independents and Baptists. Baxter's unique position is indicated with nice discrimination; and the famous business of the "open trusts," of which many Unitarians, following Martineau and Tayler, have made a great deal, are proved to have implied no genial welcome to the advancing tide of heretical opinion.

—Mme. Blanc ("Th. Bentzon"), carrying on her mission of explaining the women of America to those of France, has assembled a series of studies of individuals and groups who seem to her typical of the country's development from the colonial period to the present day ('Femmes d'Amérique,' Paris: Colin & Cie.). She has confined herself chiefly to epitomizing a number of well-known memoirs and other documents, so that the book has little fresh matter to offer to American readers save the pleasant statement in various forms of Mme. Blanc's sympathy with our social institutions and temperament. As she has studied her subject on the spot, she falls into few of the errors which usually make the pages of foreign critics unintentionally amusing, but her choice of exemplars would not in every case seem to a native to be happy. If asked to name a typical American actress, we fancy few Americans would think of Anna Cora Mowatt, nor would Margaret Haugherty's career occur to most minds as the best illustration of what American women have accomplished in philanthropy. In general, the book is defective in its treatment of the contemporary situation, probably because it is easier to condense memoirs of the dead than to form independent appreciations of the living. It is written with the lucidity and lightness characteristic of the author's style.

—'The Scottish Jacobites,' by Thomas Newbigging (London: Gay & Bird), is in no sense a proclamation of that singular society, "The Legitimist Jacobite League of Great Britain and Ireland." There are still some persons who decorate the statue of Charles I. at Charing Cross with emblematic flowers on January 30 of every year, and maintain that the de-jure sovereign of England is Mary Theresa Henrietta Dorothea, Archduchess of Austria, Este, Modena, and wife of Prince Louis of Bavaria. They hold that the Hanoverians have no claim to the throne by the divine right of primogeniture, and can show a parliamentary title only. However, with vagaries of this sort Mr. Newbigging does not waste his time. His purpose is to sum up, within the compass of a brief essay, "the characteristic features of the Jacobite movements, their originating causes, and the effects produced by them, and also by the songs and music of the Stuart adherents both at the time of the Risings and afterwards." To his notice of such topics is also added a short account of the Highland campaigns which occurred between the "construed abdication" of James II. and the escape of Prince Charlie after Culloden. The leading motive of the book is a desire to vindicate the valor and sincerity of the clansmen against the slights which have been cast upon them by certain eminent historians, notably by Macaulay. The chapter entitled "Historians on the Jacobite Risings" contains a passing reference to Ray, Home and Burton, but is really an onslaught on Macaulay for his disparaging allusions to the Highlanders and the Highlands. "He employs his brilliant, not to say dazzling, rhetoric to cover with opprobrium the adherents of the Stuarts in their earlier struggles, and present their motives and actions in the worst light. . . . He even goes out of his way to traduce the country of the Highlands, as well as the people." Mr. Newbigging's vindication of Highland scenery from the slights of Macaulay and his authorities, Burt and Goldsmith, is not without interest, but, before approaching the subject of mountain scenery as a whole, he should have made himself somewhat more familiar with the first two essays in Leslie Stephen's 'Playground of Europe.' This sketch of the Jacobites is very short indeed, and finds its justification in the reading habits of an age which demands that the chief facts shall be given it in the smallest compass and with the embellishment of illustrations. Those who are hazy about the difference between Jacobites and Jacobins will at least learn from Mr. Newbigging who the Jacobites were. For the rest, the book derives its chief value from its criticism of Scottish songs. It is beautifully printed, and the numerous portraits which it contains are well reproduced.

—The Baron de Vaux has published, through J. Rothschild, Paris, two luxurious-looking volumes, profusely illustrated, called 'Le Sport en France et à l'Étranger.' The work will no doubt be bought to lie on the centre-tables of many people interested in the subject of which it purports to treat, a good deal as the old Keepsakes and Books of Beauty used to do. But it will not long detain the public of general readers; still less will it appeal as a necessity to those who take their sport seriously. If we search it, for instance, for any account of the development of the taste for out-of-door sports in France, the introduction of contemporary football, baseball, and track games, none will be found. We shall probably get that when the newspaper accounts come over from the Olympian games which that genuine sportsman, founder of French prizes in American universities, Baron de Coubertin, is organizing for the coming Paris Exhibition. A likeness of the Baron, by the way, does not figure in this work, of which the sub-title, "Silhouettes Sportives," describes it best. It is a collection of such light and frothy sketches as appear in the French journals under the form of the *feuilleton*. Each "silhouette" is accompanied by a half-tone portrait. For the list of those included the *Almanach de Gotha* would seem to be the source of authority chiefly consulted, rather than any records of athletic championships. President Félix Faure comes first, then all the emperors and kings of Europe, then many of the very high nobility, and so on, tapering down to persons of both sexes who are really very good at fencing, wrestling, tennis, or riding to the hounds. Even the gentle, serious-minded Queen of Spain is included as an athlete, on the plea that she swims; but it is long since the bathing-beach of San Sebastian has seen this performance, if it ever has. An excuse is found for comprising several very pretty, fashionable women, like the Princess Eulalia, Lady Randolph Churchill, and Lina Thaulow (Mrs. Lind), in virtue of their skating. There is, we think, but one American portrayed in the book, and fortunately he has come out to good advantage. This is Mr. Charles de Kay, in his costume as President of the Berlin Fencing Club, which he founded recently while Consul-General of the United States at the German capital. Some of the tail-pieces in the second volume seem drawn after Bewick.

—The total solar eclipse of the 28th of next May is already well attacked by the astronomers. Sir Norman Lockyer has issued a second edition of his 'Recent and Forthcoming Eclipses' (1893 to 1905); a new edition of Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's 'Total Eclipses of the Sun' is just published by Little, Brown & Co., and two lesser works on eclipses are also offered. The coming eclipse will attract many expeditions to the field, the first to take up its station being the Lowell Expedition, sent out from Amherst, and which is already located at Tripoli in Barbary, in charge of Prof. David P. Todd. Mr. Percival Lowell, now in the south of France, joins the expedition subsequently. Proceeding westward in the order of the regions now chosen, Prof. Turner of Oxford will occupy a station in Algeria; the British Astronomical Association, which did such good work under Mr. Maunder's generalship in India two years ago, will be represented in the neighborhood of Algiers; Sir Norman Lockyer will, as in 1896 and 1898, lead a large party to Alicante, on the east coast of Spain; at Talavera, southwest of Madrid, the amateurs of Cook's tourist party will assemble. Count de la Baume Pluvinel of Paris also will occupy this region, as likewise M. Henri Deslandres of the Observatory of Meudon, Paris; and on the west coast of Portugal, where the duration of totality is the longest of all the land stations, the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, will establish the official party of the Greenwich Observatory. Mr. John Evershed, who achieved very fine results with his battery of spectroscopes in 1898, will again be in the field, attempting to establish himself just within the edge of the shadow path rather than near its centre, and hoping thereby to analyze the light from one of the poles of the sun. Proceeding still farther west, the Atlantic Ocean consumes the best part of the track of this eclipse, which does not again touch land till the vicinity of Norfolk is reached. Thence it passes very nearly southwesterly, the eclipse being total at Raleigh and New Orleans, besides a host of

lesser towns throughout the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. The average length of the total phase in these localities is not far from 1m. 20s., and if skies are kindly the numerous expeditions cannot fail to secure results of high importance, as was the case in the American eclipses of 1869, 1878, and 1889. The Lick, Yerkes, Lowell, Flower, and Chabot Observatories, together with those at Cambridge, Washington, Princeton, Northfield, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, are among the institutions already preparing their outfits for the highly specialized problems of eclipse researches. Weather indications of the past three years point to eastern Alabama and western Georgia as the regions of America least likely to cloud obscurations.

—By the death, in his seventy-fifth year, of Dr. Franz Heinrich Reusch, professor of theology in the University of Bonn, the Old Catholic movement loses one of its most learned supporters. A favorite disciple of Dr. von Döllinger, he was associated with him in the two solid volumes of the 'Geschichte der Moralstreitigkeiten in der römisch-katholischen Kirche'—a history of the development of Probabilism and the laxer moral theology—and soon afterwards (1890) he gathered and edited with loving care the 'Kleinere Schriften' of the elder scholar. It would occupy too much space to enumerate all Reusch's historico-polemical works, on Galileo, Luis de Leon, the Jesuits, etc., but no student of either the literary or religious history of Europe since the Reformation can afford to be without the crowning labor of his life, 'Der Index der verbotenen Bücher,' the two volumes of which appeared in 1883 and 1885. The long, dry catalogues of authors and books contained in the successive prohibitory and expurgatory indexes, when illuminated by Dr. Reusch's boundless store of learning, gathered from all quarters, became a living chronicle of the endless conflict between progress and obscurantism, crowded with curious details and enlivened with interesting episodes. He seems to have left unexplored no source which would throw light on the uses made of religious censorship and its results on the fate of its victims. Of late years Dr. Reusch's pen has been less active, though he has been a frequent contributor to the *Deutsche Merkur*—the mouthpiece of the Old Catholics. He leaves behind him few scholars whose loss will be more sincerely regretted.

A GREAT AMERICAN DIPLOMATIST.

Charles Francis Adams. By his son, Charles Francis Adams. [American Statesmen.] Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1900.

Charles Francis Adams had a brief but extremely satisfactory public career. Excepting a few years in the Massachusetts Legislature, and an unsuccessful candidacy for the vice-presidency on the Free Soil ticket in 1848, his political life covered a period of but thirteen years. It seems still briefer when we think that it was almost entirely concerned with questions closely related to the civil war. Yet no general in the field, no member of the Cabinet, during those years, had harder tasks to perform or performed them more successfully. What was perhaps still rarer, Adams's abilities and usefulness were understood, appreciated, and never seriously brought into question. He was wise in his generation in that he kept a careful and frank diary from youth to old age; and he is fortunate historically, for he has a biographer of such independence, literary skill, and familiarity with the period, that the rich materials ready to his hand have been used to the best advantage, considering the limitations as to space.

The author modestly calls the present volume a sketch; but he takes so comprehensive a view of nearly all the leading questions in the relations between the United States and Great Britain, from 1861 to the time of the settlement of the *Alabama* claims, that the greater part of the book is more like a series of connected diplomatic essays than a biographical narrative. Many illustrations might be given showing how far the author is from being embarrassed by his family relation to his subject. He explains the inconsistency of his father's association with Van Buren on the Free Soil ticket in 1848. He makes it perfectly clear that the first Republican minister to the Court of St. James went abroad with an almost contemptuous opinion of Lincoln and much too high a one of Seward, and that these erroneous estimates were never fully corrected.

Every one familiar with the diplomatic correspondence of the United States in 1861 knows that many angry protests were made against Great Britain for recognizing as early as May 13 that a state of war existed between the Government at Washington and the one then at Montgomery. As a result of his own convictions, no less than of the instructions received from the Department of State, Adams had a large share of responsibility for this attitude. Whether right or wrong, it was necessary, as a warning, to prevent Lord John Russell from yielding to pro-Confederate influences. Our author calls special attention to the fact that it was fortunate for the United States that the proclamation of neutrality was issued so early as to compel Russell to take the defensive and be over-cautious thereafter. It is made evident that if a recognition of belligerency had been postponed until after the first battle of Bull Run, it would then have been accompanied with a recognition of Confederate independence.

Until recently it has been supposed that it was the skilful diplomacy of the Secretary of State that prevented European intervention. This opinion is not shown to have been entirely groundless, but it will have to be very much modified. Mr. Adams does not see all the influences acting upon Seward's mind, yet with great clearness and force he tells us how at three different times, if Seward's suggestions had been followed, a war would probably have been precipitated with Great Britain—which would have meant intervention and an alliance with the Confederacy. In a chapter entitled "Seward's Foreign War Panacea," a very striking contrast is drawn between the wise caution of the Minister to Great Britain and Seward's amazing hallucination, that a foreign war would arouse in the United States a spirit of nationality that would overcome all dangers, foreign and domestic. During the first few months of his secretaryship, Seward was intensely irritated whenever the British Government permitted anything to be done that was at all friendly to the Confederacy; and he had a dangerous tendency to make threatening protests which no haughty government could have received without resentment. On the other hand, Adams saw what was most important, and recorded in his diary these sentences, which disclose the secret of his successes:

"My duty here is, so far as I can do it honestly, to prevent the mutual irritation [between the governments of the United States and of Great Britain] from coming to a downright quarrel. It seems to me like throwing the game into the hands of the enemy. . . . If a conflict with a handful of slaveholding States is to bring us to [our present pass] what are we to do when we throw down the glove to all Europe?"

Although apparently with reluctance, the author has dealt Seward one of the two or three severest blows he has ever received. The strength of the great Secretary's diplomacy was manifested in the way French plots were met, and the manner in which dangers leading toward war with France were avoided. This is a field that Mr. Adams has no occasion to enter. All that is said is both true and unbiassed, but the account is of a few characteristics only.

Not the most valuable, but perhaps the most sprightly and interesting chapter in this sprightly and interesting book is the one called "A Bout with the Premier." Very few Northerners ever fully understood why Englishmen expressed such surprise and indignation at Gen. Butler's order declaring that the women of New Orleans "who insult any soldiers, are to be regarded and treated as common women plying their vocation." Our author explains how English customs led to an entire misconstruction of the meaning of these words, and how "the English simply did not understand what Americans said and had in mind." With fine sarcasm he ridicules the idea that women should not be treated according to their conduct:

"In the many accounts of a certain famous interview between Queen Louisa of Prussia and Napoleon, in October, 1806, it has never been suggested that her Majesty began by bearing herself towards the victor of Jena as if he were a Corsican dog whose mere presence was pollution; nor does Marbot, or any other writer of recollections of that period, anywhere mention that, after Austerlitz, high-born Viennese dames took occasion to empty the slops out of chamber windows at the moment when uniformed marshals of France were passing on the pavement below. In Spain, also, during the early years of the century, as in India more recently, it was not the custom for women of captured cities to demean themselves in presence of a victorious British soldiery with ostentatious contempt. On the contrary, they generally sought a severe seclusion, preferring for that purpose churches and other holy places, the sanctity of which, according to high military authority, did not always afford them an adequate protection. With the 'ladies' of the Confederacy it was altogether different" (p. 245).

The correspondence between Palmerston and Adams about this order excellently illustrates some traits of these two men. As with all true Jingoes, Palmerston's blood could "boil" in less time than it takes to strike a match. He had read the outburst of indignation in the English press, and doubtless expected that it would soon manifest itself in Parliament, where he could make political capital for himself out of an early disapproval of Butler's order. So he promptly sent to Adams a communication, marked confidential, in which he declared that he found it "difficult if not impossible to express adequately the disgust which must be excited in the mind of every honorable man." The

note was contemptuous and practically insulting, throughout. Adams was amazed. Was it designed to start a quarrel? Palmerston was premier, but Russell had charge of foreign affairs; and then the mark of "confidential," and the very unofficial "My dear sir," both at the beginning and at the end of the note, were also signs of a private communication. There was even less reason for assuming that Palmerston meant to speak for himself only, with no ulterior purpose. The subject-matter was wholly public, and the personal relations between the two men were far from intimate. Feeling confident that the old fox had some political scheme in view, Adams resolved to make him define the capacity in which he was writing—"whether in any way officially between us, or purely as a private expression of sentiment between gentlemen." Adams also reported the matter to both Russell and Seward. In a less excited tone, Palmerston repeated much that he had written before, but did not answer Adams's question. Again the American Minister demanded an explanation, and with faultless expressions made it evident that the prime minister was to be caught whichever way he might explain his action. Under the seal of privacy, Palmerston answered with a sarcastic air that of course the communication was a public one; but he was careful to claim that he had not cast any offensive imputations upon the United States Government, and he ended by saying that that government had done itself honor in the way it had treated Butler. Old tricksters are more likely to deceive themselves than any one else. Adams closed the incident by a polite but effective statement that he now understood that the notes were official, but that Palmerston had withdrawn "the precipitate implications contained in your first one." Yet he concluded by informing the Premier, "I must hereafter, so long as I remain here in a public capacity, decline to entertain any similar correspondence."

If several of Adams's leading contentions with Lord John Russell had been summarized, and some of the striking passages had been quoted, it would have helped to make more conspicuous his matchless ability in a diplomatic argument. Aside from having a vigorous and logical mind, his temperament was almost perfectly suited to his tasks. When Russell was cool, Adams was just enough cooler to make the difference perceptible. When the British Secretary began to lose his temper, or there was danger of a break in friendly relations, the American Minister knew how to yield or to stop short of the last step; he was always bold, except where discretion was better than valor. After he had for many months been anxiously engaged in gathering and presenting evidence that Confederate war-ships were building in England, he heard that one of the invincible iron-clad rams was about to go to sea. Seward's instructions were clear and positive that, in such an event, diplomatic relations should be broken off. More than once Adams had followed his own judgment instead of his instructions. When Russell informed him that there was not evidence enough to warrant stopping the vessel, it looked as if the critical moment had come. But Adams remembered his duty "to prevent the mutual irritation from coming to a downright quarrel"; he made his solemn protest against the injustice of Great Britain's attitude, and, in regard to the meaning of letting the ram go forth from an English port, he wrote that famous sentence: "It would be superfluous in me to point out to your lordship that this is war," and then referred the whole case to Washington for final decision. This gave Russell impressive information as to the attitude of the United States, yet no direct threat was made, and diplomatic relations were maintained. Otherwise, it would not have been so easy for the British Secretary to change his mind and order the ship to be held.

The author's superior literary art is displayed by his method of grouping the leading facts so that his chapters have life and picturesqueness. He sees rivals as they were in reality—trying to outwit each other in the changing political game. His liberality can be judged from his favorable estimates of Russell (p. 175-76) and of Slidell (p. 325 ff.). The weak point in the book, as biography, is the lack of full particulars of the diplomatist's personal traits. Did he live in style? Was he fond of social life? Could he be witty, extravagant, entertaining, or was he serious, judicial, and unbending, even with a jovial company at a country-house? Had he no weaknesses, no strange illusions? Who were his heroes, and what the mainsprings of his life? Are we to think of him as marble almost perfectly carved, or as a man, both genial and wise, of whose friendship obstacles of time and space unfortunately deprived us? The character and value of Adams's public services are clearly defined, but the personal features and movements and manners of the man in flesh and blood are, after 1861, vague at best. In general, the biographer's breadth of view, candor, and direct and vivacious style are conspicuous.

BYZANTINE CONSTANTINOPLE.

Byzantine Constantinople: The Walls of the City and Adjoining Historical Sites. By Alexander Van Millingen, M.A. With Maps, Plans, and Illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The publication of this book is one of the evidences of the interest in Byzantine history which has been aroused in late years. In Germany, that land of special students, a journal has been established devoted to the discussion of the history and antiquities of Constantinople and the Byzantine empire. A work of a character similar to that undertaken by this new journal in Germany has been carried on in Constantinople itself for a number of years by the Greek Literary Syllogos, which possesses a fine building of its own, with a library, in Pera. This Syllogos, to which belong not only native Greeks, but also many foreign scholars, publishes from time to time proceedings in which are recorded, among other things, the discoveries made in and about Constantinople. It is mainly to the influence of the Syllogos in stimulating interest among resident students and giving opportunities for discussion and interchange of views, that we owe most of the more important works of recent times on the antiquities and history of the Byzantine capital, such as Déthier's 'Sièges de Constantinople,' Mordtmann's 'Esquisse Topographique de Constantinople,' Strzygowski's 'Constantinople Ancienne et Moderne,' Pears's 'Fall of Constantinople,' Grosvenor's 'Constantinople,' and others.

The present work differs from the two last named in that it is intended not for the general reader, but for the critical student. In the preface, the author intimates that it is only the beginning of a larger work, in which he proposes to deal, in general, with the antiquities of "Byzantine or Roman Constantinople, with a view of making the events of which that city was the theatre more intelligible and vivid." No one, probably, is better equipped for this task than Prof. Van Millingen. He holds the chair of history at Robert College. His father, an Englishman, came to the East to fight for Greek independence. Later, when he had become a prominent physician in Constantinople, he continued to display the liveliest interest in Greek history and antiquities, and was instrumental in founding the Syllogos to foster those studies. Prof. Van Millingen is, therefore, a native of Constantinople, familiar with the city since boyhood, using Greek almost as a second mother-tongue, acquainted with Turkish, and at the same time trained in the methods of Occidental scholarship. Moreover, he has an enthusiasm for his subject, as the following extract will show:

"The city which preserved Greek learning, maintained Roman justice, sounded the depths of religious thought, and gave art new forms of beauty, was no mean city and had reason to be proud of her record. But never was she so grand as in her attitude towards the barbarous tribes and Oriental peoples which threatened her existence and sought to render European civilization impossible. Some of her foes—the Goths and the great Slavic race—she not only fought, but also gathered within the pale of civilized Christendom. With others, like the Huns, Persians, Saracens, Turks, she waged a relentless warfare, often achieving signal triumphs, sometimes worsted in the struggle, always contesting every inch of her ground, retarding for a thousand years the day of her fall, perishing sword in hand, and giving Western Europe, meantime, scope to become worthy to take from her dying hands the banner of the world's hope. This is service similar to that which has earned for Ancient Greece men's eternal gratitude, and has made Marathon, Thermopylæ, Salamis, Platæa, names which will never die. . . . The shield of the city in that long heroic contest was the Walls" (pp. 266, 267).

The first two chapters are devoted to a discussion of the limits of ancient Byzantium and the location of the land walls of Constantine's city. In this portion of the work dependence is placed, for the most part, on ancient writings, supported by evidence from topography. Very few remains of those two periods are in existence, so far as the walls of the city are concerned. From the Theodosian period onward the case is different. The landward walls, erected in the reign of Theodosius II., and many times repaired and added to since, still exist in a better state of preservation than the walls of any city in Europe. The southern wall of the city, on the Sea of Marmora, is also preserved in considerable sections. The northern wall, along the shore of the Golden Horn, has been almost entirely destroyed, but its line can still be traced, and some fragments remain. Commencing at the southern end of the Theodosian walls on the Sea of Marmora, Prof. Van Millingen proceeds, step by step, northward to the Golden Horn, eastward to Seraglio Point, and back along the Sea of Marmora to his point of starting, determining the date of the original construction of walls, towers, and moats, and of the various additions and reconstructions,

the location of each gate and postern; and recording, in general, the most important historical events connected with the different portions of the wall, gates, etc. Then he gives two chapters to the harbors on the Sea of Marmora, and one to the Hebdomon Palace. There is, finally, a brief and very perfunctory chapter on the Anastasian walls, built at the end of the fifth or the beginning of the sixth century, forty miles from the city, and stretching from the Euxine to the Sea of Marmora. This outer line of fortifications has not yet been traced.

Prof. Van Millingen is extremely modest in his manner of presenting his material, referring constantly to former authorities, and to the discoveries of others, so that the casual reader scarcely realizes how much new and valuable material he himself has contributed and how many errors he has corrected. Following that notable authority in the field of Constantinople archæology, Dr. Paspates, who, in this matter, followed Gyllius, almost all recent writers identify the Tekfour Serai, at the junction of the Theodosian wall and the wall of Manuel Commenus, with the famous Hebdomon Palace. Prof. Van Millingen proves that Tekfour Serai represents in reality the palace of the Porphyrogenitus, erected by the Emperor Constantine VII. in the tenth century—an identification which corresponds, by the way, with local Greek tradition, according to which that building is known as the Palace of Constantine. The Hebdomon Palace was actually situated at the modern village of Makrikeui, on the Sea of Marmora, some three miles beyond the Golden Gate, and five miles or thereabouts from Tekfour Serai.

Another error adopted by all recent writers is connected with the so-called Prison of Anemas. On the walls in front of the Blachernæ quarter there are conspicuous twin towers which "rise to a great height, and are supported along their base by a massive buttress, or counterfort, that stands 23 feet above the present ground-level, and projects from 19½ to 26 feet beyond the towers." The southerly of these two towers is commonly called the Tower of Angelus. The northerly is described in all guidebooks and pointed out to visitors as the Prison of Anemas. It was Dr. Paspates who discovered an entrance into the lower chambers of this northern tower, and from there found his way into similar chambers in the southern tower, and also into an extensive series of chambers in the adjoining wall of the city, beneath the castle and palace of Blachernæ. These chambers he supposed to be prison cells; the whole constituting the famous dungeon of Blachernæ, so dramatically described in Scott's 'Count Robert of Paris.' The northern tower he identified as the Tower of Anemas, first mentioned by Anna Comnena as the place of confinement of Anemas, the leader of a conspiracy to assassinate her father, the Emperor. It is, of course, disappointing to lose our prison, but Prof. Van Millingen shows conclusively that the supposed cells in the walls were only casemates, used, perhaps, like the "similar substructures below the Domus Gaiana in the palace of the Cæsars at Rome," for the great army of slaves, servants, freedmen, and guards who served the court in silence and almost in darkness, in the palace of the Constantinopolitan as in the palace of the Roman Cæsars. His own arguments and the evidence which he adduces seem to show that the twin towers constituted the Tower of Isaac Angelus, which was a sort of Belvedere of the Palace of Blachernæ, and that the tower of Anemas must have been one of the towers on the Heraclian wall, somewhat further northward; but, with a caution which he not infrequently carries to the point of excess, Prof. Van Millingen does not press these conclusions, but leaves the reader a confusing choice of possibilities, which, after what has preceded, seem improbable, to say the least, and form a most lame and unsatisfactory conclusion to a clear and cogent argument.

This excessive caution, which appears to arise from over-modesty and distrust of his own judgment, is one of the faults of the book. There is more justification for it in the discussion of the moat in front of the Theodosian walls. In this moat there is a series of brick dykes or dams, broad at the base and narrowing to an edge on the top, strongly buttressed on the lower side. The object of these structures in relation to the moat has been a subject of discussion. Some of them have been found to contain earthenware water-pipes, and others still carry water into the city, which is brought by underground conduits from the hills to the west. Dr. Paspates supposed that in case of a siege these dykes were broken, and by that means the moat flooded, while at other times they carried water across the moat into the city. Prof. Van Millingen cites, on the one hand, authorities to show that the moat was always full of water, and not merely at a time of siege; and, on the other hand, to show that the moat was a dry moat. He ventures upon no opinion of his own, nor even attempts to explain the apparent contradiction of eye-witnesses. He contents himself with the statement that it is "impossible, under present circumstances, to examine the moat thoroughly, or to explore the territory without the city to discover underground conduits, and thus settle the question at issue" (p. 57).

One of the standing problems of Constantinopolitan history and topography is the determination of the route by which Mahomet the conqueror carried his ships across the hills from the Bosphorus to the Golden Horn, in order to attack Constantinople in the rear, as it were. In opposition to Dr. Paspates and some of the best recent authorities, Prof. Van Millingen leans toward the route up the valley by the present Palace of Dolma Bagtche, and so across to Cassim Pasha. In his discussion of the harbors on the Sea of Marmora, Prof. Van Millingen furnishes much valuable new material for the student of archæology, and, with the exception, perhaps, of the Kontoscalion, as to which his conclusions are uncertain, he seems to have identified the sites of all the harbors known to have existed on the Marmora shore during the different periods of Byzantine history.

The book is distinctly a scholar's book. It presupposes a considerable acquaintance with the history and topography of Constantinople and with the literature on those subjects. Quotations in Greek, Latin, French, and Italian are numerous, and are rarely translated. Footnotes, referring to authorities, occur on almost every page, and it is clear that Prof. Van Millingen has used his authorities at first hand. It is to be regretted that he has not added a brief bibliography, giving in one place the principal authorities of which he has made use, and brief notes on their character and value. The index contains no names of authors. The illustrations are very numerous, consisting of photographs, cuts (several of the latter taken from the late Canon Curtiss's 'Broken Bits of Byzantium'), and maps. These last, which are especially valuable, were prepared under the direction of Prof. Van Millingen himself, but they, again, presuppose a certain familiarity with Constantinople, as does also the author's method of using them. The work is carefully published. Only on page 196 do we notice one slip, where the same saint's name is written in one line "Pantoleon," and five lines later "Panteleon." Also, on page 282, "transpired" is used in the sense of "occurred."

It is sincerely to be hoped that Prof. Van Millingen will carry out his plan of a more general work, on the topography and history of Constantinople. Possibly, in doing so, he may find the means of combining scholarly accuracy and popular interest, since the history of Constantinople is full of romantic and picturesque incidents, with which the archæologist may well illuminate his descriptions of churches, mosques, walls, gates, theatres, and streets.

Beatrice d'Este, Duchess of Milan. 1475-1497. A Study of the Renaissance. By Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1899.

The social life of the Renaissance in Italy is a subject which can always be discussed with profit, especially in cases where the discussion springs from so good a work of research as Mrs. Ady's 'Beatrice d'Este.' To what degree was the courtly society of the Italian states vicious and corrupt during the years 1475-1550? No one denies the existence of profligacy on a large scale; but was it overwhelming? Leaving men out of account, can we select any women who may be taken as typical representatives of the later Italian Renaissance; and if so, where shall we find them? Lucrezia Borgia and Bianca Capello have often been used for purposes of demonstration, and the former, even though comparatively rehabilitated, is not yet a very savory person—while the latter is quite impossible. Shall we look upon these two as proper examples of their sex and condition, or shall we call them exceptions and seek refuge in the purer society of Elisabetta Gonzaga and Isabella d'Este?

These are some of the questions which Mrs. Ady's book at once raises, and she answers them in two ways: first, by assuming a general attitude towards the problem already outlined, and secondly by portraying the figure of a lady who, while neither a monster nor a paragon of accomplishments, may well seem to resemble the average woman of rank more nearly than either the Cleopatras or the Minervas of the period do. Speaking at large, she considers that the immorality of the Renaissance has been much overdrawn. Every one hears the notorious scandal, while commonplace goodness attracts no notice. Accepting the view of Pastor, Mrs. Ady says:

"Virtue goes quietly on her way, while vice is noisy and uproarious; the criminal forces himself upon the public attention, while the honest man does his duty in silence and no one hears of him. This is especially the case with the women of the Renaissance. They had their faults and their weaknesses, but the great majority among

them led pure and irreproachable lives, and trained their children in the paths of truth and duty.

The life of Beatrice d'Este was not one of unclouded bliss, but it reveals the joyousness which the Renaissance could give when all the external conditions were favorable. By emphasizing the disagreeable features which Mrs. Ady inclines to soften, a somewhat different effect might be produced by an equally accurate biographer; but, giving due weight to all her crosses, Beatrice had a great deal of innocent exhilaration, and she was not contaminated by what seems worst in her surroundings. The weeks, the months, and sometimes even the years (when conspiracy did not raise its head) might go by very smoothly at the capital of an Italian despot. Perhaps a lurking sense of insecure tenure lent keener zest to the days of prosperity. As for the accessories of pleasure, none were wanting at the court of Ferrara, where Beatrice passed her girlhood, or at the court of Milan, where Ludovico Sforza, "Il Moro," made her a duchess.

Mrs. Ady, if one can judge from the tone of several allusions, is a great admirer of the 'Cortegiano,' and her study will have the effect of making the kind of existence which Castiglione describes more real and animated than it otherwise would be to readers of that treatise. The dialogues of the 'Cortegiano,' though they will not be called dull by those who know anything of the Renaissance, are rather stately and formal, according to our present standards of sprightliness. They need for a gloss a detailed description of court life, not necessarily at Urbino, but at some centre or centres of equal importance with the capital of Guido Ubaldo. Mrs. Ady takes up Ferrara and Milan in full detail, besides frequently glancing at Mantua, Naples, and other prominent courts. We will go so far as to say that any one who would understand Castiglione should go first to this monograph rather than to Burckhardt or to Symonds. It is not so much broad historical generalization which is wanted here as personal details and local circumstance.

Beatrice d'Este was the second daughter of Ercole I., Duke of Ferrara, and Leonora of Arragon, herself the daughter of Ferrante, King of Naples. The pedigree of the Este family is a famous one, and need not be rehearsed. Of more importance at present is the cleverness of the women who in successive generations belonged to the house. Isabella, the elder sister of Beatrice, was an infant prodigy, and throughout a long life maintained her reputation of possessing the gifts and graces in fuller measure than any other princess of her age —in Italy or elsewhere. Beatrice had her share of quickness, but developed more slowly, and at the fulness of her youth was remarkable for her spirit and gayety rather than for her seriousness of mind or for her learning. Hunting became one of her chief amusements, and in the chase she showed a fearlessness which rose to the highest pitch in the face of imminent danger. Her daring, indeed, seems to have endeared her to her husband, where her kindness of disposition and her other charms might have failed.

The marriage of Ludovico Sforza with Beatrice d'Este had its root in political expediency, the match having been arranged long before the lady had reached a marriageable age. The character of the man who conducted the government of Milan in such a way as to efface his nephew, the titular duke, and who, after he had come into full possession of the Visconti-Sforza inheritance, brought the hated foreigner upon Italian soil, has, naturally, been attacked with much warmth. Mrs. Ady defends "Il Moro" from the charge of having poisoned Gian Galeazzo, and assumes the defence of his character, policy, and methods at many other points. His connection with Cecilia Gallerani before his marriage, she dismisses lightly, and baldly chronicles his attachment for Lucrezia Crivelli, afterwards. Her thesis is that he became and remained during several years a fond and indulgent husband. It is not love of paradox which leads Mrs. Ady to champion the extremely doubtful cause of Ludovico Sforza. It is, we believe, her love of the arts, and her appreciation of the interest which he took in that bright band of masters which had Leonardo da Vinci at its head.

The girlhood of Beatrice was full of happiness, for at Ferrara she had within her grasp everything which a young princess could desire, and judicious parents besides. At Milan she gained independence, trod a wider stage, and grew more familiar with the machinery of political ambition. Yet she did not lose her fresh enthusiasms or her charming simplicity. Let this letter to her mother, which she wrote not long after the birth of her first son, speak for itself:

"Most illustrious Madama mine, and dearest Mother. Your Highness must forgive my delay in writing to you. The reason was that every day I have been hoping the painter would bring me the portrait of Ercole, which my husband and I now send you by this post. And, I can assure you, he is much bigger than this picture would make him appear, for it is already more than a week since it was painted. But I do not send the measure of his height, because people here tell me if I measure him he will never grow. Or else I certainly would let you have it. And my lord and I, both of us, commend ourselves to your Highness, and I kiss your hand, my dearest mother.

"Your obedient servant and child,
"BEATRICE' SFORTIA DA ESTE,
"With *my own* hand.

"To the most illustrious Lady, my dearest Mother, Signora Duchessa di Ferrara."

This biographical sketch is not restricted to the incidents of family relations and court society. It shows in a hundred ways how thoroughly Renaissance life was steeped in classicism, it investigates the political aims of Ludovico, it enters upon the relations of Venice with the northern states of Italy, and it brings the French across the Alps. Beatrice had the good fortune to die before her husband lost his throne, and remained in popular memory the radiant queen of a golden age. Were there space at our disposal, we would gladly say more about Mrs. Ady's excellent book than we have done. It is to be hoped that she will write monographs on other phases of social life during the Italian Renaissance. Her knowledge of documents and her skilful use of detail could be used to advantage on the same line for a long time to come.

Temperate Chile: A Progressive Spain. By W. Anderson Smith. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899. 8vo, pp. x, 399. Map.

Chile is frequently mentioned as the most progressive country in South America. The fact that she actually possesses the best currency system in the Southern continent would be urged by business men as a conclusive substantiation of this claim. But she has neither the greatest educational institutions, nor the most notable scientific societies, nor yet the most brilliant literary artists of Latin America. In music and painting she is easily outdone in many quarters. She does display the commercial instinct and an aggressive national spirit. Though less conspicuous for achievement in the realm of law, she has produced a succession of astute diplomatists, who have known well how to protect the interests of their country. In what pertains to the material, practical side of life, both individual and national, she has demonstrated marked ability, but in general culture she cannot be assigned first place among her sister republics. We do not forget such names as Mora, Bello, Gay, Gorbea, and Gana, which are worthy of the praise they have won, but it is a striking fact that all but the last of these were of foreign birth and education. Chile has persistently sought aid from abroad in developing her country. She has invited thither learned men from all parts of the world; she has received them cordially, and liberally seconded their efforts in her behalf, and has accorded them unstinted honor. In this recognition of merit there is at least evidence of a national tendency which must bear good fruit in the end. She has also reached out after European colonists, especially to develop the well-wooded states south of the river Bio-Bio, in response to which there has been an important influx, at intervals, for many years of German, English, Scotch, and French settlers.

The importance of the book which Mr. W. Anderson Smith has written consists entirely in its account of the conditions under which these colonists are endeavoring to carve out success along a rainy coast. It is not a clear, succinct account. It does not furnish a well-prepared statement of facts and figures, but it presents an interminable series of pictures revealing the chief characteristics of the towns, harbors, rivers, the roads, settlements, and isolated farms, over the whole of this region which the Chilean Government is so desirous of colonizing. The kind of soil, the vegetation, the wild life, the weather, all are given in painful detail and with excessive reiteration. The intending colonist can thus obtain a graphic portrayal of just what he would be flung into, and need not be surprised at the mud to be floundered through, the vast forests of big trees to be cut down, the kila cane in which his cattle will elude him, and so on to the end of the list. To such persons the book is to be commended, and perhaps to them it will be all the more satisfactory because it is so utterly devoid of systematic arrangement. It is like the vivid account of a child who can relate all of his experiences, but cannot seize and bring out a single broad generalization.

We cannot perceive that the author possesses any qualifications for writing a book. His knowledge of English grammar and rhetoric is below that of the average high-school student. We might forgive an occasional slip, a misused word, or a jumbled sentence, but, when such offences occur persistently, we can only say that the man is lacking in the fundamental training for au-

thorship. It is enough to cite the continual use of "wooding" for woodland, and "amissing" for amiss, which are but examples of many errors.

There is a ten-page chapter on "Remarkable Progress," one of twelve pages on the "Social Condition of the People," and a few others whose captions import that the book is a study, which it in no sense is. Like many travellers, the author has picked up ready-made from the foreign colony its estimate of the country and the people, though he does admit that the gringo is not precisely an angel among devils. No deeper than this is one able to see into Chilean life through the pages of 'Temperate Chile.'

Cyclopedia of American Horticulture: Comprising suggestions for cultivation of horticultural plants, descriptions of the species of fruits, vegetables, flowers, and ornamental plants sold in the United States and Canada, together with geographical and biographical sketches. By L. H. Bailey, Professor of Horticulture in Cornell University, assisted by Wilhelm Miller, Associate Editor, and many expert cultivators and botanists. Illustrated with over two thousand original engravings. In four volumes. A-D. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1900.

For this *fin-de-siècle* dictionary, Prof. Bailey has long been preparing himself. As he says in his preface, it has been his dream, for years, to close the century with a comprehensive index to American Horticulture. To the accumulation of material for this task, he set himself seriously a good while ago, and called to his aid a large corps of collaborators, both with pen and pencil, who have, under his direction, brought together an enormous mass of trustworthy information. Prof. Bailey himself assumed the hardest part of the work, namely, keeping things in their proper proportions and perspective. He and the assistant editor appear to have performed this difficult work exceedingly well. Besides this severe editorial labor, Prof. Bailey has given much energy to the preparation of occasional contributions to the text itself.

If our readers will glance at the nature of the task assumed by the projectors of this enterprise, they will be struck by the peculiar character of the difficulties to be encountered by the editors. In the first place, the range of subjects is almost world-wide, embracing plants useful and plants ornamental, in their innumerable varieties. Obviously they cannot all receive separate consideration, for some of these varietal forms are even now on their very last legs, so to speak, and have only the most insecure hold on life, whereas others are just coming into prominence as competitors for public favor. To discriminate between the worthy and the unworthy is indeed difficult, and in some cases impossible. Moreover, many of these varietal forms are the results of crossings in nature or by the hand of art, and the details of their parentage are not at all clear. It is easy to say that, in the descriptions, varieties (however they have arisen) are to be ignored; but, in a work like this, they constitute a large part of the very reason for which it exists. Although Prof. Bailey says in his preface that descriptions of varieties are not included, they have been included, and most wisely, as, for instance, in the Begonias, where their lack would have been sadly felt.

Good judgment has been shown by conservatism in the matter of nomenclature. We have here a work which every ambitious gardener will wish to place on his shelf beside his Nicholson and his Loudon, and for such users of it a too advanced nomenclature would have been confusing to the last degree. With the safe names here given, there is little liability to serious perplexity. It is becoming evident that there is a growing impatience with much of the controversy concerning revision of names of organisms, whether plants or animals. Those investigators who are busied with the ecologic aspects of organisms—that is, those who are devoting their attention to the relations which these organisms bear to their surroundings—and also those who are chiefly concerned with the applications of plants to the arts of agriculture, horticulture, and so on, care for names of the organisms under examination only so far as these aid in recognition and identification. To introduce unnecessary confusion is a serious blunder. Prof. Bailey has avoided the risk of confusion. In short, in range, treatment, and editing, the Cyclopædia appears to be emphatically useful. Prof. Bailey deserves high credit for the admirable plan of it and for the faithfulness with which he has carried it out.

The size and character of type selected are good; but part of the presswork in the copy under review is poor. The cuts are original, and show in most cases that they are faithful studies; but here, too, the printing is sometimes poor and unsatisfactory. It is to be regretted that the publishers should not have devoted more care to the mechanical execution of a work which is worthy of ranking by the side of the Century Dictionary.

Clark University, 1889-1899. Decennial Celebration. [Edited by W. E. Story and L. N. Wilson.] Worcester, Mass.: Printed for the University. 1899. Pp. vi, 566.

University celebrations may mean very different things. They may be merely events, to be lived through with blazoning of addresses and conferring of degrees; they may be advertisements to the general public, or appeals to the smaller circle of alumni; they may be times when, in the old-fashioned way, business is suspended for stock-taking, for a review of work done and an ordering of plans in the light of ideals still to be attained. The Clark Decennial cannot be charged with narrowness of conception. Its memorial volume includes elegant extracts from congratulatory letters, and records the awards of honorary degrees to distinguished visitors. President Hall's address and the reports of departments breathe an atmosphere of dignified poverty; and the historical sketch, the address, and the lists of degrees conferred and papers published during the decade lay the past and present and expected future of the University before the reader's eye.

Interesting as all this is, it is not novel; not even the poverty. But there are two things in the book that justify the remark of an eminent guest: "You have done something original, and succeeded perfectly." The first is, that the celebration was evidently planned and carried out as an object-lesson in the methods and aims of founder, trustees, and faculty; so that we might suppose the ordinary work of the departments to be going on, only with greater brilliancy and a wider reach. The second is, that the resolve was taken to publish a financial apologia, in the form of a full treasurer's report. The academic public knows something of the Chicago hegira of seven years ago, which carried off nearly half of the University staff, and has guessed at the "drop in income almost in the same proportion." Here we have the details, so far as details may be published without involving persons; here we have a tribute to the wise and consistent attitude of the board of trustees in a grave crisis; and here we have the welcome assurance from President Hall that "the pain of it all has faded; the glad hand has been extended and accepted . . . ; the incident may be considered closed."

Clark University was founded with the view "of transplanting to a new field part of the spirit of the Johns Hopkins University." "We propose placing" the benefits and advantages of a university, says the founder's opening speech, "at the service of those who from time to time seek, in good faith and honesty of purpose, to pursue the study of science in its purity, and to engage in scientific research and investigation." The University was not to be a place to which the good people of Worcester might send their sons and daughters for an education; not a college, not a professional school; but a place where competent men, in a leisurely environment and with entire freedom from pecuniary embarrassment, might do such work as it seemed good to them to do. We remember that Helmholtz, when all the world came on his seventieth birthday to acclaim him as a benefactor of the race, remarked that he was very sorry, but he had not thought of the race; he had done things because they amused him. This is the spirit in which Clark University opened its doors, and the spirit in which it celebrates its tenth birthday. Men of renown in science are invited to cross the ocean, and to pay homage of new ideas at the throne of science —"the realization of an ideal unattainable in Germany," one of them calls it—and, in general, to show themselves as ensamples of scientific living. So Picard comes, and lectures on mathematics, and Boltzmann on mechanics, and Ramón y Cajal on neurology, and Mosso on psychophysics, and Forel on his two favorite themes, ants and hypnotism. These lectures, and the counterfeit presentments of the men who gave them, are to be found in the decennial volume.

How far has Clark University lived up to these scientific ideals? There have been struggle and anxiety, and much pressure from without; but in founder, board of control, and president, there has been no shadow of turning. The splendid work of the library, and of the departments of mathematics and psychology, shows what the staff can accomplish if material aid is but forthcoming. As for the students, it is too early to pass a judgment. It may be that, on the score of training, even the best of our college graduates would be better placed in the graduate school of a large institution than in these groves of academe, where they may saunter by twos and threes toward "the choicest of all degrees, the doctorate of philosophy." Nature does not sprinkle every decade with

geniuses. Nevertheless, a corner should be kept free for the genius when he comes; and if the University had not done the good work with students that it has, if it had had no students, but had simply waited and inquired and published on its own behalf, it would still be one of the nation's most precious possessions.

But how far has the nation lived up to Clark University? President Hall's address rings cheerily and confidently, but we miss one note that should be heard from it. From first to last there is no hint of gift or promise of gift, of endowment or bequest. "I do not doubt for a moment," writes Senator Hoar, "that the time will come when our endowments will enable us to maintain in the entire circle of university education the position which we have taken and hold with regard to a few subjects." May the time come quickly, and the "university for universities" raise its head among the bravest! For "the best of all uses of public benefactions is, not for charity to the poor or even the sick and defective, . . . not for lower education or religion, . . . but rather for affording the very best opportunities for the highest possible training of the very best minds in universities—because in training these the whole work of church, state, school, and charity . . . is raised to a higher level, and in this service all other causes are at the same time best advanced."

Through Unexplored Asia. By William Jameson Reid. Illustrated. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. Maps. Pp. 499. 8vo.

Fictitious narratives of travels constitute a department of literature which has had numerous representatives from the earliest times. They are largely mere *jeux d'esprit*, written without any intention of deceiving the reader. One of the earliest of these writers, Lucian of Samosata, says frankly that the only truth in his 'Veræ Historiæ,' a kind of classic 'Gulliver's Travels' written to ridicule the 'Odyssey' among other works, is when he asserts that he is lying. A curious collection of these plays of the fantasy is M. Garnier's 'Voyages Imaginaires,' published near the close of the last century, in which are to be found Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' and Cyrano de Bergerac's 'Voyage to the Moon.' In a few instances, however, the imaginative character of the story told is studiously concealed, the writer either exaggerating simple incidents of a real journey until all semblance of the truth is lost, or pretending to have travelled in a region which he has never visited.

It is with this latter class that we are reluctantly compelled, solely from the internal evidence of his narrative, to place the author of 'Unexplored Asia.' Mr. Reid says that, with one white companion and forty natives, he ascended the Yangtse, in canoes, from a border station in western China nearly to its source in the interior of Tibet, his story abruptly closing with an account of his arrival at Charing Nor on January 1, 1895, after an overland journey of a hundred miles. In other words, he says that he navigated a stream for some two thousand miles, mostly in a mountain region, against the current, from an altitude of 1,000 feet to 14,600 feet—that is, twice the height of the source of the Yellowstone or the Colorado, in about seven months of actual travelling. He acknowledges the necessity of numerous portages, but makes light of their difficulties. On the 27th of February the first rapids were encountered, and the "flotilla" of canoes had to be carried "along the river bank for six miles before they could be launched again, only to be forced ashore once more on the 29th [of February, 1894], by the second line of rapids. After cutting brushwood, and laying it over a path three miles in length we crossed. . . . With these difficulties surmounted, we were able to paddle with comparative ease to Lo Tung Chau." This was on the same day, for he goes on to say "on the 30th [of February!], after ten hours' poling, we were swept by a counter current" (p. 80). The author does not fully appreciate what it means for forty-two men to carry canoes, bales of cloth, ammunition, supplies, and camp baggage over a portage of three miles, to say nothing of the trifling preparatory labor of cutting and laying brushwood over the entire distance.

To the difficulties of navigating a mountain river were added the obstacles presented by hostile natives. We have noted half-a-dozen conflicts with loss of life in the forcing a landing or defending a camp. On one occasion "the open space beyond our shelter," the author asserts, "was covered with dead bodies, while four of our own brave fellows had been killed" (p. 403). On another occasion, after pouring "a withering fire into the closely huddled mass . . . and setting fire to the village in several places, we returned to our encampment" (p. 61). It is remarkable, to say the least, that the Chinese officials should have been apparently unaware of or indifferent to this slaughter of natives by an expedition travelling under "governmental sanction."

In comparison with these formidable obstacles of rapids and hostile natives, the difficulty of travelling "without interpreters" in a land where there is a multiplicity of languages and dialects, is trivial. The author naïvely remarks that the delay of three days at one place "was well utilized in familiarizing ourselves with the language and characteristics of the inhabitants" (p. 79). This seems to have sufficed for the whole journey, notwithstanding that in one "little village of half a hundred souls . . . no less than ten different dialects, in fact amounting to ten different languages, were in constant use" (p. 410). Long conversations were carried on with friendly natives throughout the journey, and the information gathered is scrupulously recorded in the volume and upon the accompanying route map; as, for instance, "Dzrik tribes reported to be hostile and bloodthirsty pagans living in tents and caves," and "From native reports this plateau stated to contain evidences of an ancient civilization."

We may add that we have not detected the slightest trace of individuality in Mr. Reid's references to his companions during at least two years' wanderings. Of the alleged head of the expedition we know little more than that "Burton, my old comrade in arms, the sturdy veteran who, but a few short months before, had pressed through the heart of the dark continent, and penetrated the impregnable fastnesses of Afghanistan and Thibet [as nonchalantly said as if he were referring to a trip from London to Cairo], . . . asked me to accompany him" (p. 2).

On comparing Mr. Reid's statements with standard works on China, we are confronted at the outset with an insurmountable obstacle to a belief in his truthfulness. He asserts that his explorations began at "Luipo, the little border station marking the confines of known China [on his map, latitude 29 degrees 30 minutes, longitude 104 degrees]." In a month's time Suchow was reached, the "village" to which they set fire after killing some of the inhabitants. On his map it is placed on the right bank of the Yangtse, at the confluence of the Min, an insignificant stream, flowing from the south. It needed less than half an hour's investigation to discover that this unknown region has been traversed repeatedly and carefully mapped by Europeans. The village of Suchow is said by Blakiston, who visited it in 1861, to have walls two miles round, and the *Times Gazeteer* describes it as "the great centre of trade in southern Süchwan with Yünnan, . . . 64,000 registered houses." The Min is the largest tributary of the Yangtse, being regarded by the Chinese as the main stream. It is three-quarters of a mile wide at its mouth, and flows from the *north*, rising in Tibet, through one of the richest of the Chinese provinces, thronged wth a peaceful and industrious people, largely engaged in mining coal and cultivating tea for export. A part of this is described on Mr. Reid's map as "well-wooded country. Inhabitants reported by river natives as being very hostile and bloodthirsty brigands."

But it would be a mere waste of time and pains to follow him further into the less-known regions of the upper river. The book is without interest, except as a curiosity of literature. The author lacks the literary skill and requisite imagination to give his narrative an entertaining and graphic form. The most exciting incidents—particularly the sacrifice in the cave, evidently intended to be a blood-curdling description of a frightful tragedy—only provoke a half-mournful smile. It may be well, in closing, to call the attention of geographers to the appropriate testimonial of the author to his publisher in naming on his map the mountain chain in Tibet, on the right bank of the River Yangtse, north of latitude 32 degrees, "Estes Mountains."

Old Colonial Houses of the Cape of Good Hope. Illustrated and Described by Alys Fane Trotter. With a Chapter on the Origin of Old Cape Architecture, by Herbert Baker, A.R.I.B.A. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

It seems odd to Americans to find their own title for buildings which to them are ancient, appropriated to buildings of another British dependency. In this case, the region being still a colony, the significance of the name given to the early architecture lies entirely in the adjective "old," for the buildings enumerated in this book belong to the time of the Dutch proprietorship, before Great Britain seized the Dutch possessions of the Cape of Good Hope. One of the buildings mentioned and partly described belongs to that famous estate of Constantia which gave its name to the most popular of all the wines of "the Cape," as is set forth in the lines of Tom Moore's poem:

> ——"when full to the throttle
> We lads had begun our dessert with a bottle
> Of neat old Constantia."

That wine was as well known as Sherry at a time not so remote in the history of

wine-drinking in England, and, indeed, throughout northwestern Europe. The estate of Constantia was established, as the text sets forth, in 1685, "by the great building governor, Simon van der Stel." Besides the three plates relating to it, one of which is a photograph and the other two are apparently lithographic prints, there is one text illustration and a large general plan opposite page 3 of the text. Another estate, almost a rival to Constantia in importance, is that once known as Vergelegen; but of this the more important buildings, at least those more interesting in an architectural sense, seem to have been destroyed and replaced by simpler constructions.

A number of other farms are illustrated in the same way, and there are also house buildings in considerable numbers, one of which is "the Castle" at Cape Town. These buildings succeed one another almost continuously from the middle of the seventeenth century until 1800 or thereabouts, and they are nearly all of the same general character. What that character is would be guessed by any one who might have become familiar with the town houses of the Netherlands erected during the same epoch, or only a little earlier. Just as, in the United States, the buildings of 1680 were copied in 1700, with such changes as the different material made necessary, so in the possessions of the Dutch their native architecture was faithfully reproduced. One who may have visited a Dutch colony, such as the seaport of Willemstad, will have seen a quarter of old Amsterdam faithfully reproduced. So, in the semi-tropical lands of southernmost Africa, the marked characteristics of the Dutch town-halls reappeared, but stripped of the more graceful sculptured ornaments, and presented without that controlling good taste which the older and more truly civilized community retained. There was no older and purer building near Cape Town to check the fantastic vagaries of the native builder; no tradition which was sufficiently close and strong to have its inevitable result of wholesome restraint.

The plates, thirty-four in number, of the thin quarto before us are extremely uneven in merit. Some are very tolerable prints by photographic process, and others are drawn in what is apparently a sufficiently faithful outline rendering, although unskilful, and the work of a much interested and enthusiastic beginner in representative art rather than a master. The oddest pictures are, however, those which are drawn completely with light and shade in lithograph, and which resemble nothing so much as the drawings of the weaker members of an old-fashioned "drawing-school" when all the pupils alike had to make facsimiles as nearly as they could of lithographs prepared for the purpose. The reader will observe that this slightness and inefficiency of artistic process does not imply a lack of thoroughness, or an inaccuracy in the drawings; the design is never of such refinement that a beginner who is minded to be faithful might not follow it with considerable accuracy, nor is the detail itself of very great importance. The exact curves of the "fractable," now convex, now concave, are never of sufficient importance to cause much regret that the illustrator's pencil has not been guided by the highest skill. The large single pictures measure about seven by nine inches, and some of the plates are occupied by two or more smaller illustrations.

There have been several recent contributions to English periodicals in which the same little-known architectural world has been partly described, but this is the first permanent publication devoted to it which has come our way.

The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics. By David Eugene Smith. [Teachers' Professional Library.] Macmillan.

This attractive-looking volume makes pleasant reading, too, for it contains many a curiosity. A further merit is that it directs its reader to many books well worth his examination, although others of the greatest importance are overlooked. Most of the recommendations of the writer are well enough; but they are, on the whole, trivial. Vulgar arithmetic is, after reading and writing, unquestionably the most practically important subject taught in the schools. For the immense majority of scholars, it would conduce far more to their success in life to be good arithmeticians and bad spellers than good spellers and bad arithmeticians. The effort of the schools should, therefore, be largely concentrated upon making practical cipherers, at any rate, in the teaching of arithmetic. Yet, having looked over forty or fifty of the arithmetics in vogue, we are in a condition to say that pupils never are made really skilful at figures, and Mr. Smith betrays the fact that he, like the other pedagogists, is not himself a master of this low but necessary art. He discourses about trifling matters, and neglects most of those that are really weighty from a practical point of view.

About teaching geometry, too, he seems to us to be quite at sea. All that is of direct practical importance in the geometry usually taught might be put into a nutshell. But it is an indispensable preliminary to mathematical reading, and has always been acknowledged to be of great value as a mental discipline. If geometry were properly taught, it would train and strengthen a number of faculties: first, an important species of imagination; second, ratiocinative invention; third, logical precision of statement; and, most important by far of all, the power of generalization. But, to those ends, it is requisite that other branches should be taught than merely metrical, or ordinary, geometry—branches not essentially less elementary, but rather more so.

That Mr. Smith should have any notion of the educational treasures of topical geometry is more than we could expect. But we should think that a teacher from whose mouth the names of Desargues and Steiner and Von Staudt drop quite glibly (though we notice that the more available book of Cremona passes unmentioned) might recognize that even projective geometry is more fundamental and nearer the beginning of the matter than metrics, and that at least so much of it as is involved in perspective could advantageously be taught before attacking the somewhat artificial, and therefore confusing, logic of Euclid or Legendre. But even within the old, traditional limits we find nothing very useful in these chapters.

In regard to algebra, it is not easy to go quite wrong, owing to the perfection of the science. But there is here no symptom of a power of inculcating a real comprehension of the methods of analysis. As to the author's objection to applied problems of algebra, we must emphatically dissent. He quotes the dicta of some English mathematicians; but these are entirely misunderstood unless we are aware to how great an extreme this sort of thing has been carried in England, and that in reference to higher parts of mathematics. In moderation, it is now generally recognized by Continental mathematicians that the English practice is right. Besides, we are at present speaking only of the instruction of school-boys; and, in our opinion, considered simply as logical exercises, those practical problems that Mr. Smith contemns are most useful in training the power of disentangling a state of things.

The volume has an introduction by the editor in three pages, of which two are devoted to the logic of mathematics. We shall not imitate his brevity by undertaking to say here what we think of his views, because to do so might smack of superficiality.

A Manual of Historic Ornament, Treating upon the Evolution, Tradition, and Development of Architecture and Other Applied Arts. Prepared for the Use of Students and Craftsmen. By Richard Glazier, Associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects, etc. With 470 illustrations by the Author. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Pp. iii, 136.

This book, though called a manual of ornament, seems to aspire to the rank of a history of decorative art, including even Roman architecture and an analysis of Gothic building, which latter the author looks at chiefly through an Englishman's eyes. Undoubtedly the whole history of ornament cannot be written without a history of the constructional elements out of which it rose, or to which it adapts itself; but a manual as small as this has not room for everything, and the writer of such a book must really be content to deal with one branch of his subject. The space which he greatly needs for the development of the comparison between one and another form of ornament existing contemporaneously or nearly akin, is taken up by an account too cursory to be of any value, with small and inadequate illustrations of architectural masses and plans of important buildings. When, for Byzantine art, one page only can be given to the text and another to an illustrative plate, it seems unwise to use one-quarter of the text-page for plans of S. Sophia and S. Mark of Venice. Granted that Byzantine ornamentation can never be thoroughly understood unless the way in which it is applied to the vaults and pillars of those two churches is also perfectly understood, it remains true that two pages will not suffice to give a thorough understanding of it, and that the ornamentation, taken by itself, is all that should have been attempted.

We are driven, therefore, to accept the book as an interesting scrap-book of examples not badly drawn, presented in a way not ill calculated to explain their significance, and accompanied by a text sufficiently intelligent to make the little pictures more useful. There is one fault, however, common to such handbooks, from which this one cannot be said to escape—the very brevity of treatment has caused a positiveness of statement which is continually misleading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnes, C. R. Outlines in Plant Life. Henry Holt & Co.
Barry, J. D. Julia Marlowe. Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co.
Champney, Mrs. E. F. Love's Dream; or, Did He Mean to Wrong Her? J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Chapman, J. J. Practical Agitation. Scribners. $1.25.
Daskam, Josephine D. Smith College Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Edwards, W. H. Shaksper not Shakespeare. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Grandgent, Prof. C. H. The Essentials of French Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Holbrook, R. Boys and Men: A Story of Life at Yale. Scribners. $1.25.
Howe, E. G. Advanced Elementary Science: A Manual of Inductive Elementary Work. Appletons. Part II. $1.50.
Huntington, Bishop F. D. Personal Religious Life in the Ministry and in Ministering Women. Thomas Whittaker. 75c.
Jaggar, Rev. T. A. The Personality of Truth. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Johnston, Prof. H. P. The Storming of Stony Point on the Hudson. James T. White & Co.
Locke, W. J. The White Dove. John Lane.
Lorimer, Norma. Mirry-Ann: A Manx Story. Appletons. $1.
McMaster, J. B. A History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War. 1821-1830. Appletons. Vol. V. $2.50.
Müller, A. von. Der Krieg in Süd-Afrika. Lemcke & Buechner.
O'Neill, Moira. Songs of the Glens of Antrim. Macmillan. $1.
Painter, Prof. F. V. N. A History of English Literature. Boston: Sibley & Ducker.
Pearson, Prof. K. The Grammar of Science. New ed. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Pirtle, Capt. A. The Battle of Tippecanoe. [Filson Club Publications, No. 15.] Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.
Shakespeare, W. Romeo and Juliet. Cassells. 10c.
Steevens, G. W. From Capetown to Ladysmith. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Stockton, F. R. Novels and Stories. Vols. VII, VIII. The House of Martha. Pomona's Travels. Scribners.
Trevor, L. Brother Officers: A Comedy in Three Acts. [Illustrations only.] R. H. Russell. 25c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1900.

The Week.

The very misery of the Porto Ricans is now used by the majority in Congress as an argument for oppressing them. The wretched inhabitants of the island are in such despair that they are holding mass-meetings and begging Congress to do something—anything—without delay, in order to put an end to a situation that is unbearable. This condition of native sentiment is promptly seized upon at Washington as an excuse for forcing the House tariff bill through the Senate, the argument being that the poor islanders admit that they will take anything they can get if they can only have something as a basis to work upon. The more heartless go a step further, and say that the best thing to do is to let the present disagreement between the two branches of Congress continue indefinitely, in which case the full Dingley tariff rates will apply. These people hold that it was a great mistake ever to propose throwing off 85 per cent.

The tide of public sentiment against the threatened outrage on Porto Rico rises with increasing force every day. The most striking indication of it is the unanimous adoption by the Iowa House, a body composed of eighty-one Republicans and nineteen Democrats, of a resolution declaring that the people of Iowa are "unalterably opposed" to any tariff, numerous speeches in favor of it being made by members of both parties. Equally unalterable is the op position of Republicans generally throughout the West, as it is daily illustrated in the increasing emphasis with which such organs of party opinion as the Indianapolis *Journal* demand free trade, and the multiplying proofs that the press represents the feeling of an overwhelming majority of the people. Significant, too, is a deliverance from the South. There are a few districts in that section where the Republican party has considerable strength, and where the resolutions of its conventions consequently represent something. Fairfax County in Virginia, across the Potomac from Washington, is such a locality, the Republicans having repeatedly polled nearly as large a vote as the Democrats. The Republicans of this county held their convention a few days ago, and adopted a resolution endorsing President McKinley for renomination. But there was a very important qualification in this endorsement. After expressing approval of his administration as a whole, and commending his devotion to the principles of the party which he represents, they expressed "regret that he has been called upon, under pressure, to modify his action, as outlined in his message, in regard to the question of trade with Porto Rico, believing as we do that the American flag carries with it the pledges and protection of the Constitution." The Hartford *Courant*, as a Republican observer of the situation, recently expressed the opinion that, if the tariff proposition could be submitted to a popular vote by referendum, it would be beaten a thousand to one. Everything indicates that this is a fair estimate.

New York city's voice for free trade with Porto Rico has now been made as clear as possible. The Board of Trade and Transportation on Thursday adopted resolutions echoing those previously passed by the Chamber of Commerce, and declaring that free trade with the island is demanded by honor and humanity as well as sound policy. All of the press of New York that is free to speak its mind is also for free trade. This striking unanimity of sentiment makes pertinent the inquiry, What are the Senators doing who are sent to Washington to represent the wishes of the great interests of New York? Of Senator Platt we say nothing. He cannot speak, and, besides, is too busy getting offices and arranging nominations to have any time for affairs of state. But how about that oratorical New Yorker, Senator Depew? Why is he not speaking up for his own city? Relieved as he is, by Platt's kind forethought, of all the drudgery of party politics, he is just the man, one would think, to come forward in his character as a gallant and humane orator, and advocate the cause of an oppressed people. In a committee hearing he intimated his doubt if any government could sustain itself if it had one kind of policy for Hawaii and Alaska and another for Porto Rico, but since then he has been reckoned as simply one of the dumb, driven cattle in the Senate, who would do whatever Hanna ordered. Can Senator Depew afford thus to misrepresent his city?

Ex-Gov. Boutwell, President of the American Anti-Imperialist League, in his speech at Washington on the 11th of January, addressed himself particularly to the laboring classes, and pointed out the danger of exposing them to the competition with ten millions of Filipinos on the other side of the globe. He said that every argument that had been used for preventing Chinese immigration to the United States applied with equal force to Malay immigration, and that there was no constitutional way to prevent the Filipinos from coming to this country if they became a part of the United States. "They can manage a bank or run a laundry," he said, "with a certainty of success that cannot be foretold of any other people, whether English or American or Hebrew." This seemed to be something like an exaggeration, but evidently it was only the plain truth, for now comes Bishop Potter fresh from a visit to a cotton factory in Manila, where he saw 450 native boys and girls at work, of whom the superintendent said: "They learn to manipulate a loom in one-fourth the time a European requires." If they are such promising cotton-spinners, they will undoubtedly take up other textile industries. Why should they not make all the twine we require out of the hemp which they grow in their own fields? Why should they not learn to spin and weave the raw silk of China and Japan? Is there any assignable limit to the industrial capabilities of a people so ingenious and quick to learn as Bishop Potter finds them to be? We can keep out both the cheap laborer and his products from China. We cannot permanently keep out either the one or the other from the Philippines if they belong to the United States. No 15 per cent. tariff for two years will avail for that end if they become a part of the American Union.

The reciprocity treaty between the United States and France has escaped imminent death by an agreement between the parties extending the time for ratification one year from March 24, the date originally set. This is, perhaps, a method of allowing the treaty to expire without a funeral ceremony, since its existence will scarcely be remembered a year hence. It may be worth while, before the subject is forgotten, to recall some of the features of the proposed arrangement. France has a general tariff and a minimum tariff. Where the two are different from each other, the minimum tariff is about 20 per cent. lower than the general tariff, but there are important articles of commerce which are subjected to the same rates under both. Most agricultural products come under this class; so there would be no advantage to American exporters of cereals or flour or meat products from the ratification of the treaty. Manufacturers of agricultural machinery would get a reduction from 15 francs to 9 francs per hundred kilos; locomotives and other steam machinery from 29 to 15. These are, perhaps, the most important items in the list as regards probable exports from the United States. The reductions made in our tariff range from 5 to 20 per cent. on certain specified articles. On jewelry, about which there has been

much spluttering in Rhode Island and Massachusetts, the reduction is only 5 per cent. As the duty on jewelry under the Dingley tariff is 60 per cent., the proposed reduction brings it down to 57 per cent. ad valorem, which could hardly be perceptible in the importations. There is no evidence that the French jewelry manufacturers regard the reduction as of any importance, and we are sure that Mr. Kasson, when he negotiated the treaty, did not imagine that he would meet with any opposition by reason of that trifling difference. On imitation jewelry the reduction is 10 per cent., bringing the duty down from 60 to 54 per cent. There may be opposition to the treaty from other quarters, but if so, it has not made itself heard outside of the committee-room.

In commenting on the proposed Pan-American Congress, to meet next year in the City of Mexico, the *Tribune* expresses its astonishment that the states of Central and South America can entertain the idea that the United States is capable of "sinister designs" upon them. The worst of it is that they appear to have acted on this idea in conducting their trade. Instead of generously appreciating our laudable purposes in putting heavy import duties on their products, and rejecting reciprocity treaties which lessen these duties, they have basely transferred their dealings to other countries. It seems, according to the *Tribune's* figures, that our exports to these states have decreased no less than $100,000,000 within the last ten years. In 1893 we exported breadstuffs worth nearly $18,000,000, while in 1899 their value was only $8,500,000. The exports of provisions in 1894 were valued at nearly $14,000,000, but last year they were less than $8,000,000. Cotton and cotton goods fell from $8,000,000 in 1895 to $5,000,000; oils and minerals from $5,500,000 in 1896 to $4,000,000. Even manufactures of iron and steel, the export trade in which has so greatly increased, were bought by these countries last year only to the extent of $1,000,000 more than in 1893. On the other hand, the decrease of imports has been correspondingly large. In 1892, the United States imported from South and Central America coffee to the value of $120,000,000; last year this value was about $48,000,000. The imports of sugar and molasses fell from $87,000,000 in 1894 to $38,000,000 in 1899, and india-rubber is almost the only article showing a substantial increase. How a Pan-American Congress sitting in Mexico can improve the situation is not very apparent. The trouble originates in an American Congress sitting at Washington, and until that body becomes able to grasp the elementary truth that trade is barter, we can hardly expect that our South American commerce will expand. Nor, in view of the spectacle presented by the miserable Porto Ricans, is it surprising that other Spanish-American peoples should regard the imputation of sinister designs to our Government as justifiable.

Both parties in Congress have now taken up in earnest the business of manufacturing literature for the anti-Trust campaign. The Democrats have brought forward a series of measures directed against specified corporations. These propositions purport to forbid the corporations making profits of more than 4 per cent. It is, indeed, not clear from the wording of the bills whether the corporations are to be allowed to make 4 per cent. on their capital, or 4 per cent. on the cost of production of what they sell; but, for campaign purposes, the difference is immaterial. The Republicans now offer an even greater variety of ammunition to their orators. Would the people like to have the Trusts attacked by Constitutional Amendments? The Republicans have anticipated their wishes by proposing an amendment giving Congress power to regulate and repress monopolies and combinations. In case this should not meet the popular demand, several bills are offered which breathe threatenings and slaughter to all wicked manufacturing companies. Mr. Ray, Chairman of the House Judiciary Committee, presents a bill absolutely forbidding any corporation which makes or deals in an article of general use to have its wares transported out of the State where they are produced unless the motives of the corporation are pure. If it appears that the corporation entertains the idea of controlling the production or sale of any article, or dreams of increasing its cost to the user, or of preventing competition, the penalties of the law apply. Among them are not only heavy fines, but deprivation of the use of the post, and other punishments. Another good Republican shows how sincere the party is in this matter, by introducing a bill confiscating the goods of Trusts whenever the attempt is made to ship them out of any State, and fining whoever orders such shipment $20,000, with an additional penalty, for hardened offenders, of four years' imprisonment. It is difficult to conceive of anything that would satisfy the anti-Trust agitators, if such measures will not, and if the Republicans shall pass them, their stump speakers will be abundantly equipped for the fray.

We have received from Mr. Alexander R. Smith, general agent of the ship-subsidy combine, a copy of a letter which he says he has sent to every daily newspaper in the United States, and which he hopes will be published in all of them on Monday, March 26, 1900. This letter is of the interrogative order, containing fifteen questions, but not giving the answers to any of them. It thus has the appearance of a series of conundrums prepared by a master of that art, or by the end man of a minstrel show. One of these questions is in the following words:

> "Will you explain what it is that would induce Americans to purchase foreign-built ships and place them under our flag?"

The answer to this question is easy. The prospect of a subsidy from the American Treasury would be a sufficient reason for the purchase of a foreign-built ship to be placed under our flag. The fortunate persons who knew beforehand that the Hanna-Payne subsidy bill was to be passed, have the strongest possible inducements for such purchase.

The bill authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to grant American registers to any foreign-built steamships of class A-1, that were actually under construction on or before January 1, 1899, provided that a majority interest in them was actually contracted for by American citizens or corporations, or by foreign corporations of which a majority interest was owned by Americans at that date. Then the foreign ships so contracted for are entitled under the bill to subsidy equal to one-half the amount that American-built ships are to receive, on condition that the owners shall, within five years, build an equal number of ships of equal grade. If American shipyards are so crowded with work (as is the case now) that they cannot complete the new ships within the time specified, the Secretary may extend the time indefinitely. Under this arrangement the subsidy from the Treasury on the British-built ships may pay the entire cost of the American-built ships, which will then be turned over to these foreseeing and farseeing men without any expense to themselves. Of course, the unfortunate people who did not know enough to make contracts for British-built ships before January 1, 1899, cannot share in this plum. We are not surprised to hear that Senator Hanna is inflexibly opposed to an extension of the time for making contracts for British-built ships, to enable the general public to participate in the subsidy.

A vigorous protest is issued by the New York and New Jersey Machinery Manufacturers' Association against the course of the leaders of the machinists' unions. These leaders have formally demanded that the manufacturers of machinery shall employ only such men as the unions choose to permit, and shall discharge all those now in their service who do not satisfy the union requirements. The manufacturers state that they are now employing thousands of faithful men who have the same right to earn their living as any one, and who have families depending on them for

support, and who, with their families, have much to attach them to the towns in which they live. These men they are commanded to turn out of their places, without regard to the suffering thus caused. Such outrageous demands the manufacturers vigorously reject. They say that this is called a free country, and that true freedom means that men shall be allowed to make agreements for service unrestricted and unmolested. This right is granted by the law, and the manufacturers justly declare that "the Walking Delegates are now demanding that we shall enter into a conspiracy with them to violate the laws of our country, by depriving free American citizens of the right to work for whom they choose." We are glad to see that these manufacturers plant themselves on this firm ground. The course of the Chicago labor agitators in ordering strikes throughout the country is disastrous to the true interests of laborers as a class, and it is not likely to help even the favored members of trade unions to maintain their monopoly.

The franchise-tax bill passed by the Assembly of New Jersey is a much more practical measure than that of New York. The chief difficulty to be overcome in levying such a tax is in determining the value of the franchise. The New York law does not meet this difficulty, and the Tax Commissioners seem to have thought of no better way of fixing the value of the franchises of corporations than by ascertaining the market value of their stocks. The fluctuations which are constantly taking place in the stock market render this method altogether unsatisfactory in the case of the larger corporations, such as the Metropolitan Traction Company, the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, and the Third Avenue Railroad Company. In the case of the smaller companies there is frequently no market value, for the holders of their stocks do not care to speculate in them, and they are not listed at the Stock Exchange. In one of the earliest contributions made to the science, if such it can be called, of taxing railroads, Mr. Charles Francis Adams argued very strongly that such taxation should be based on gross earnings. It would be more scientific to adopt the net earnings as a basis, but it is frequently very difficult to determine what are properly net earnings; and until the public is willing to commit the solution of such problems to experts, it is expedient to accept gross earnings as the measure of value. Taxes will then vary with the prosperity of the corporation, as shown by definite facts and not by speculation on the exchanges.

The New Jersey bill authorizes the State Board of Assessors to levy a tax of 2 per cent. on the gross earnings of corporations which are allowed to make use of public property, such as street railway companies, telephone and telegraph companies, gas and electric light companies, etc. Such a tax is nothing more than a rent charge for a special privilege in the use of the highways, and is in theory altogether equitable. The tax is assessed by State officers, because these corporations frequently operate in several municipalities, and the local authorities cannot well estimate the value of the fraction of the franchise exercised within their jurisdiction. The proceeds of the tax, however, are to be distributed among the municipalities in which the property of the corporation lies. Such apportionment may be based on the earnings in each locality, so far as practicable, but it cannot be denied that the task is one of no little difficulty. Deductions are allowed to the corporations for such taxes as they now pay to the State and to the municipalities, so that it is believed that their burdens will not be seriously increased. The new law may be regarded as, on the whole, a very well considered and judicious attempt to deal with a comparatively new problem, and it reflects credit on its authors.

The announcement that Gen. William Ludlow's service in Cuba has come to an end, by reason of the long-expected consolidation of the Departments of the City and Province of Havana, does not come as a surprise. As an engineer of high standing, it was in Gen. Ludlow's power to do much for the city of Havana during the fifteen months of his service as its commander, and it must be said that, on the whole, he made the best of the chances offered. His rapid and thorough work in cleansing the city and its forts and barracks will be remembered even when the proposed sewer system has made the old state of filth and squalor merely a memory. But the shocking condition of the jails and some of the hospitals after a year of Gen. Ludlow's administration must be considered in summing up his merits. It is also a cause for regret that lack of judgment and discretion in dealing with a hostile press had placed him in such a position as to make his retirement actually necessary, and the readjustment of the military commands opportune. As head of the War College, and perhaps as engineer and Government inspector of any Isthmian canal which may be built, there will not be lacking further chances for him to be of great service to the country.

The matter of the unparalleled rioting in connection with public and even private meetings against South African imperialism, in England, was brought up in Parliament on March 15, and some pointed questions were put to the Government. Had they inquired into the shameful disturbance of the peace? Who were the offenders? Were any steps to be taken to punish them? Mr. Balfour made a shocking reply. While professing a languid and academic condemnation of the disorders, he declared that a good part of the "responsibility" for them rested upon "those who called the meetings." Public feeling was "deeply stirred"; many people had lost "near relatives or friends in the present war," and, therefore, he wished to warn those who call these meetings to be "careful lest they ask more of human nature than human nature is capable of giving." This was so near granting an official license to the rioters that Sir Robert Reid rose indignantly to move an adjournment of the House, in order to discuss the whole subject. The result was two or three hours of free speech, in the Commons at least, in the course of which the Home Secretary practically threw over Mr. Balfour, and he himself was compelled to qualify his earlier words. As it was, the Government's majority was cut down one-third in the final voting. The whole thing illustrates again the deep antagonism of war to the manners of liberty. Our war with Spain was so short and hollow that public passion had no opportunity to mount as it has done in England. Had we suffered reverses, there would have been wild work among us, too, no cool observer of popular temper can doubt.

The French Ministry is evidently in difficulties, and is seemingly trusting to the Exposition to save it from a fall. It is a powerful argument against political upheavals. What Deputy could face the disappointed landlords and shopkeepers, if a rash upsetting of the Government led to disorders and a diminution in the expected throngs of visitors this summer? So unconcealed has this motive become—after the Exposition the deluge—that *Punch* is guilty of only slight humorous exaggeration in predicting that the first act of the French, on the day after the Exposition closes, will be to declare war against England. They will have held in so long that it will be necessary to do something desperate at once. Meanwhile, the Premier is doing what he can, by amnesty bills, by attacks on the religious orders, and by a conciliatory attitude towards the Socialists, to cling to power. His latest attempt to win the hearts of laborers and employers alike is the invention of a fine phrase to express the proper relations of labor and capital. "Capital," says M. Waldeck-Rousseau, "must labor, and Labor must have Capital." The saying has had a great run. The French are said to be easily tickled with such straws of epigram; but even among them there is heard some muttering that beautiful language will not, after all, bridge the social chasm.

SECRETARY LONG'S SPEECH.

If Secretary Long's speech at the Middlesex Club on Thursday evening is to be considered the best presentation of the issues of the Republican campaign, it is somewhat deficient in the spirit of confidence which is usually looked for in such cases. It lacks aggressiveness. It is apologetic in tone from first to last, and in its treatment of the Porto Rican difficulty it is so feeble as almost to awaken sympathy for the speaker. He says that his own view coincides with that of the President in his message (not in his private interviews with Congressmen) —that we ought to have free trade with Porto Rico, not as a matter of constitutional right, but as the discreet act of Congress. Then he belittles the question as much as possible. He thinks that the importance of the 15 per cent. tariff bill has been much exaggerated, and that Congress is entitled to the exercise of its judgment, and should not be censured if it decides that free trade with the island is inexpedient. After all, he says, it is a bill to lower duties on imports from the island, not to raise them. It is a reduction of 85 per cent. of the Dingley rates. This is, in the Secretary's opinion, the easiest way to raise revenue for the island, and is really more liberal than free trade, since we give back to the Porto Ricans all the revenue we collect from duties on their products.

In his whole speech, Mr. Long ignores the vital questions involved in the Porto Rican tariff bill. We, the people of the United States, took this island from Spain with the consent of the inhabitants. In so doing we promised them the rights of American citizens. This promise was made by the General at the head of our forces. His words carried with them the force of the Chief Executive of the nation, unless disavowed by him. They have never been disavowed. As regards the particular matter in controversy, they were expressly confirmed by the President in his annual message, declaring it to be "our plain duty to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico." This was a pledge involving the national honor, even apart from the question of constitutional obligations. Leaving out the question of equal rights among American citizens, those declarations of Gen. Miles and President McKinley amounted to a pledge on the part of competent public authorities that the Porto Ricans should be treated as an integral part of the American republic, entitled to all the rights and privileges of other citizens.

Secretary Long has much to say on collateral questions, on lower issues, on the question whether the Constitution carries this and that right or privilege into newly acquired territory, but nothing on the question of redeeming promises solemnly made to a people whom we asked to come under our flag. He says that no man need fear that these people will be deprived of the great fundamental civil rights which are a part of our system of government. By this he means that they will be allowed to have trial by jury, to elect their own local magistrates, and to exercise the privileges "embraced in the early amendments to our national Constitution." But this does not include the right for which Bostonians contended when they threw overboard a cargo of tea which had been sent to their harbor to test their disposition to submit to taxation without representation. If the Porto Ricans should throw overboard a cargo of American goods in order to show their objection to a 15 per cent. tariff, it would not lie in the mouths of any who approve of the Boston tea party to object to such proceedings.

On one point Mr. Long seems to range himself against the Porto Rican tariff bill. He says:

> "I do not see my way clear under the Constitution to anything that shall operate, directly or indirectly, as a duty on any export from any of the States of the United States, because that involves the question of a Constitutional prohibition."

Yet he proceeds immediately to justify Congress in establishing an export duty in this indirect way.

The Secretary seeks, in bolstering up his sophistication, to draw a parallel between the right of the Porto Ricans to trade freely with the United States and the alleged right in the olden time to carry slavery into the Territories. "The Republican party," he says, "was founded upon the principle that the Constitution did not, of its own force, carry slavery into the Territories, but that these, by the plain letter of the Constitution, are subject to such rules and regulations as Congress shall determine." Ergo, the Constitution does not carry the revenue laws of the United States into Porto Rico. Secretary Long has forgotten the real contention of the Republican party, as voiced by such leaders as Charles Sumner and Abraham Lincoln, that liberty only was national; that slavery was local, the creature of State law and police regulation. Under this interpretation, the parallel disappears. Nobody has ever pretended that the customs duties of the United States are local, or that they depend in any degree upon State law or regulation.

SLAVERY TO THE MACHINE.

The Comptroller of New York city was asked last week if the story was true that he had called upon Chairman Odell of the Republican State Committee in regard to certain legislation which he desires to see enacted in the interest of the municipality. He replied that the story was true. "I was told he was the proper person to see about some bills I wanted passed," Mr. Coler added, "and I went to see him. I do not know yet with what result."

There was a lively discussion in the Senate at Albany the same day over the charge by Mr. Ford, one of the two Republican members from this city, that there is a combination between Senator Stranahan, representing the Republican machine, and Senator Grady, representing Tammany. Mr. Ford abundantly proved this charge by citing evidence of the agreement between the two organizations in the action of the Senate on the Ramapo matter, as well as on other less important measures. In the course of the discussion, Mr. Ford said: "I charge that I never got any bill out of the Committee on Cities opposed by you, Senator Grady, except by going over the heads of Senators Stranahan and White to a higher political power."

The leading Republican organ of this State has repeatedly, during the past week, declared that the Republican majority in the Legislature is absolutely controlled by the Republican machine. "The Governor knows perfectly well who owns those legislators," said the *Tribune* the other day; adding that he never has any difficulty or makes any pretence of concealment about finding his way straight to headquarters to get them to do anything he wants. "He goes frankly to Mr. Platt or his deputy, Mr. Odell, and arranges what the Legislature is to do, and it does it."

It would be a waste of space to cite further evidence that the man who becomes a member of the New York Legislature becomes at the same time the slave of a machine. Independence of action is impossible. If by any mistake a man who has a mind of his own gets the nomination and an election, he is promptly "turned down" at the end of his first term. There are twenty-seven Republican Senators and ninety-two Republican Assemblymen. They go through the forms of legislation, but they know, and everybody else knows, that their action is decreed by others, and that they must obey orders. There is no longer any attempt at concealment regarding the slavery to the machine.

The despotism works its will through the executive department of the State government as well as through the legislative. A year ago last fall, the people elected a Governor who was generally believed to be independent of such influences, and who was relied upon to assert the right of freedom in political action. But Gov. Roosevelt has surrendered to the theory of the new slavery, that the Executive must not appoint a man who is not acceptable to the machine. When the office of Insurance Superintendent was to be filled, one and another good man was suggested for the place. Judge Saxton told the Governor that he would accept the position—told the Governor so without consulting the

organization, and thereby sealed his fate. Ex-Mayor Green of Binghamton was spoken to by the Governor, but he promptly said that he would accept only "if I am satisfied that my appointment will be satisfactory to the organization." Mr. Hendricks was finally selected, and, according to a statement given out by the Governor, "he informed him [the Governor] that he would accept the office if the 'Republican organization' would support the nomination. This support was promised by the 'Republican organization,' and therefore Mr. Hendricks's name will be sent to the Senate." It was already known that no man could aspire to service in the Legislature unless he would accept servitude to the machine. It is now equally well known that, even under a Governor who has professed to believe in the reform of the civil service, no man can aspire to an appointive office unless he will accept this servitude. The organization practically controls all places which are to be filled by members of the Republican party, and will allow none to be filled by those who are not satisfactory to it.

Bradley T. Johnson, the veteran ex-Confederate lawyer, has recently expressed some views on the subject of the machine. He has lived in Maryland, and watched its operation under that rival of Platt, Gorman. Gen. Johnson was once a brave fighter, but age appears to have cooled his ardor. He writes to the Baltimore *Sun* that, "after much consideration, I have come to the conclusion that the institution of 'bossism' has come to stay." The reason he assigns is, that with universal suffrage no party can manage itself; it cannot undertake the detail work of registering the party voters and of getting them out to vote, of selecting party candidates, and of instructing those candidates what to do. He even suggests that bosses be elected by popular vote and paid liberal salaries out of the public taxes. This is the counsel of despair. It will not be accepted by the American people. This nation would not permanently endure the slavery of black men in the South. It will not permanently endure the slavery of white men in the North. We did not get rid of the rule of a Bob Toombs and a Jefferson Davis in order to accept the sway of a Platt, a Quay, and a Gorman. It was a hard task to abolish the old slavery, and it will be no easy matter to end the new slavery. But somehow and some day it will be done. The time will come when, even in New York, a man of character, public spirit, and independence may go to the Legislature a free agent, and when there shall be in the Governor's chair an Executive who will make appointments without the degrading necessity of consulting and suiting a power within the State that is greater than the State.

IRISH SENTIMENT.

It seems a natural and graceful thing for the Queen and all official England to be effusive and flattering towards Ireland just now, after what Irish generals and troops have been doing in South Africa; yet it really marks a revolution in the historic English attitude towards national sentiment across the Irish Channel. The case was well put some weeks ago by Mr. Healy. Mr. Balfour had spoken in the Commons of the "idiotic" action of the Orange Free State in casting in its lot with the Transvaal. Healy seized upon the phrase. There, said he, you have the typical English inability to comprehend race instinct; there you have the true explanation of Ireland. The English Government has looked with cold and puzzled dislike upon every national aspiration of the Irish people; has made fun of their race characteristics; repressed or sneered at all their manifestations of national pride and their symbols of patriotic devotion.

There is too much truth in the charge. The English have been singularly dull in not doing for Ireland what they have done for Scotland and Wales—encourage local tastes and even cater to indigenous prejudices; respect old customs and perpetuate native traditions and foster study of ancient ways and speech; let the troops have their distinctive dress and standards, and in general cultivate, instead of trying to stamp out, the local spirit. That most of these means of placating and conciliating Irish sentiment should have been omitted is perhaps due in part to the lingering influence of Hanoverian denseness. George I. never thought it worth his while to become an Englishman. He never could use the English language freely. Even later on, when the Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha was to marry Frederick Prince of Wales, she was told that she need not trouble herself to learn English, as "most people in England" would surely speak German. Lord Hervey observes that this conjecture was "so well founded that I believe there were not three natives in England that understood one word of German better than in the reign of Queen Anne." But Queen Victoria has at last had the woman's wit to see that the old aloofness and indifference will no longer do in governing Ireland. Her own personal acts and orders have led the way and set the example, and we are evidently in for an unprecedented attempt on the part of the English court and Government to out-blarney the Irish and kill them with kindness.

Take the recent army order permitting "all ranks in her Majesty's Irish regiments" to wear the shamrock on St. Patrick's Day. This is the reversal of the policy of a hundred years. "The Wearing of the Green" dates from 1798, and it tells how "the shamrock is forbid by law." And that the repressive policy, even in this simple particular, has been steadily kept up with rigor was testified to the other day by this bit of dialogue in the House of Commons:

> Mr. Powell Williams—"All Irishmen, whether serving in Irish Regiments or not, will be allowed to wear the shamrock on St. Patrick's Day." (Loud cheers.)
>
> Mr. W. Redmond—"May I ask the First Lord of the Treasury whether, in view of the fact that when I raised this question I was turned out of the House, the Government will now apologize to me?" (Loud laughter.)

Well, the Government is practically apologizing. The special attentions and honors paid Irishmen, and the Queen's projected visit to Dublin, mark, as we may hope, the beginning of a new era in the English official attitude towards Ireland. Fully a quarter of a century ago, Mr. E. L. Godkin wrote an article in an English review urging such a recognition of Irish feeling, but it was dismissed as the vagary of a sentimental American. But something has since been learned of the value of national sentiment as an element of good government. We may not like the peculiar ways and race qualities of a given people; but if we have to govern them, and if we want them to be contented, it is the dictate of statesmanship, as well as common sense, to give the instinct of race and country the fullest possible play. Grant Duff tells of Lady William Russell's putting up with her harumscarum son's habits of keeping snakes about the house. Did she not find it very disagreeable? "Oh, very; but I like dear Odo to have home ties." So a people must be allowed "home ties," however disagreeable to their rulers.

Just how much will result politically from this new respect for Irish sentiment, it is too soon to say. Lord Salisbury's government has already tried the policy of "doles" to Ireland pretty thoroughly, but it has not broken down Irish solidarity. Col. Saunderson boasted that if Gerald Balfour went to the Irish with Home Rule in one hand and seed potatoes and light railways in the other, they would choose the latter every time. It has not worked that way. The Irish have taken the potatoes and the railways, but are demanding Home Rule as before. Whether more will be accomplished by a kindlier personal attitude, on the part of Queen and Cabinet and people, we must wait to see. But it is a great thing that the change has been essayed. It is the human way to deal with the Irish, and it is sure to prove the wise way in the end.

SOUTH-AFRICAN DIFFICULTIES.

Some diseases are more dangerous in their *sequelæ* than in their original onset; and war is one of them. Our war with Spain was but a three days' fever compared with the political blood-poisoning and moral atrophy which have fol-

lowed it. As Gen. Sherman once urged a second war with Mexico to compel her to take back the territory we had wrested from her, so now we can hardly think of a more popular war than would be another one with Spain to force her, after a sound beating, to reassume those burdensome problems in the government of distant dependencies which she has managed to foist upon us. The English seem to be in a fair way to reap similar bitter fruits of victory. What to do in South Africa after the British arms are finally successful, is the present cause of deepest anxiety to the English Government. The difficulties which stand in the way of a settlement are partly legal, partly moral, partly political; and are of so grave and complex a nature that it may well be said, as it has been by Mr. Hawksley: "The Minister who at the conclusion of the war could formulate provisions or conditions safeguarding British interests, and yet preserving the republics and a measure of independence for their peoples, would, indeed, be worthy of the title of statesman."

Lord Salisbury is confronted, on the threshold, with an awkward moral difficulty of his own creating. In his Guildhall speech, only about four months ago, he said, in justifying the war and defining its objects, "We seek no gold-fields. We seek no territory." Yet his answer to the Boer Presidents the other day reads uncommonly like a declaration that "territory" is precisely the thing he now does seek, or feels compelled to take. Like our own McKinley, with his high moral phrases about "criminal aggression" and "plain duty" coming home to plague him, Salisbury is thus an impressive warning of the folly of talking what Bismarck used to call "twaddle" about morality and international law, and "such matters." Yet, with a God-fearing democracy, in the eyes of which a war has to be vindicated as "righteous," we suppose that a certain amount of such twaddle has to be indulged in by the Salisburys and McKinleys, though the event shows they meant it no more than Bismarck.

Even for the reserve and apparent moderation of Lord Salisbury's reply to the Boer Presidents he has been sharply criticised by a section of his own party. A strong Conservative faction is in favor of an immediate official declaration that the Dutch republics are ended—*écrasées*. Some thirty or forty Conservative members of Parliament met directly after the correspondence was made public, to express their regret that the Premier, instead of saying that the Government was "not prepared to assent" to the independence of the republics, did not state that it "must entirely refuse" to consider it. On the other hand, Cecil Rhodes, if he is correctly reported, is in favor of a scheme of settlement that "would leave the republics their flags." This preference probably does not rest on purely disinterested and humane grounds. Mr. Rhodes very likely sees in those "flags" a valuable "commercial asset" for himself; at any rate, it was under that nobly patriotic designation that he hailed the Union Jack at Kimberley. However this may be, the two conflicting views suggest the nice political adjustment which it will take to unite those holding them.

It is generally agreed that Great Britain will insist, as a minimum, upon such a restriction of the Boer armaments, and upon such laws relating to citizenship and taxation, as will effectually prevent a recurrence of armed conflict. This is what is meant, substantially, by the cry, "No more Majuba business." It seems to be taken for granted that it will be a comparatively easy thing to set up a state, or states, so hedged about and limited that British interests will be safeguarded without annexation outright. But Prof. Westlake points out that this is one of the most difficult operations known to international jurists. A limited sovereignty, a restricted state, is a fruitful mother of misunderstandings and quarrels. Indeed, there is something to say for the doctrine that restrictions upon what a state may do in its own territory are so logically contradictory of the idea of a state at all, that they are not binding. It was partly on this ground that Russia tore up the clauses of the Treaty of Paris limiting her action in the Black Sea. A state that grew strong enough to repudiate paper restrictions would be sure to do so. On the other hand, the various forms of suzerainty, protectorate, and "sphere of influence," are sadly confused and confusing. The French in Madagascar have already had vexatious controversies in consequence of this confusion. So abnormal are the relations of the Government of India to the native states under English suzerainty that it was found necessary, in 1891, to issue official notice that "the principles of international law have no bearing" upon those relations.

Prof. Westlake warns the English Government not to resort to half-measures, but boldly to take over the two republics, by sole right of conquest. This he urges as the only clear-cut arrangement possible under international law. Of course, on the side of policy and humanity, he also advocates the speedy introduction of free institutions in the conquered territory, with the Dutch language put on a par with English, and the granting of such liberal rights to the Boers that they will soon "settle down." But this at once throws us back upon the moral aspect of the matter, and the race question. Will the Dutch settle down if their nationality is snuffed out as a preliminary? Can free institutions be made to work on the basis of inveterate suspicion and race hatred? On this question a warning word is spoken by Dr. G. M. Theal, for many years Historiographer at the Cape, and a lifelong student of Kaffir and Dutch character. He affirmed, the other day, that the time would never come, of which so many people in England are fondly dreaming, when "Briton and Boer will sit down at one table, and come to an agreement under which the two races will live in content under British rule." Knowing, as Dr. Theal asserts that he knows, the character of the Boers, he expects to see them burn their homes and trek into German territory rather than stay under the rule of men whom they so thoroughly distrust as they do Englishmen. The Boer war has left so many prophecies unfulfilled that perhaps we need not pin absolute faith to this one. But what all must see to be true is that the settlement after war will be almost as hard a problem as the war itself.

THE RESOURCES OF ENGLAND.

In the last number of the *Fortnightly Review*, Mr. Hugh Chisholm presents some impressive figures concerning the ways and means of payment for the South African war. It is natural to go back to 1854, the year when the Crimean war began, for a comparison. For the three years immediately preceding, the military and naval expenditure of England had averaged about £15,600,000. In 1854 these charges rose to £30,000,000, in 1855 to £51,660,000, and in 1856 to £34,270,000. The cost of the war may, therefore, be put at about £70,000,000, nearly £40,000,000 being raised by borrowing. The national debt at the beginning of 1857 exceeded £837,000,000. The income tax, which had been increased to 7d. in the pound as a temporary means of carrying out some of the enlightened reforms in taxation planned by Mr. Gladstone, was doubled, and a number of other taxes were increased.

Mr. Gladstone regarded the financial situation as discouraging. He said that no country had mortgaged the industry of future generations to so fearful an amount as England. He pointed out that the debt of France, then some £230,000,000, was "not to be compared for a moment with that of England," and declared that her public debt exceeded not only that of any one country, but of all the countries of the world put together. He protested against increasing "the immense and crushing weight of this great permanent and standing debt," and justified his policy of paying for the war by present taxation on this ground, adding the moral reason that such taxation would operate as a check upon the ambition and the lust of conquest that are inherent in so many nations.

Owing to the fall of Lord Aberdeen's ministry, Mr. Gladstone was not able to carry out his policy, but it must be said that it was demanded by the experience

of the past. Since 1816 the debt had been reduced only £84,130,000, the annual redemption averaging only £2,273,000. The burden per head of the population was £28 12s. The charge it involved on the revenue was £28,000,000, or £1 per head, more than 47 per cent. of the national income being absorbed by the payment of interest. The total taxation was nearly £2 per head of the population, exclusive of taxation for local purposes. No wonder that with this lesson of the enduring nature of the expenses of going to war, Mr. Gladstone struggled hard to prevent the imposition upon the coming generation of such burdens as the present one had to bear. Certainly the Crimean war was not one for which the English people would now care to pay, if they had anything to say in the matter.

Mr. Gladstone, by the reforms which he finally effected, made his own apprehensions groundless. After 1857, the public debt began to decrease, and a year ago it was £627,000,000, a reduction of nearly £210,000,000. The annual reduction has averaged nearly £5,000,000, and the burden per head of population is now hardly more than half what it was, the rate of interest also having fallen. It has long ceased to be true that the public debt of England is as large as all the other national debts put together. On the contrary, the debt of Russia is now more than equal to it, while that of France has become twice as large. Instead of 47 per cent., the annual charge is now but 21 per cent. of the revenue, and amounts, per head of the population, to only 11s. 6d., instead of £1. Altogether, it must be admitted, the slight increase of debt caused by the Crimean war has not proved a burden, or even a menace to prosperity.

If this conclusion is apparent from an examination of the public finances, it is still more conspicuous when we compare the present wealth of the English people with that which they possessed a half century ago. It has been computed by Mr. Giffen that the savings or fresh capital available for investment amount to a fabulous sum; possibly £140,000,000 a year. The income tax, which at 7d. produced about £5,730,000 in 1853, yielded last year at 8d. no less than £18,000,000. It may be doubted if this increase in the income tax is at all representative of the actual increase in wealth. The growth of foreign commerce has been prodigious, and the internal improvements in the British Islands have been revolutionary in their extent. It cannot be denied that even if the South African war should cost as much as that of the Crimea, the addition of the whole cost to the public debt would, taken by itself, be a matter of comparative insignificance. Perhaps the additional charge would be more than met by the coming reductions in the rate of interest.

But it cannot be taken by itself. The vast growth of England's wealth is due to her peaceful policy and to her moderate taxation. But since the rise of the ambition and lust of conquest of which Mr. Gladstone spoke, while the public debt has diminished, taxation has increased. It is now nearly £2 5s., as compared with less than £2 in 1853, and the local rates are probably materially higher. Moreover, there is every indication that this increase will continue. Instead of £16,000,000 spent on the military and naval service, before the Crimean war, the latest estimates, on a peace scale, are over £48,000,000. No doubt the English people can carry this burden easily. They are now extremely prosperous, and do not feel it. But whether their prosperity will continue at its former rate, whether it may not even decline as the cost of empire increases, are questions to which the answers are not certain.

GOETHE'S "IPHIGENIE" AT HARVARD.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 24, 1900.

When, in 1787, Goethe's "Iphigenie" first appeared in book form, it was received with lukewarmness, if not indifference. Even the intimate friends of the poet were disappointed. They had expected something in the vein of "Götz" or "Werther," something impetuous, violent, revolutionary; and they could not help considering the measured rhythm of this dramatic symphony a regrettable submission to conventional form. They dismissed it as an artistic failure. The day before yesterday, on the 68th anniversary of Goethe's death, "Iphigenie" was performed at Sanders Theatre before throngs of Harvard students, nearly the whole of the Harvard faculty, and the intellectual élite of Boston and Cambridge; and it is no exaggeration to say that never have the walls of this academic sanctuary resounded with outbursts of more genuine delight than those which that evening broke forth from the crowded audience at the end of every one of the five acts. So striking a vindication of what is truly and unostentatiously great is a matter of deep rejoicing for those who believe in the spiritual mission of art. It is an event of more than local or provincial, nay, of more than merely national, significance. And the question seems well worth asking what the circumstances were which brought about this ovation to German genius in the most un-German of the literary centres of America.

The initial impulse came from a man whose name will enduringly be associated with that of the late Augustin Daly as belonging to the small company of American theatrical managers to whom the stage is more than an opportunity for business ventures—Heinrich Conried, director of the Irving Place Theatre of New York. Having received his artistic training at such model institutions as the Vienna Burgtheater, the Leipzig Stadttheater, and the company of the Duke of Meiningen, this man has now for more than a decade devoted his best energies to the elevation of the American stage, and the result of his labors has been that New York has now at least one permanent theatrical organization which stands for the traditions of true histrionic art—thoughtfulness, refinement, cultivation of form, subordination of the parts to the whole, submission of the actor to the poet—in short, for everything that is opposed to the vicious star system. It is due to Mr. Conried that such great artists as Sonnenthal, Kainz, Possart, Agnes Sorma, can be seen in this country in a worthy and thoroughly harmonious ensemble; it is due to him that Hauptmann and Sudermann are being brought out simultaneously in Berlin and New York; it is due to him that "Wallenstein" and "Faust" have recently entered upon a most promising transatlantic career.

It was not surprising, therefore, although most gratifying, that when, some months ago, Mr. Conried was asked whether he was willing to follow up his generous services previously rendered to Columbia University and the University of Pennsylvania by a similar service to Harvard University, he should have answered with a very emphatic and spontaneous Yes, adding: "I have always been convinced that the university, the church, and the stage are the three great educational forces of national life." It was also not surprising that he should have been willing to have the entire proceeds of the proposed undertaking go towards enlarging the fund for our projected Germanic Museum. Nor was it surprising that he should have selected "Iphigenie" as the worthiest production of artistic genius to represent German ideals to a distinctly academic audience at the foremost of American universities.

Fundamental and in their way unrivalled as were Mr. Conried's services, the undertaking could not have been the phenomenal success that it was, had not the parts of the protagonists been in the hands of two artists of surpassing excellence, Martha Schiffel and Carl Wagner. Carl Wagner's *Orest* was an achievement which brought to my mind the words in which Eckermann, after the Weimar performance of 1827, described to Goethe the impression produced upon him by Krüger's impersonation of the same part:

"Whatever in this rôle," said Eckermann, "belongs to ecstatic, visionary intuition, came forth from his innermost being by means of gesture and voice in such a manner that one fancied himself seeing it with his own eyes. At the sight of this *Orest* Schiller would surely not have missed the Furies in the play; they were chasing him, they were all about him. The beautiful scene where *Orest*, awaking from the swoon, believes himself transported into the nether world, was amazingly effective. We saw the procession of ancestors walking in confiding converse, we saw *Orest* approaching them, addressing them, and joining their company. We felt transported ourselves and received into the midst of the blessed: so pure, so deep was the feeling of the artist, so great his power of bringing before our eyes the invisible."

If Eckermann had been at Sanders Theatre, he would have applied this praise word for word to Carl Wagner; and he would have added, I think, that Wagner's *Orest* was equally noble in his heroic moods, in his despairing retrospect upon the time when he could still dream of great deeds to be done, and in his passionate outburst of joy when he for the first time feels the cloud of madness lifted from his head and sees the light of day returning.

The glory of the evening, however, was Martha Schiffel; for if Wagner's *Orest* was an achievement, her *Iphigenie* was a gift of the gods. I have no words to describe adequately the artistic character of this wonderful woman. But I may perhaps be permitted, as a slight illustration of the truly

human quality of her genius, to relate a little personal experience which I had with Fräulein Schiffel a few days before the performance. Proceeding on the common supposition that actors on the whole are not averse to publicity, I wrote to her suggesting that, if she wished to have her portrait appear in one of the Boston newspapers, I should be glad to make the necessary arrangements. Her answer was that she would willingly send me her photograph, but that unfortunately she didn't have any! A heroine without a photograph—this phrase one might employ to indicate the secret of the inexpressible charm exerted by Fräulein Schiffel's acting on the "Iphigenie" evening. Here there was nothing of the virtuoso, not a suggestion of technical tricks, not a suspicion of artificial posing. Here everything was the generous and free effusion of a soul; here there was an instinctive reaching out into the divine; here Nature herself had been converted into art. What humility by the side of majestic grandeur, what tenderness by the side of austere solemnity, what repose by the side of deepest yearning, what harmony and grace by the side of passionate pathos! Truly, in this woman the Greek virago and the Christian saint were combined; and as she stood leaning on the sacrificial column, and in noble abstraction chanted to herself the prodigious song of the Parcæ, one could not help seeing in her a perfect embodiment of that ideal beauty of which Schiller dreamed:

"Nicht der Masse qualvoll abgerungen,
Schlank und leicht, wie aus dem Nichts gesprungen,
Steht das Bild vor dem entzückten Blick.
Alle Zweifel, alle Kämpfe schweigen
In des Sieges hoher Sicherheit;
Ausgestossen hat es jeden Zeugen
Menschlicher Bedürftigkeit."

And finally the audience. What a remarkable gathering of spectators it was! We Germans take a just pride in our ability to appreciate foreign genius, in our having received Homer and Shakspere and Dante into the company of German classics. But here there was an audience to whom a foreign poet was presented in his own language, a language which by the vast majority of the hearers was barely understood. And yet this multitude not only listened with respectful attention, it followed the rise and fall of the dramatic movement with an instinctive discrimination, with a noble enthusiasm, nay, with a religious awe such as I have hardly ever witnessed before. It seemed to feel every delicate shade of poetic meaning; it was alternately spellbound and carried away, now wrapt in breathless silence, now breaking forth into shouts of joy. Would that Goethe could have seen this audience; he would have felt that "Iphigenie" was not written in vain.

Yes, this evening was a triumph of German art. But it was also a triumph of American civilization. For I doubt whether such spontaneous outbursts of gratitude for an æsthetic treat of the most subtle sort offered by foreigners would have been possible in any other country than America. I doubt whether anywhere but here such a remark could have been heard as I heard that evening from an American friend of mine: "I am thankful that I have lived to see the ideal *Iphigenie*." To the few Germans in the audience these evidences of generous and enlightened recognition of what is German in the best and highest sense, must have been, as they were to me, ample compensation for the trials and heart-burnings inevitably associated with the separation from the friends of one's youth. Mr. Conried, on his part, may rest satisfied that he has chosen the right way to bring Germans and Americans closer to each other.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

THE HAND IS ON US.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial of March 22, welcoming the suggestion of a third ticket in the coming campaign, you give voice to a temptation that has occurred to many men who like neither the promises of Bryan nor the broken promises of McKinley. Yet I think it is a temptation that will be put aside as cowardly by every citizen who believes that problems should be faced and not dodged, and that perils may be overcome only by meeting them boldly.

If, in November, McKinley and Bryan stand as the candidates of the two great parties, then between these two alone the choice of the country will lie, and upon this choice will depend the solution of some of the most momentous problems that have ever confronted our nation. Some will be settled for four years, but others will be decided irrevocably for as long as our republic shall endure.

A vote for a third candidate will be, in its immediate effect, a vote not cast. Failure to vote, or failure to vote effectively, will mean a privilege lost, a duty shirked. Whether we fear Bryan, his dangerous financial views, his dangerous associates; whether we hate McKinley, his false ideals, his falseness to his ideals—the independent voter will not surrender his right of suffrage. He must choose, and support his choice with vote and with voice; for the country is to decide for McKinley or for Bryan, and its decision will depend upon the ballots and the influence of those independent voters who see with unprejudiced eye the risks on either hand, but determine upon their course and unfalteringly follow it.

G. N. L.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 26, 1900.

THE FAMINE IN INDIA: AN APPEAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted, through your columns, to urge upon Americans more widespread and earnest efforts in behalf of the sufferers from the Indian famine? Being an American, I naturally turn to Americans. The truth grows every day more clear, that if India is to be saved from one of the greatest and most terrible calamities ever known to history, the sympathy and generosity of the world must be awakened much more widely and generally than there is yet much sign of. The famine steadily grows worse, and must continue to do so for some months at least. The reports that come here daily to the India Office, as well as those received from the most reliable private sources, are simply appalling. An area of 450,000 square miles, containing a population of 60,000,000 human beings, involved! Some regions stricken that never suffered before! More than 4,500,000 persons already receiving relief!—which means that, unless the relief can be continued until the rains come and another crop is raised, all these persons must perish. And it is estimated that nearly or quite as many more are already dying in their homes unknown to the authorities.

We naturally look to England to succor her own dependency. At the time of the Indian famine three years ago, England raised a large sum of relief money. She is trying to do something now. But the tragedy of the present situation lies in the fact that this heavy call from India comes at a time when England's energies and sympathies are taxed to the utmost by her South African war. Besides equipping and maintaining the largest army she has ever sent to a foreign field, she has recently been subscribing immense sums for the sick and wounded, and for the families of those who have been or will be killed. Under other circumstances much of this money would have gone to the relief of India. As things are, India must suffer all this loss unless other countries step in to make it good. In this connection one inevitably thinks of rich, prosperous, Christian America, whose people as a whole are the best fed, and know the least about suffering, of any in the world. America can easily save India's starving millions. Will she do it? She sent generous relief to Ireland in her famine, and to Russia in hers. Here is a famine much more terrible than either. Will she arouse herself to noble generosity again?

Americans who sympathize with England in her present troubles may well help India for England's sake. Those whose sympathies are not with England may well pity and succor the poor starving Indian people for their own sake. It is estimated that every five dollars sent will save a human life; for it should be borne in mind that, with India everywhere penetrated by railways, food can easily be got to the starving people if there is only money to buy it. Will not Americans everywhere take this important matter up, form relief committees, and raise funds on a scale somewhat commensurate with their country's resources and India's need? And there should be the least practicable delay, for famine waits for nothing. No appeal of greater urgency was ever presented to the American people than this of starving India.

J. T. SUNDERLAND.

HIGHGATE, LONDON.

HARPER AND APPLETON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Expansion is the order of the day. What territorial expansion will lead to, remains to be seen. Trade expansion beyond legitimate limits has just received a severe object-lesson in the failures of two of the oldest, if not the very oldest, and at the same time largest and most respected, publishing-houses in this country. Expert testimony is not in good odor at court just now, nor elsewhere, but the following statement may nevertheless deserve attention, as coming from one whose life-work has been devoted to the book-trade.

It is no secret, and has not been for years, that, notwithstanding the enormous "expansion," the half-million editions of some "fast-sellers" in books, the almost incredible figures up to which the circulation of newspapers and magazines has run, the book trade has been in a miserable state. The trade organs have voiced the complaints of its members for years without the hope of

redress. The retail trade and the publishing business alike have not prospered with the general prosperity which short-sighted politicians delight to ascribe to the "advance agent" of that commodity, now in the White House, who is merely reaping the harvest sown by his honest and conscientious predecessor. Failures in the retail trade came first; now the publishers' time has come to swallow the pill they have mixed.

There is, certainly, a great demand for books, good, bad, and indifferent. Our public libraries, with remarkable indiscretion, are loading their shelves with all sorts of literature, keeping their ears to the ground, in imitation of a certain great and good man, to get their directions from the great public and the statistics published of the circulation of the "most popular books"; the library of the man of culture with "expansive" bookcases increases; the student buys his tools in greater number than before. Whether their profusion does him as much good as the few his grandfather could command, is a question recently answered in the columns of this paper by the reviewer of new educational literature. Half a million copies of 'David Harum' and 'Knighthood in Flower' are not the most convincing evidence that the intelligence of the country is "expanding" apace with that material prosperity which enables it to spend such sums on books of this character.

The publishing fraternity have, with signal success, for years back done their best to dry up the legitimate channels through which their output should reach the buyer. The small dealer, however honest, however intelligent and painstaking, has been systematically killed off by the competition of "syndicates" and the knights of the yardstick. Their conception of doing the bookseller's business in the old-time sense is highly amusing. Their "sales-ladies" cannot answer the simplest question about a book not on their counter, any more than the head of the department, who sends his garbled titles to a real bookseller to unravel, merely causing him labor and expense that the dry-goods store may parade in the bookseller's lion's skin.

The "expansive" publisher came to the conclusion, some time ago, that it was better for him to sell 100,000 volumes to the department store without profit, to enable the latter to appear as the benefactor of the multitude through florid advertisements of a dollar book for 15 cents, than to sell half the quantity to the legitimate retailer with a living profit to himself. The man who had devoted a lifetime to his trade, who knew somewhat more of books than 'David Harum' and 'Trilby,' and had paid his bills promptly for half a century, was discriminated against, compared with the mammoth store which sells anything, from a cathedral to a paper of pins.

A recent case in point may be cited. One of the leading publishers was asked by a retailer of unquestioned standing for terms, if not "equally as good," at least such that he could compete with some book-butchers. The reply was negative, and the consequence a direct loss to the publisher, who advertises his 'David Harum' at $1.50, and is given the lie direct in the next column of the same paper by Messrs. Department & Co. with "our" price 95 cents. The retailer was expected to pay the publisher $1.00 wholesale for the same book. He now sorrowfully buys it from some jobbing dry-goods firm for 90 cents, and the publisher, who sells it to the latter for 75 cents, or less, loses at least 15 cents on every copy, aside from the fact that the retailer would pay monthly, while the jobber has "long-time contracts," and the publisher must borrow money at high interest to sell to the jobber at a loss.

As long as the firms whose failure is much regretted did a legitimate business within the well-defined limits of the constitution (albeit unwritten) of their trade—for books are not merchandise which can always be sold by the yard, pound, or box—they, as well as their natural allies, the retailers, prospered, and books of real literary merit were not necessarily a losing venture. Since they kicked over the traces of their "constitution" and "expanded," they have ruined both themselves and the retailer.

N. S. T.

New York, March 23, 1900.

THE DECLINE OF TEACHING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article on "The Decline of Teaching," which appeared in the *Nation* several weeks ago, was one of the keenest delights I have had since my return last fall from a several years' stay in Europe. I had all along noticed with great regret how mere scholarly specialization, the faddism of pedagogy, child study, etc., an impersonal criticism of literature rather than receptive appreciation, a confounding of the accumulation of facts with real culture, have spread; and how entirely the real aim of education—culture and development of personality—has been lost sight of or trivialized. I realized sadly how little sympathy there seemed abroad for what is to me the ideal of education and teaching—for I have been, and am, a teacher. The various expressions on this subject which the *Nation* has lately published have been to me like unexpected meetings with fellow-countrymen in foreign lands, and I wish to express my appreciation of and gratitude for the position you hold. Perhaps a publication of these "my sentiments" might serve to once more attract public attention to the matter. K.

March 24, 1900.

AN ENGLISH TRANSLATOR OF WIELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Not long ago I came across a volume that throws a little light on German literature in Great Britain in the latter part of the last century. It is what seems to be a scarce translation of Wieland's 'Agathon.' The four volumes, bound in two, aggregate about a thousand pages. The translator does not reveal his identity; the publisher is T. Cadell, London, 1773.

In a brief preface the translator calls the attention of his countrymen to several German writers of the time whose works would repay perusal. He speaks of the Satires of Rabener as having appeared in an English dress, "but in a loose and negligent one." After a brief comment on the excellencies of Wieland's diction as well as its defects, he adds:

"We could also wish that as Mr. Wieland's is upon the whole a moral work, he had in some places checked the sallies of his imagination; which hath led him to give too alluring a picture of the most seducing, though indeed the most excusable of human foibles; and to represent some respectable virtues in too ludicrous a light.

"These are spots which would scarcely be noticed in an inferior writer; but they are the more conspicuous in Mr. Wieland, from their contrast to the extraordinary brilliancy of other parts. In a second edition, it is probable he will correct some things, and improve others."

The last sentence makes it plain that he little knew his man.

It is a matter of common knowledge that German literature was almost unknown in Great Britain till near the end of the last century. When Walter Scott, about 1790, decided to enter upon the study of German, he had great difficulty in getting such books as would serve his purpose. Moreover, some of his translations show that his knowledge of the language was what the Germans would call "sehr lueckenhaft."

The publication of so large a work from a literature practically unknown at the time it appeared, must have been a hazardous undertaking from a business point of view. Can any reader of the *Nation* inform me whether the name of this anonymous translator is now known or even suspected?

Chas. W. Super.

Athens, Ohio, March 23, 1900.

HE, SHE, AND IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This is what we are coming to, now that women are taking an active part in all sorts of organizations, Municipal Art Leagues and the like:

"The President shall have power to drop from the roll of membership the name of any member who may fail to pay his or her dues, after he or she has, in his or her judgment, been properly notified," etc.

It seems very absurd to always have to use the singular pronoun which effects the separation of the sexes when no separation is desired. A Vassar College instructor, who has lately issued a book on logic, has had the courage of her convictions; she saw the absurdity of referring to a student year after year as *he*, when she was addressing a lecture-room full of nothing but *she's*, and she has boldly substituted the word *it*, when she wishes to refer to an indefinite person in the singular. We recommend this usage to much harassed makers of constitutions and others. We already speak of a child as *it;* the Germans do not mind referring to a woman and a wife as *it;* it is but one more step (and the last one, which does not cost) to take in a man as well, under the same pronoun.

C. L. F.

"SUN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers interested in semasiology will be glad to note the following, gleaned from 'Tom Jones,' Book VIII, Chapter 5, apropos of *sun* = present English (colloquial) *sun-parlor:*

"and then, bidding the drawer lay a napkin in the *sun*, she set about the matter in good earnest and soon accomplished it.

"This sun into which Jones was now conducted was truly named, as *lucus a non lucendo;* for it was *an apartment* into which the sun had scarce ever looked. It was indeed the worst room in the house."

For this usage I find no adequate definition

in the dictionaries. The Webster International has nothing that approximates this use. Century has: "2. The sunshine; a place where the beams of the sun fall: as, to stand in the sun (that is, to stand where the direct rays of the sun fall)." Stormonth has "a sunny place." Neither of these is adequate for the Fielding passage. When, however, Murray gets this far with his New English Dictionary, we may perhaps look for the recording of this usage.—Yours very truly, C. R. GASTON.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y.,
March 18, 1900.

Notes.

R. H. Russell has purchased the American copyright of Rostand's new play, "L'Aiglon," and will publish the English translation here simultaneously with publication in England and in Paris.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have in press 'Pictures of the Old French Court,' by Catherine A. Bearne.

Macmillan Co. announce the 'Reign of Law,' a Kentucky novel, by James Lane Allen.

Three novels promised by D. Appleton & Co. are 'The Immortal Garland,' by Anna Robeson Brown; 'Diana Tempest,' by Mary Cholmondeley, author of 'Red Pottage'; and 'The Lunatic at Large,' by J. Storer Clouston.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce 'War and Policy,' by Spencer Wilkinson, the well-known military critic of the London *Post*, and a new novel by "Lucas Malet," 'The Gateless Barrier.'

J. F. Taylor & Co., New York, have in preparation 'White Butterflies,' a collection of tales by Mrs. Kate Upson Clark, and 'The Chronic Loafer,' by Nelson Lloyd.

'A Guide to the Trees,' with illustrations, partly in color, by Mrs. Ellis Rowan, is to be published by Frederick A. Stokes & Co., who, in conjunction with the London house of Heinemann and the Paris house of Hachette, will also bring out a 'Guide to the Paris Exhibition,' with 13,000 illustrations, numerous maps and plans, and coupons available for reducing the prices of purchases in Paris.

The spring publications of Herbert S. Stone & Co. include 'Sir Arthur Sullivan,' by Arthur Lawrence; 'Charles Kingsley,' by Dr. Stubbs; 'When We Dead Awaken,' Ibsen's new play, translated by William Archer; 'The Bending of the Bough,' George Moore's comedy in five acts; 'Some Players,' by Amy Leslie; 'The Religion of To-morrow,' by the Rev. Frank Crane; 'Two Gentlemen in Touraine,' a book of travels; 'The Indians of To-day,' by George Bird Grinnell; 'Recent Advances in Astronomy,' by A. H. Fison; 'Famous Trials of the Century,' by J. B. Atlay; 'The Science of Life,' by J. Arthur Thomson.

By force of old habit and association we lately attributed the reissue by the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde) of Stebbing's 'Raleigh' to another house. The second volume of the new Oxford edition of Burnet's 'History of My Own Time,' edited by Mr. Osmund Airy, will be published at once by the Clarendon Press. It brings the narrative down to the death of Charles II., and contains a full index to Burnet's account of his reign.

The new quinquennial 'American Catalogue' will conclude with the issues of 1899, rather than July 1, 1900; partly because "the 1900 imprint makes a preferable line of bibliographical division" (and will be agreeable to the feelings of those who think 1900 belongs to the twentieth century), and partly because with the new year a linotype method has been resorted to "which will cumulate linotype entries not only yearly but into five-yearly volumes." It is not yet quite certain, though it is probable, that the proposed volume for 1800-76 will be carried through. A benevolent millionaire might easily assure the enterprise, which will give us a registration of the entire American, with a considerable part of the foreign, book output during the century now closing.

Prof. Goodyear's 'Renaissance and Modern Art' (Macmillan), though it bears no intimation to that effect, seems to be an exact reprint, without any alteration, of the book published for the Chautauqua Reading Circle in 1894. It is, as we then said, a good brief general history of the art of the period covered, but, in view of the rapid development of mural painting in this country within the last few years, would have been the better for supplementing in the final chapters.

The sixth volume of the series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) is by G. M'Neil Rushforth, M.A., and is devoted to Carlo Crevelli, an interesting painter whose claim to the title of master it is difficult to make out. He was certainly not a very great man, and he had next to no influence and founded no school; his art was an eddy, not to say a backwater, from the main stream of the Renaissance. Mr. Rushforth frankly recognizes this, and we have no fault to find with his book except his frequent use of the phrase "unerring outlines" as descriptive of Crevelli's drawing. Crevelli's outlines are very clear, very hard, and very decided, and therefore give a sense of sureness of hand, but they are crammed with errors, his drawing being grotesque in his early work and primitive always.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. continue their "Riverside Art Series" with 'Michelangelo,' and both Miss Hurll's text and the reproduction of the illustrations show improvement. It is much the best of the three volumes so far issued.

There is singularly little that is either new or interesting in M. H. Spielman's 'John Ruskin' (Lippincott), and it is difficult to find any other reason for its publication than its opportuneness. The opening sentence is this: "Since Tennyson died, no greater loss has been sustained by English literature in the memory of the present generation than that of John Ruskin." Such slipshod construction, from a writer of Mr. Spielman's experience, can only be a mark of haste, and haste to catch a fleeting opportunity seems to us the dominant note of the book. The chapter on Ruskin's portraits is the only one that can have any permanent value, and it can hardly be thought exhaustive.

Selected Letters of Thomas Gray have been edited with brief notes and introduction by H. M. Rideout, and very prettily printed by Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. Reading Gray's letters, one is continually in good company, and it is right that the best of them should be brought together and placed among the English classics. A series of volumes of selections from the best English and American letter-writers in the *format* here chosen would be a welcome thing.

'The Foundations of English Literature,' by F. L. Pattee (Silver, Burdett & Co.), is the latest of the unending attempts to meet the requirements of a compendious history of English literature of college grade. The period covered extends only to the death of Milton. The author aims to fill in the historical background, and to exhibit the relations between literary history and political and social history. For this purpose Taine (duly modified), Stopford Brooke, and many other guides are laid under contribution. The mechanical arrangement of the book is good, and the headlines, side-notes, and frequent tables ought to be pedagogically useful. Misprints and other errors, however, swarm (*e. g.*, pages 9, 41, 48, 66, 121, 143, 179, 200, 206, 213, 223, 258, 262, 289, 327, etc.). The book is merely a compilation, based largely on second-hand authorities, and immature, but not unskilfully planned, and written by a man of talent.

In the "Rural Science Series" (Macmillan), a recent number is 'The Farmstead,' by Prof. I. P. Roberts of Cornell University. There are many practical suggestions in the book, concerning the location and construction of buildings, the planting of shade trees, shrubs, and flowers, the disposal of drainage, etc., and there is a great deal of sensible advice to farmers, upon the general conduct of their lives, which is not above the comprehension of the more intelligent of them. But there is a lack of the definiteness which is indispensable if suggestions are to be carried out by ordinary people. Much space is wasted in rather diffuse moralizing; space enough to have enabled the author to give much more precise directions concerning practical matters. Expatiation on the very large sums appropriated by Government for the promotion of agriculture might have been dispensed with, and when we read what the expenditures for this purpose at Cornell University alone amount to, we cannot help wondering if the results are commensurate with the outlay.

If we do not notice at length Mr. Fred Mather's 'Modern Fish-Culture in Fresh and Salt Water' (Forest and Stream Publishing Co.), it is only because of the limited class of readers to which it appeals. Nothing better as a manual for trout culture, at least, could well be imagined. The author was a pioneer in this work, and he gives the results of his progress from complete ignorance to very enlightened comprehension of the subject, in language both crisp and clear. In fact, he does all that can be done by words to make the path of the trout-raiser plain. This is Mr. Mather's own preserve; as to the culture of other fish, he calls on many experts to tell what they know.

Volume eight of the sumptuous edition of the 'Oeuvres Complètes de Christiaan Huygens,' published by the Société Hollandaise des Sciences, is now in the hands of American subscribers. It includes all correspondence with and concerning Huygens from 1676 to 1684, with very copious notes and indexes. Two fine plates of medals are given, the latter commemorative of Huygens's work on Saturn and the cycloidal pendulum. The letters show at once a very wide range of interest and of acquaintance.

Current History, after nine years' publication as a quarterly, now becomes a monthly with no essential change of character and none in price per annum. It is published at No. 14 Beacon Street, Boston.

Senate Document No. 154 is a List of Maps and Views of Washington and the District of Columbia in the Library of Congress, prepared by P. Lee Phillips, Superintendent of Maps and Charts. It fills upwards of sixty pages, and goes back to 1782, this earliest date being affixed to 54 colored plans in manuscript of Rochambeau's camps.

A fragment of the geography of England, by H. R. Mill, with which the *Geographical Journal* for March opens, is an account of a section of Sussex. It is intended as an illustration of a scheme for a geographical description of the United Kingdom, based on maps of the Ordnance Survey, together with facts from the Statistical Department so arranged as to "bring out the regional distribution of all obtainable data regarding the country, and to indicate the influence of the forms of the land-surface upon that distribution." The practical value of the scheme would be a knowledge of the actual conditions and resources of the country in view of the "certainty of the ultimate recovery in the value of land in the British Islands, when the fields of America, Russia, and India cease to yield a paying return at low prices." Mr. Mill anticipates that, in the near future, "waterfalls will rival coalmines in industrial value, and the tidal bore in an estuary will determine a centre of dense population," adding that then the study of the country in the light of scientific geography will be a "vital necessity." Mr. R. Codrington contributes a short account of a journey in Rhodesia, including a visit to the scene of Livingstone's death. He found that the tree with its famous inscription was nearly destroyed by decay and borers, and, cutting out a section with the inscription nearly intact, he planted in the heart of the tree-stump one of the iron poles of the Trans-Continental Telegraph. A description of the "sudd" or barrier of floating vegetation in the White Nile contains a recommendation of the introduction of willows and poplars, as has been done on the Mississippi, for the reclamation of the swamps which cause the sudd. Apart from the local advantages (including the provision of plentiful fuel and elimination by the willows of unwholesome matter from the water), the proposed operations would, it is pointed out, have a valuable result in increasing enormously the summer discharge of the Nile in Egypt.

The Royal Society of South Australia at Adelaide, in order to present certain descriptions and illustrations in a more suitable form than is permitted by the size of its "Transactions," has begun the publication of a series of "Memoirs," the initial number of which has recently appeared. It contains the first of a series of papers on the large deposit of fossil remains discovered in the bed of Lake Callabonna, South Australia, about seven years ago. This memoir is entitled 'Description of the Bones of the Manus and Pes of Diprotodon Australis, Owen,' and is illustrated by eighteen plates, many of the figures being of natural size. It is shown that the evidences of the marsupial nature of Diprotodon, which have been reached through other parts of the skeleton, are confirmed by the structure of the feet.

The ancestry of the mammalia is discussed by J. S. Kingsley in his paper on the 'Ossicula Auditus,' published in Tufts College Studies, No. 6. He contends that, while embryology fifteen years ago gave strong support to the theory of a reptilian ancestry of mammals, all known facts now point to a line of descent from amphibians or forms allied to them.

The Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago has issued its first volume of "Publications." It contains a general catalogue of 1,290 double stars discovered from 1871 to 1899 by S. W. Burnham, arranged in order of right ascension with all the micrometrical measures of each pair.

The great public which cannot attend the grand occasional collections of the works of the masters, old or new, may still profit by them. The Amsterdam Rembrandt show was improved for a reproduction of many of the leading canvases, through the Berlin Photographic Company (New York: No. 14 East Twenty-third Street), and the same art publishing-house has been permitted to take advantage of the recent Burne-Jones exhibition at the New Gallery to prepare an ample series of photogravure plates from the chief masterpieces—plates measuring in general about 14x19 inches, in two editions, both limited. The royalties are to go to the Burne-Jones Memorial Fund. The example before us is the well-known "Depths of the Sea," in which the mermaid is relentlessly dragging down the mortal on whom she has fixed her affections, to her submarine palace; startling the tiny fish and sending the bubbles to the surface.

The death is announced on February 21 of the Norwegian writer Jens Braage Halvorsen. Halvorsen was born at Bergen, Norway, March 5, 1845. After completing his studies, he entered upon journalism at Christiania, where he spent the rest of his life. In 1883 he became connected with the University Library, and later organized the special department of Norse literature. In 1881, the first part of his great work, 'Norsk Forfatter-Lexikon, 1818-1880' (Dictionary of Norwegian Writers), appeared, but its immense extent made progress comparatively slow, and its completion must now be left to other hands. Fortunately, the four leading living Norwegian writers, Björnson, Ibsen, Kjelland, and Lie, have already been treated. Probably no other biographical work so minute and painstaking as this has ever been produced by one man. These qualities are most prominently brought out in the article on Björnson, whose publications are of a specially varied character. Every newspaper article is included, the slightest fact in Björnson's life that could be gleaned is recorded, and, in spite of the wealth of detail, the account is presented in an interesting and finished manner, in marked contrast to the style of most bibliographers. Halvorsen's work is the most important single source for the study of nineteenth-century Norwegian literature. At the time of his death, Halvorsen was also an associate editor of the leading Danish encyclopædia. In 1898 the Norwegian Parliament granted him a generous stipend in recognition of his invaluable labors in the field of Norwegian biography.

—By a recent decree of the Russian Minister of Education the admission of first-year students by the several medical faculties throughout the empire is restricted to a fixed number. The University of Moscow is limited to 250, Kieff to 200, Kharkov to 175, Dorpat to 150, Warsaw to 100, Tomsk to 120, and Kasan to 100. This limits the number of students who are permitted to take up the study of medicine to about a thousand each year. To copy this proceeding would not be in accordance with the spirit of free institutions, but, at least, it might suggest to us, in this country, that there is no need of stimulating by State aid the multiplicity of medical colleges existing in so many of our States. For instance, the State of Maryland is asked to give this year $50,000 to medical schools, while the $50,000 asked for by the Johns Hopkins University is hanging in the balance. Why, by the way, has it not occurred to Legislatures to promote the interests of the higher education more frequently by instituting scholarships, to be awarded to the cleverest of the high-school graduates of each year? The educating of young men for the ministry simply because they have an inclination for preaching, and with no regard to their mental and spiritual capacities, it is now recognized, has been much overdone. But to select the cleverest half-dozen youths out of each year's graduating class in the high schools, and to put them in the way of getting the higher education, would be to save from waste a vast amount of intellectual power, and that without any attendant detrimental circumstances. It is not given to every State to carry on a magnificent university of its own, as is done in Michigan, for example; but where there are already distinguished colleges endowed by private means, a great part of the same benefit can be had by the State instituting a large number of scholarships such as we have described.

—The College Latin Series (Allyn & Bacon) presents a new edition of the 'Agricola' of Tacitus by Prof. Alfred Gudeman of the University of Pennsylvania. As a student of Tacitus, at least from his own points of view, Prof. Gudeman easily stands foremost among American Latinists, and his 'Agricola,' when coupled with the 'Germania,' now in press, will doubtless have a wide circulation in our colleges. We cannot avoid the impression, however, that Tacitus should be presented to the young men in our colleges from a point of view less narrowly philological. His peculiar style has, of course, a strong attraction for the student of linguistic expression, but it may be said of Tacitus, if of any writer who ever lived, that what he said is of much more importance than the way in which he said it. And it may be questioned whether Dr. Gudeman's interest in the language as such has not led him into occasional injustice to the thought. His account of the epilogue, for instance, attributes to the author a degree of conscious artistic purpose all but incompatible with real feeling, and yet we beg permission to believe that the feeling was there. No doubt, language study, like other special sciences, must have more or less of a technical vocabulary; but if the classics are to hold their place in general education, classical editors and teachers will do well to pare their special terminology down to the lowest feasible limit, and especially so in undergraduate work. If our memory is not seriously at fault, Dr. Gudeman's notes are rather unusual in their proportion of technical terms. In such works as his large edition of the 'Dialogus de

Oratoribus' this is, of course, unobjectionable, as only readers of special philological training are sought; but the majority of college students who take up Latin have no idea of becoming philologists, and are repelled, rather than attracted, when this phase of the study is unduly pressed. With classes what they are, and will continue to be if they continue to exist at all, we believe that even the style of a Latin or Greek author can most profitably be presented in the language of general literature, rather than that of technical rhetoric. But, not to give a false impression by the earnestness with which these criticisms have been pressed, we close with the statement that Prof. Gudeman's is the best college edition of the 'Agricola' yet produced for English-speaking students.

—Vols. lix.-lxii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Company) are distinguished from their predecessors by the following features of difference. They contain more documents, they cover a longer period of time (namely, ten years for the four volumes), and they represent a wider range of activity. The dates are 1673-1683. Whereas the earlier volumes of this long series were labelled on the back, "Huron," or "Huron, Iroquois," or "Huron, Abenakis, Iroquois," the interests of the order are now so widely scattered that the label on the back of vol. lxi. is "All Missions." They can no longer be tabulated under two or three heads. Vol. lix. is the most striking of these four, and only a few of the early Relations—*e. g.*, those for 1632 and for 1648-49—equal it in importance. The superior value which it possesses is due to the fact that it contains the narrative of Marquette's journey in the direction of the Gulf of Mexico, 1673. The motive which took him and Joliet to the Mississippi was, of course, religious rather than geographical; but while one finds the story of conversions at every stage of the series, the records of American exploration contain few documents which can rank with this. St. Mary's College at Montreal has permitted Mr. Thwaites to use the original MSS. of Marquette, and one sees in every way that special care has been taken with vol. lix. For instance, the maps, facsimiles, and other illustrations are more abundant than usual. Joliet's MS. map of 1674 is reproduced in colors, and seven pages of Marquette's journal have been well photographed for the work. The leading topic which runs through vols. lx.-lxii. is the drunkenness of the Indians, together with the steps taken by the Jesuits to check this favorite and most destructive vice. All tribes are afflicted in the same way, and the evil seems growing, but the Iroquois run to the maddest extremes. By way of consolation, Dablon announces that in 1677-78 1,200 savages have been baptized at the different missions. Without scrutinizing the figures too closely, they show a great apparent increase of strength. A good deal of it, however, is accounted for by the flourishing state of Christian settlements like Sillery, Lorette, and La Prairie, where the fathers have induced hundreds of Indians to become stationary and till the soil. At such places all the children born could be baptized without difficulty. These volumes are also filled with references to acute trouble between the New England colonists and the Indians. Owing to the friendliness of Louis XIV. and Charles II., Frontenac holds the savages in check wherever he has influence over them.

—Our readers may remember that last September Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard made light in these columns of the Government's attempt to remove Dr. Leo Arons from the University of Berlin. He even found it an extenuating circumstance that Dr. Arons was not a stipendiary of the Government, only "an unpaid privatdocent." Moreover, his freedom of teaching, "about magnetism and electricity," was not assailed, because his alleged offence was the open holding of Social Democratic ideas. "And, fourthly, even in this case the Government was not successful." The special disciplinary regulation of June 17, 1898, however, has at last taken effect, and Dr. Arons is removed, although the Philosophical Faculty of the University stood by him, as never having mixed his science and his politics in the class-room. This the Staatsministerium acknowledges, while laying down the law that simple adherence to the Social Democratic party is a disqualification. "The conscious promotion" of the disorganizing aims of a party which nevertheless employs only legal methods of propaganda, is inconsistent, says the decree, with the position of teacher at the Royal University. Other parties may equally seek to alter the existing order in society and state, but the Social Democrats alone are tabu. Dr. Barth, in the Berlin *Nation* of March 3, effectively cites the better way they do these things in France, where M. Waldeck-Rousseau took the Social-Democratic Millerand into his Cabinet as Minister of Commerce, with whom Prince Hohenlohe, nevertheless, contrives to have very friendly relations, as does the German Exposition Commissioner. To the great show about to open, Dr. Barth proposes that the Prussian educational authorities contribute the disciplinary decree against Dr. Arons, handsomely engrossed, as an example of *fin de siècle* Prussian political toleration.

—Lucian of Samosata, himself the most superficial and vivacious of writers, has been in general treated by critics of a profundity and dulness which would baffle even his eager curiosity to know what posterity thought of him. Lt.-Col. Henry W. L. Hime, in his 'Lucian the Syrian Satirist' (Longmans), achieves an agreeable breach of this tradition. His discussion of Lucian's life, writings, and philosophy is nothing if not to the point. A thorough knowledge of the dismal literature of the subject is shown in footnotes, but is not allowed to impede the brisk movement of the text. The mythical conceptions of Lucian on the one hand as a serious adherent of any system of philosophy, and, on the other, as an important agent in the destruction of paganism, are treated as cavalierly as they deserve to be. There is, however, apparently one fatal omission in Col. Hime's reading which puts his performance out of focus—the failure to have read the works of the sophists, Lucian's contemporaries. Without this propædeutic no scholar is competent to discriminate in Lucian's utterances between the formal and the spontaneous, to disentangle the man of genius from the sophist. If Col. Hime had pursued this line of research, he would perhaps have omitted the last word of the title and written "sophist" in its place.

—The death is announced, on March 10, of the Danish composer, Johan Peter Emilius Hartmann. Hartmann (or "old Hartmann," as he was affectionately called by Copenhageners, to distinguish him from his son Emil) was born in Copenhagen May 14, 1805. He belonged to a very musical family; his grandfather, a German by birth, having been the composer of the Danish national air, "King Christian stood by the lofty mast." He received his early education from his father, who was also a musician, and, on the advice of Weyse, then the leading Danish composer, he devoted his whole attention for a time to music. In 1823 he succeeded his father as organist. He then studied law, and in 1827 passed a brilliant examination. He did not, however, follow this profession, but in the same year accepted an appointment as teacher at the new Conservatory of Music. In 1832, his first opera, "Ravnen" ("The Raven," text by H. C. Andersen), was performed at the Royal Theatre in Copenhagen, and it was followed three years later by the opera "Corsarne." In 1836, Hartmann visited the Continent, and formed an intimacy with Spohr, to whom he dedicated his first symphony. From this time composition followed composition in rapid succession. Among these should be specially noted the ballets based on northern mythology, "Valkyrjen" (1881) and "Thrymskviden (1868, opus 67). The funeral march composed for Thorvaldsen's funeral in 1844, arranged for orchestra, is an impressive work, and is still played at the funerals of royalty and other distinguished persons. Many of Hartmann's songs have won a place by the side of the Danish folk-songs, which they so closely resemble. Unlike Gade, Hartmann was comparatively little influenced by contemporary German music. He is the legitimate successor of Weyse. His personality was as typically Danish as his music, and to this union of all that is sweetest and best in Danish art and character he owed the popularity, amounting almost to veneration, which he enjoyed among his countrymen. His slight, though sturdy, figure was a familiar and delightful feature of the Danish capital, and during the last summer of his life he might still be seen treading with well-nigh the briskness of youth the stones of his beloved Copenhagen.

RECENT NOVELS.

Red Pottage. By Mary Cholmondeley. Harper & Brothers.

In Connection with the De Willoughby Claim. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Their Silver Wedding Journey. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

"They that Walk in Darkness"; Ghetto Tragedies. By I. Zangwill. Macmillan Co.

The Queen's Twin, and Other Tales. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Among the romantic illusions that were for many generations carefully cultivated by women who wrote the fiction which was not first-rate, none has passed into such discredited oblivion as the perfect man. Probably neither the woman who wrote, nor those who read, believed in him, but the critical spirit could still be disarmed

by portraits that rejected absolutely the discouraging actual. Since this spirit has waxed strong enough to face the worst of everything, including men, without blinking, very interesting revelations are being made about the despicable beings whom women used to fear, respect, even worship, and are still, unhappily, condemned to love and marry. 'Red Pottage' is one of the most popular novels of the season, and, besides a few dramatically effective situations and chapters of amusing social satire (not, however, novel, either in subject or in treatment), the most obvious reason for its popularity among women is a seemingly authoritative disclosure of man's imperfect nature. Indeed, if character and conscience were in real life a test of the right to liberty, Mr. Scarlett and Lord Newhaven are so devoid of both in a reasonable degree and happy combination that they could not keep out of jail. From almost every point of observation, Mr. Scarlett is a coward and a liar, while Lord Newhaven is a treacherous, vindictive person, who condones crimes and commits them to save appearances, just as the silly women did in the old novels, much to the anguish and dismay of the perfect men. This is an agreeable demonstration of the equality of the sexes, which is emphasized by the elaborate portrait of a country rector, Mr. Gusley, who has as much irrational bigotry and dense vanity as the most ridiculous and intolerable woman ever imagined by man. Having thus shifted, or at least divided, an ignominious burden, the author proceeds to readjust a long-accepted system of punishment for violation of the seventh commandment. It is Mr. Scarlett who, in the end, pays the wages of sin, while the woman who shared the pottage is whisked away in a chariot, smiling beneath a white-feathered hat and clinging to a brand-new bridegroom.

If the author had intended nothing more than to throw conventions overboard, she would have accomplished her object with great spirit; but she meant a great deal more—she had to, or there could be no romance. If a man of such a poor character as Mr. Scarlett's is to be fallen in love with by a woman of such high character, intelligence, and worldly experience as Miss West, he must have qualities that can delude the wise and good. The author has tried to give him such qualities—has tried, indeed, to present a modern, English Tito Melema. In showing a comparable moral deficiency she has succeeded, but has failed to offer, by way of balance, intellectual brilliancy or the charm of a sensuous imagination and great personal beauty. His mother was fond of him, which cannot be said definitely to prove anything to his credit; he had conventional good manners and good looks, which could not seduce a woman with a large choice in a society where such attractions are common, and sometimes clearly allied with others more essential to happiness. Tito Melema is a great characterization, with a moral, and Hugh Scarlett, subjected to critical examination, is a feeble assumption without any meaning. To make a serious and probable representation of a complex nature, it is not enough to be fluent and paradoxical and audacious; one must see a character whole as George Eliot did, as Jim Bludso saw his duty, "A dead sure thing." Otherwise, even in clinging to the convention of the perfect man, there is less danger of achieving perfect nonsense.

In writing about the 'De Willoughby Claim,' Mrs. Burnett has very happily transferred her attention to scenes and characters remote from that British aristocracy, magnificently depraved, to which it has so long been riveted. There is freshness and sincerity in the presentation of the De Willoughby's ugly duckling who, accepting his inability in any way to sustain the family credit, withdrew from Delisleville across the Tennessee Mountains, where, as Tom d'Willerby of no family at all, he distributed groceries, the mail, and a cheerful philosophy of life from the crossroads store. When a mysterious woman died at Blair Cove and left a girl baby to the world's charity, there was nothing for Tom to do but adopt her and struggle to assure her a condition of happiness which his romantic soul believed in, but which his own youth had completely missed. The tale of Sheba's bringing up is both amusing and pathetic, and the intensity with which, for her sake, Tom, after the Civil War, pressed the De Willoughby claim, excites in the reader the most agitated partisanship. There is no reason (except to make a long story) why the author should have embarked on a quest for Sheba's father. Nobody wanted him, and the claim could easily have been won by Tom. The chapters devoted to James Baird are not only extraneous, but offensive to taste and morals. The English novel has always had more scope and variety than the novel in other languages (French, for instance), but it may sink into a degraded convention unless the women novelists can be persuaded or coerced into suppressing something of what they know about adultery and seduction.

The psychological fact persistently urged in 'Their Silver Wedding Journey' is that cheerful adoption of an impersonal attitude towards life which in sensible people marks the passage from youth to middle age. In 'Their Wedding Journey' the world outside of Mr. and Mrs. March was a battle-field where, as everybody else must recognize, the important spectacle would be the splendid fight and ultimate victory of the Marches. Twenty-five years later the Marches have retired from the fray, are content to be obscure and comfortable and amused; willing to bestow the wisdom of experience on active combatants, yet able to enjoy their dinner in the presence of broken hearts and shattered hopes. Being blessed with a capacity for interested observation, and with bodily energy, they have escaped dulness and flesh, the common companions of well-to-do middle age. Mrs. March's impetuous sympathies have more nervousness and less passion than in youth, and Mr. March has settled into a deliberate marital attitude towards "nerves," compassionate but firm; in the worst moments gallantly suppressing his talent for ironical comment. On the whole, Mr. Howells has conducted the Marches over the longer part of the journey of life with great vivacity and faithfulness to probability in character, making a permanent contribution to literature of types of good Americans. The descriptive passages of the book have those literary qualities which serve to present the oldest themes in new and agreeable lights. There is a great deal of description, some of which, in the author's fashion, is over-minute, but it can all be taken pleasurably, at easy stages, like the journey.

When Mr. Zangwill writes about his own people, though it be only to scourge or ridicule, he discards that air of jaunty flippancy which he deems appropriate to discussion of the rest of the universe. He has recently added a number of tales to the 'Ghetto Tragedies,' and published all in a volume entitled 'They that Walk in Darkness.' Each tale presents an incident in Jewish life, with aspects of Jewish character, thought, religious belief, and superstition; the comedy or tragedy being alike involved in the sublime traditions and the melancholy destiny of the race. Mr. Zangwill is not to be suspected of dealing tenderly with his own, or of loving whom he chasteneth, but his wrath is sincere, his jeer bitter, and his race sympathy profound. It is exciting to perceive the spirit of the denunciatory prophets rising up, and, as it were, throttling levity and shallow cynicism. Some passages throb with the passion of the Hebrew poets and seem to fall naturally into an exalted cadence. The conception of Peloni ("Nobody"), in the tale of "Noah's Ark," is poetical, and the situation in which he is placed (an actual situation more fantastic than a dream) finely imagined. Mordecai Manuel, the self-appointed judge of Israel, in the same tale, is an exaggerated satire, showing beside Peloni chiefly as an outburst of too long repressed bad taste. Fortunately, his occupations kept him away from Grand Island, so his vulgar figure does not intrude on the picture of Peloni of the Frankfort Ghetto planting the banner of Israel in an American forest, under the wings of screaming eagles, and taking Niagara's clouds of shining spray to be an omen of promise and a symbol of the divine presence that once hovered over the Tabernacle.

Of the story-tellers who restrict themselves chiefly to one locality, none escapes more completely than Miss Jewett from the flat, stale, and unprofitable. Yet her range is narrow—a bit of New England Coast or upland, a few plain women, generally old, and some garrulous seafaring men. The author appears as a perpetual summer-boarder, constant to farm and fishing-boat, loving the land and sea and people with a love that extracts beauty from barrenness, and divines a heroic soul beneath the most unpromising exterior. Without falsifying either inaminate or human nature, she transmutes their ruggedness into pure gold and arranges a harmony without one jarring note. In her latest volume, 'The Queen's Twin,' "A Dunnett Shepherdess" and "Aunt Cynthy Dallett" illustrate that perfect rendering of her subject which she has come to through love and patience.

A BIBLICAL ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

Encyclopædia Biblica. A Critical Dictionary of the Literary, Political, and Religious History, the Archæology, Geography, and Natural History of the Bible. Edited by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne, M.A., D.D., etc., and J. Sutherland Black, M.A., LL.D., formerly Assistant Editor of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Volume I., A to D. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899. Pp. xxvii+columns 1144.

This great work, by a fitting and graceful act of homage, is dedicated to the memory of the lamented Robertson Smith. In it his

plans are carried out, if they are also expanded, and the impress of his exacting spirit and of his genius for scholarly detail is evident on every page. Not that he had a direct part in the preparation of this book, but it comes from the school of Biblical criticism which he did more to found than any other man, and is upon lines which he had himself laid down.

It was a remarkable fate which made the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (a staid and respectable body of useful information) an instrument of wars, turmoils, and revolution in the placid sheep-cotes of English scholastic theology. Rumors reached from time to time the ecclesiastical mind of England of strange doings beyond the sea; faint and sluggish upheavings came and went; the inertia of the great mass was untouched. But such articles, pointed, plain, definite, as came in volume after volume of the 'Britannica' from the pens of Robertson Smith and his colleagues, English and foreign, could not be evaded or their force minimized. Then came the beginning of the new things in which we now live so much that we cannot reckon them truly; the old sleepy calm was broken; the Semitico-Biblical—a prodigious word must fit a prodigious thing—renaissance was here.

It cannot, therefore, be wonderful that both editor and publishers felt, when it was all over, that these articles might fittingly be gathered out, and, with due emendation and expansion, form the basis of a purely Biblical Encyclopædia. But that was not to be at the hands of Robertson Smith. Overwork, ill health, and, not least, a perception that the times were changing and men's views changing with them, and that the point when these could be profitably crystallized had not yet come, counselled delay. So Robertson Smith waited and planned with his old assistant editor, Dr. Black, and did not live to see the fruition of his hopes. But before his death Canon Cheyne had formally and at his desire taken up the task he was compelled to lay down, and the present work appears with the names of Cheyne and Black as co-editors on the title-page. "The work is undertaken by the editors as a charge from one whose parting message had the force of a command."

So much historical justification there is for the existence of this book; but there is also ample justification in its plan and scope. There does not exist another book just like it in English or in any other language. The one with which it will of necessity be most frequently compared is the Hastings Bible Dictionary, of which two volumes have now appeared. Both are dictionaries of the Bible, but the points of contrast are many. Each is excellent in its own way, is adapted for its own circle, and has its own defects. It is not our purpose to review the Hastings Dictionary; but some reference to it is unavoidable and even called for in view of the singular coincidence in time of appearance. One difference stands out clearly. In the first volume of the Hastings Dictionary only one foreign scholar appears, and he of marked conservative leanings, Hommel of Munich. In this first volume of Cheyne—we speak so of this 'Encyclopædia Biblica' because, from beginning to end, in all Old Testament matters and in much that belongs to the New, it is dominated by Canon Cheyne—in this first volume, then, there are no less than sixteen foreign writers, German, Dutch, and Swiss. The one is an international undertaking which will be accepted and quoted on the continent of Europe as well as in England and America; the other is adapted for the use of the English-speaking peoples. The one appeals to scholars and specialists; the other more to the body of the Christian Church. It will be the boast of some articles in the one that they give the best presentation of their subjects that exists in English; it is true of many articles in the other that they give the best short presentation that exists in any language.

This, certainly, can be pressed too far. The greater part of Cheyne ought to be intelligible to an educated man, and there are many articles in Hastings of first-hand value. Yet the standards set in the two books are essentially different. One little point will be an ample illustration. In Hastings the LXX is occasionally quoted for the form of names; in Cheyne every name is given in all the forms occurring in Swete's digest of LXX readings and in Lagarde's text of Lucian; further, the Vulgate, the Peshito, and the minor Greek versions are quoted freely. In fact, one of the most impressive things in the book is the almost concordantial completeness of the text-critical apparatus; from the Greek and Hebrew texts appeal is constantly made to their MSS. and versions, and again to the MSS. of these versions. But there is a side in which the Hastings Dictionary must be admitted to be fuller and more satisfactory. In it we find excellent, if cautious, articles on such theological subjects as Atonement, Conscience, Conversion. All that is here ruled out. Apparently such rubrics have been deliberately excluded, from a feeling that the time was not yet ripe for an adequate treatment. The following sentence from the Preface (p. xi) might be clearer in itself, but it is clear enough when read in connection with these omissions:

> "The editors of the present work are keenly interested in the subject at present called 'Biblical Theology'; but instead of attempting what is at present impossible, they have thought it better to leave some deficiencies which future editors will probably find it not difficult to supply."

As to the theology of the Bible, as opposed to what "is at present called 'Biblical Theology,'" it, too, is largely shelved. Another sentence from the same page of the Preface is illuminative here: "Unfortunately the literary and historical criticism of the New Testament is by no means as far advanced as that of the Old Testament." This, it must be confessed, is rather a shock. We had thought that though the battle was still raging in the Old Testament camp, students of the New Testament had managed to settle some things. Evidently, from this point of view, the work in the New Testament is still to do, in spite of the Tübingen school and all that followed. "It may not be long before a real history of the movement of religious life and thought in the earlier period will be possible. For such a history for the later period we shall have to wait longer." So the theologian is out in the cold.

But if we need not look for the thought of the Bible in this dictionary of the Bible, we must give the editors credit for some fresh departures. These are especially in two directions: the one, greater consistency in recognizing the corrupt state of the text of the Old Testament, and greater thoroughness and method in emending it; and the other, an attempt to keep abreast of recent critical archæology. The degree to which both of these lines of departure are followed up, is undoubtedly due to the influence of Canon Cheyne. We cannot quarrel with him over this. The text of the Old Testament is most corrupt in many passages, and that should be recognized. It may, however, be a question to what extent our resources enable us to correct it with any certainty; conjectural emendation of a Hebrew text is an easy and delightful amusement if you do not stickle at reproducing the original. Again, we cannot have too much archæology if it is authentic and sober; and it is perhaps well that the school of mythological interpretation should have an opportunity to express itself fully, even though its results may be neither authentic nor sober. Those who remember what mutations of opinion have befallen students of profane mythology and folk-lore, who have seen the sun rise and set, and words wax eloquent of strange things and become silent again, will maintain here a dubious attitude.

We may seem in this last to have laid more stress on mythology than on archæology, but the stress is warranted by the facts in the book. Canon Cheyne has charge in it of all the rubrics which could offer material for possible mythological treatment, and he has made full use of the opportunity. For examples we need only refer to Abyss, Adam and Eve, Asmodeus, Azazel, Babel, Behemoth, Creation, Deluge. That, of course, was to be expected; Canon Cheyne's position on the matter is well known and this is his dictionary. Yet when he adds two and a half columns to Benzinger's already excellent note on Azazel, the impersonality of the editor suffers; and this is not the only case of such composite authorship.

After all this, it of course goes without saying that what is commonly called the "critical theory," by which is meant the radical theory, of the Old Testament is that represented here. Such is the case, also, in the Hastings Dictionary. But Cheyne is more consistent, and the treatment of the New Testament is as frankly "critical" as that of the Old. Thus, a large number of important articles for New Testament criticism are by Schmiedel of Zurich, who may be described as of the school of Overbeck and Holtzmann. He writes, among others, on Acts, Apollos, Barjesus, Barnabas, Barsabas, Bartimæus, Name of Christian, Clopas, Cornelius, Council of Jerusalem; the conclusions are Overbeckian throughout. Bousset of Göttingen has Antichrist and Apocalypse; with these, Abomination of Desolation should have gone in all strictness, but it is treated by Cheyne. Von Soden of Berlin has Annas and Caiaphas, Aretas and New Testament Chronology. Jülicher of Marburg groups Colossians and Ephesians; Sanday has Corinthians. All the ecclesiological articles—Apostle, Baptism, Bishop, Church, Deacon—are treated by Armitage Robinson, who, also, in conjunction with Budde of Strassburg, writes upon the Canon. It need not be said that these articles are all excellent from their standpoint, and form important contributions to their subjects. Those by Robinson, especially, cannot be praised too highly; Corinthians is disappointing. Apocalyptic literature is dealt with by Charles, and Apocrypha by James; both articles are well-nigh perfect, yet the student will gain something by comparing Charles's parallel articles in Hastings.

The articles on natural science are full and excellent. The plan has been generally followed of collaboration between a specialist in science and a Bible student. This eliminates the crankiness which usually pursues the one, and the ignorance which regularly afflicts the other. Thus, the botanical articles are by Thiselton-Dyer, Director of the Royal Gardens at Kew, and N. Maclean; those on zoölogy, except Dog, by Shipley, the Cambridge zoölogist, and N. Maclean; those on Amber and the different gems, by Ridgeway of Cambridge.

On the Old Testament the bulk of the most important articles is by Cheyne. Some of these are especially good, though marked by his usual arbitrariness in dealing with the text, and confidence in guesses. Yet the fact that Amos is the first prophet whose discourses have come down to us is not interpreted, as is so often done, that he was the first prophet who had any discourses to be handed down. Also, in Canticles, Budde's view is frankly accepted; but it is not clearly enough stated that the view is really, in all essentials, Wetzstein's. It is worth while to lay stress upon this, for we have here one of the cases where an Orientalist was enabled to see more clearly than the Old Testament students of his time. So it is quite possible that the mystical interpretation which Lane defended with Sufi parallels, may yet be accepted. That form of Eastern literature has, so far, been studied in a very one-sided way, and by professed theologians hardly at all.

It is obviously impossible to deal with or even to mention all the important articles. We gather out a few. Driver, after Robertson Smith, treats Chronicles but disappointingly; Kamphausen, Daniel; Moore, Deuteronomy, excellently, with other most careful notes on Ashera, Ashtoreth, Baal, etc. R. S. Kennedy has articles on domestic utensils and cooking; Hope Hogg, apparently, on the tribes; Benzinger, on archæological subjects such as Circumcision, frequently in collaboration with Cheyne; King of the British Museum, on Assyria and Babylonia, admirably, and Pinches on the topography of Babylon. Old Testament Chronology is treated by Marti; and that of the New, by Von Soden. The exhaustive article by Simcox on "Clean and Unclean" should become classical; there is also a full one on Cuttings (of the flesh), by Ball; those by Nöldeke on Arabia, Aram, Aramaic, Amalek are shorter than we might desire from that veteran scholar. Canaan is treated by Jastrow, and there are very many geographical articles by G. A. Smith; but, curiously enough, that on the Dead Sea has been assigned to Lucien Gautier. Guthe has Diaspora; Schmidt of Cornell, Covenant; and Tiele and Kosters, suitably, Cyrus.

Of the scholarship, in the narrower sense, of this book there can be next to no criticism. Here there is no amateurish work; it is all finished to the finger-nail. The only side on which the learned contributors ever fail is one that is weak in almost all theologians. The scholarship in Arabic is by no means on a level with that in Greek, Hebrew, Aramaic, and Assyrian. We have noted a few instances. Col. 63: *sāmūr* does not exist in the native Arabic lexicons, *pace* Golius and Freytag, nor is *shammūr* "identified by the native lexicographers with *almās*"; the word occurs in one very curious tradition, apparently of Jewish origin, and was unintelligible to the Arabs. One authority ventured the opinion that it was *almās*, but confessed that he had no trustworthy tradition as to its meaning (see *Lisān*, vi, 98). Col. 171: in Qur. xxiv, 31, there is no allusion to bells attached to ankle-chains; that cannot be got from the text, nor do the commentators recognize it. They refer the "beating with their feet" to the clinking of the *khalkhāls*. Col. 343: the Arabic verb *'atana* does not mean "contracto brevique gressu incessit," but *'atala* means "he stepped quickly in anger," and this word is sometimes confused with *'atana*. There is no connection here with the Hebrew *Āthôn*, "she-ass," a word which belongs to the most primitive Semitic. On the other hand, all the uses of the Arabic root *'tn* can be derived from *'atān* in one or other of its senses, and all these senses go back to "ass." In this article, reference should also have been made to Ahlwardt's 'Chalef Elahmar,' pp. 341-360. Col. 465: the Arabic root *drw* does not mean "to drip," but "to flow with blood"; the essential idea of the root is that of being "habituated or attached to a thing," and so it is used of a vein from which it is hard to stop the flow of blood. Further, the noun *dirw* or *darw*, when used of a tree, distinctly involves the idea that it is aromatic or sweet. The *tarum* of Pliny suggests in this connection the root *drm* (see Lane, pp. 1789-90). Col. 501: the Arabic root *sdf* does not mean "blackness"; it means "to be dark," and it is used only of the darkness of night. It belongs to that curious class of words in Semitic which have two exactly opposed meanings, and it describes both darkness and dawn. Nor, col. 975, does the root *trz* mean "to be hard"; it means first "to be dry" (see *Lisān*, vii, 178). Col. 1064: the better attested form of the name is Khadir; for various references see Goldziher, 'Arab. Philol.,' ii, p. 1, and *Lisān*, v, 332. These, it will be noticed, are the merest details; yet attention should be drawn to them, as they are symptoms of weakness in one direction. Still, if lexicographers of Hebrew will not take the trouble to learn Arabic, it can hardly be expected of any other Old Testament students.

The get-up of the book cannot be too highly praised. The different sizes of type, their arrangement on the page, the margin, the proof-reading, the presswork, and the paper are all excellent. Only the Syriac type fails sometimes to come out clearly; perhaps its breadth of face is responsible for this. At the foot of p. xiv and top of p. xvii of the preface the diacritical marks have not been inserted with the different *h*'s, and the passage is thus reduced to nonsense. Further, it might be of advantage to point out in some clear fashion the beginning and end of long insertions in parentheses; as at present printed, careful reading is needed. Such pious reflections as we have, *e. g.*, in col. 56, would be better away; they inevitably suggest, "Methinks, the lady doth protest too much."

We trust that the issue of the remaining volumes will not be unduly delayed; the book marks an era for England and America in the study of the Bible.

East Tennessee and the Civil War. By Oliver P. Temple, formerly an Equity Judge of Tennessee, and author of 'The Covenanter, the Chevalier, and the Puritan.' With portraits and map. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. Royal 8vo, pp. xvi, 588.

Chancellor Temple is one of the very few of the leading loyalists of East Tennessee who still survive. A prominent lawyer and Whig of Knoxville, he was one of the Presidential electors who in 1860 cast the vote of Tennessee for Bell and Everett. Though himself a slaveholder, he was active in the opposition to secession, and in the canvass which resulted in voting down the calling of a convention to consider it. When secession became dominant in other parts of the State, along with Johnson, Maynard, Nelson, Brownlow, Baxter, and others he declared for unconditional adherence to the Union though emancipation should follow. To this principle he adhered, and was one of the foremost in the organization of Union men who made East Tennessee what Burnside found it to be, "one of the most loyal sections of the United States." Chancellor Temple was known to every officer of our army as a steady friend, a wise adviser, and a cultivated gentleman.

Probably no other living man is so well fitted to write the inner history of the loyalists of the Holston Valley. Portions of the records which have been preserved could be fully understood only when read with the comments of one who intimately knew the spirit which ruled the people, as well as the reasons which modified the outward form of their action in critical junctures. This is especially true of the important Knoxville-Greenville Convention of 1861, and the movement to make a separate State of East Tennessee. In the first two years of the civil war, when Johnson and Maynard were fugitives and Nelson was in a Richmond prison, Temple's good temper and diplomatic skill enabled him to remain at home and sometimes to soften the rigors of Confederate rule over his fellow-citizens. When the summer of 1863 saw the national occupation of Knoxville, his influence with the authorities at Washington was again in active use, and he had a part in everything which interested his region till reconstruction was complete. Such an outline shows that his book must be a weighty authority in the history of his time.

He has prefixed a sketch of the first settlements on the Watauga and upper Holston, and paid a high tribute to the character of the Scotch-Irish pioneers. In these Covenanters, as he loves to call them, the author finds in ample measure the qualities which the poet tells us "constitute a state." In Sevier, Shelby, Robertson, and the Campbells he finds fit leaders for such a people.

His treatment of slavery is a temperate discussion of its relations to disunion, from the standpoint of a slaveholder who became an abolitionist only when emancipation was both the logical and the practically necessary outcome of the war. He recalls with pleasure the early anti-slavery tendencies of the people of the lovely valley, and the fact that Embree and Lundy published, unmolested, at Jonesborough and Greenville, the first anti-slavery journal printed in the United States. Here the *Genius of Universal Emancipation* appeared before Lundy transferred it to Baltimore and joined hands with Garrison. Here were held conventions of the Manumission Society in 1815 and 1816, attended by the men of that region whose names, Judge Temple says, "stand for the very best of the old East Tennessee families."

When he meets the question why this tendency towards freedom in the South changed to the fierce championship of slavery extension, the author makes too much of the coincidence with active anti-slavery agitation at the North, and too little of the temptations of wealth found in cotton-planting and slave-breeding. He does justice to the purpose of the Republican party not to meddle with slavery in the slave States, but seems to think there was, besides, an "abolition party" seeking to enforce emancipation everywhere by political action or armed revolution. Southern writers, even the fairest, are very slow to understand that the uncompromising "Abolitionists" of the North were non-resistants, without political organization, never voting, and working only by appeals to the consciences of men: to the slaveholders to free their own slaves, to others to make a public sentiment which should condemn a great wrong. No more purely moral agitation was ever conducted.

In a similar way, too much is made of what are called Northern aggressions against the South, where an intelligent Northern writer could cap every instance with an earlier and greater aggression against the North, which goes unmentioned even by so devoted a nationalist as Judge Temple, who rejoices that the terrible system has passed away. But this mental attitude, with its persistence, is part of the history of the time, and one of the greatest factors in determining events. In this book we study it in the case of an able man who subordinated it to his patriotism; but whether in such a case, or in one where, unchecked, it swept on to revolutionary disunion, it is an element in the chain of causes and effects which history must master and analyze. In a man of so fine a spirit and so kindly a temper as the author, the study becomes calmly philosophical, undisturbed by prejudices and antagonisms. From every point of view, therefore, Judge Temple has given us a valuable contribution to history.

Recollections. 1832 to 1886. By the Right Honorable Sir Algernon West, K.C.B. Harper & Brothers. 1900.

In their general character these recollections resemble the memoirs of Charles Greville. They are rather more genial in tone, and it is somewhat remarkable that almost the only person of whom Sir A. West has nothing good to say is Greville. Both writers show us unconsciously the true spirit, the esoteric life of the English aristocracy. They are steeped in its traditions and its prejudices; they could no more see the world except through its eyes than they could breathe without the atmosphere. In fact, we might say that it is not the world that they see, but a small sphere within it. *That* they know thoroughly and describe charmingly. In style, Greville is superior; Sir A. West has not the gift of cutting exquisite figures in cameo, like his predecessor. Nor does he give as clear an idea of the course of events. His allusions presuppose an acquaintance with history which readers of the rising generation may not possess. As political history, indeed, these recollections are decidedly superficial and disconnected; we do not even get a clear idea of what went on under Mr. Gladstone's ministry, with which Sir A. West was so intimately connected.

Possibly, in the case of Mr. Gladstone, this reticence is due to the fact that Sir A. West's position was such as to seal his lips. He was Gladstone's private secretary, and was intrusted with many important negotiations concerning which secrecy was a point of honor. The extent to which this "chastity of honor" prevails in the English civil service he illustrates by describing the conduct of some one in office who became aware, through his relations with Sir Stafford Northcote, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, that a dissolution was to take place the following day.

"On his way home from the Treasury he met a great friend of his, not blessed with an income which exceeded the bounds of avarice, who was a candidate for an English borough, and who told him he was going abroad that evening; and yet my friend felt so bound by honor not to divulge a secret which had come to him through official sources, that he let the other start with the full knowledge that on arrival at his destination he would receive the news that would necessitate his immediate return. Some there were who said his conduct was Quixotic; others, who reverenced the sacred traditions of the Civil Service, knew that he was right."

Plutarch could hardly tell a better story of the virtue of a Roman hero; and from other passages in this book we get the impression that the purity alleged to exist in the English service is found at least in those departments with which Sir A. West was familiar. He obtained office when young, by virtue of his birth and high connections, and gained preferment perhaps not more on this account than because of his efficiency. As a member of the Board of Inland Revenue, he devised the substitution of the beer tax for the malt and other duties—the example having been set by Mr. D. A. Wells in this country—a measure which was carried through with such *éclat* by Mr. Gladstone as to drive a great brewer, who had tried to argue against him, out of the House of Commons, with the exclamation that Gladstone knew more about the business than he did himself. Of the particulars of this very considerable achievement, however, no information whatever is given in this volume. No such word as tax, or duty, or excise, or beer, or malt appears in the index, which upon examination we find to contain only the names of persons. As there are some twenty-five columns in it, comprising about forty names each, the extent of the author's personal acquaintance can be imagined. In fact, his book is preëminently a chronicle of society; the governing artistocracy of England viewed in its social relations by one of its members. Such a chronicle is, of course, of limited interest to American readers, but even they can appreciate the genial description of the pleasant life of perhaps the most fortunate, as well as the most worthy, aristocracy in the world.

Good stories, however, are the common heritage of mankind, and Sir A. West's recollections of titled personages are enlivened with many entertaining anecdotes, a few of which may be quoted. Sir Fitzroy Kelly retained his place as Chief Baron of the Exchequer after he was disqualified by years, and Lord Bramwell remarked in excuse for the shortness of his stay at a certain commissioners' meeting, that he had left Kelly on the bench in an important case, and, "as he is blind, deaf, and when I came away was fast asleep, I tremble for the judgment." Sir A. West was the last clerk that was appointed to the public service without any examination whatever, and he reports that when examinations were introduced, it was the practice to nominate three candidates for any vacancy. Sir W. Hayter, the Secretary to the Treasury, was not to be deprived of his patronage in this way, and kept in reserve two very dull boys, who he felt sure would never succeed, to run in competition with the friend whom he wished to appoint; "and this ruse went on till at last, after constant defeats, one of his 'idiots' was finally successful."

It is almost incredible, but our author assures us that not a fortnight before the breaking out of the Franco-Prussian war Lord Granville, the Foreign Secretary, was told by the Under-Secretary, Mr. Hammond, "a man of long and vast experience," that the world had never been so profoundly at peace, and that there was not a cloud on the horizon. Speaking of the absence of corruption in Parliament, Sir A. West asked the speaker, Mr. Brand, if he had ever known or heard of money passing in our time for the vote of a member. Mr. Brand replied: "No, never; the nearest approach to it I have ever known was our finding a suit of clothes for an M. P., who stated that without them he would not be able to attend the House at a critical division." Sir A. West was on very intimate terms with Mr. Gladstone, whom he speaks of throughout with almost reverential affection; but he throws no really new light on the man. Perhaps the most characteristic story that he has to tell is that of Mr. Gladstone's fixing a certain hour as all that he could spare for a very important appointment; but, coming a little early, and falling into a discussion whether the myth of Helen of Troy could be connected in any way with the history of the Virgin Mary, the whole time slipped away before he thought of the business in hand. We might continue to repeat Sir A. West's good stories indefinitely, but these examples will show their quality; and, as he has brought his recollections down only to 1886, we hope to have them presently continued.

An Introduction to the Prose and Poetical Works of John Milton. By Hiram Corson, LL.D., Professor of Literature in Cornell University. Macmillan. Pp. xxii, 303.

John Milton: A Short Study of his Life and Works. By William P. Trent. Macmillan. Pp. ix, 285.

Among the signs which the last year showed, that American literature is gaining in health, we must note the publication of two books on Milton, by one of our literary veterans and one of our younger scholars. That Prof. Corson and Prof. Trent should both select the sublimest of English writers for thoughtful, learned, and lively study is a better assurance against the "provincialism" or "colonialism" which so many anxious Americans are deploring than a score of novels of the Camp or idylls of the Sierras. Milton is that one of the world's literary sovereigns whose temper and tone bring him nearest to the men of his own time who created America—the one with whom the heirs of the Puritans can feel most entire sympathy; yet he is so completely above the ordinary herd of even the better English writers that such intelligent discussions of his genius as these books show, are evi-

dences of interest in universal as much as in English literature. Both authors have felt this preëminence of his; without hesitating an instant to express their sincere estimate of Milton's character and powers, they are above the contemptible temper of patronage which is rife among our self-complacent decadents, and stands entirely ready to show what creditable things Milton might have done had he not been tainted with bibliolatry and classicality, allowing his technique to be obscured by ill-placed Puritanism. Prof. Corson and Prof. Trent both feel awed in the presence of such thought and style as Milton's, and would no more patronize him than a pedestrian would patronize the Matterhorn.

With entire respect to Prof. Corson's long services to literature, his work must be pronounced less valuable than Prof. Trent's. It is called an Introduction to the Works of Milton, and consists of the autobiographical passages of Milton's works, transcribed and translated, a careful exposition of his views on Liberty, and of "Lycidas," "Comus," and "Samson Agonistes" at length; the whole preceded by a careful, but not specially profound essay on the poet's life and genius. On what principles these poems form part of an introduction to the works of Milton, being, as they are, among those very works, it is hard to say. And in spite of the popular theory that a good translation is quite as satisfactory as the original, if not more so, it must be maintained that Milton's Latin writings lose their race and reality in a version almost as much as those of Cicero and Tacitus. Latin prose came more easily to his pen than English, and what appears the ferocity of his controversial work cannot be perfectly understood till it is read as it was written.

Prof. Trent's systematic discussion of Milton's literary purposes and achievements is altogether valuable. It may be well thought that his Southern associations have helped in this direction. Southern taste has never outgrown—all honor to it—the ancestral respect and love for the old English classics, and Prof. Trent exhibits this reverent temper enlivened by a thorough acquaintance with modern criticism, and enforced by entire independence of thougnt. Fearless as he is in dealing with modern critics like Dowden and Pattison, it is to be regretted that he, as well as Prof. Corson, falls to some extent into the modern fad of sneering at Macaulay. Macaulay's maturer taste condemned his youthful essay on Milton for its floridity, and he was always very modest as to his powers of literary criticism; but the appearance of that essay in exactly the time it did—the days of the Holy Alliance—was cheering to the friends of freedom in a way we can hardly imagine now. It is sufficiently amusing to read that Milton's courtship is equalled in mystery only by that of Sam Houston, the hero of San Jacinto; but—to take a single admirable sentence out of a hundred—we do not often read truer, acuter, or more sensitive criticism than this: "Dante, be it spoken reverently, has faults which his admirers minimize, and Milton has merits of which his admirers have hardly made enough."

The Economic Writings of Sir William Petty, Together with the Observations upon the Bills of Mortality, more probably by Captain John Graunt. Edited by Charles Henry Hull, Ph.D., Cornell University. 2 vols. Cambridge (Eng.): The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

A conspicuous feature of recent economic study in Great Britain and in the United States has been a larger and more scholarly interest in the development of economic thought before Adam Smith. At no time has the significance of what has happily been termed the "pre-Adamite" literature been wholly lost upon economic students. Francis Horner, whose comprehensive grasp and rare analytical power exerted a stimulating influence upon economic writing in the beginning of the present century, records in 1801 how he and Lord Webb, in utter despair of mastering Adam Smith's discussion of value and price, had comforting recourse to Rice Vaughan, Harris, Bodin, Lowndes, and Locke. "In the evening," he writes in his journal under date of April 18, 1800, "after lounging about an hour over Bell's Travels, to dispel the drowsiness of rapid digestion, I set myself down to Pinto," the Portuguese-Jewish author of the tract on currency. In the same way, the Earl of Lauderdale knew and used his Petty and his Harris. Even David Ricardo, whose literary preparation for an epoch-making treatise was in the main the 'Wealth of Nations,' read Dudley North's 'Discourse on Trade' with surprise and amazement in 1822, and wrote to McCulloch: "I had no idea that any one entertained such correct opinions as are expressed in this publication, at so early a period."

McCulloch himself was bibliographer and book-collector even before economist; but it requires only a glance at the terse, snappy notes of the 'Catalogue of the Library of a Political Economist' and the 'Literature of Political Economy' to realize that the bluff Scotchman read as well as owned the books which he alternately lauded and damned, and that it was something more than a bibliophile's passion which induced him to edit certain of the rarer early economic tracts for Lord Overstone and for the Political Economy Club. Finally, in Richard Jones's forgotten essay on 'Primitive Political Economy' and Travers Twiss's more pretentious 'View of the Progress of Political Economy since the Sixteenth Century' we have substantial recognition of the interest and value of early economic writing.

But, after liberal allowance has been made for independent spasms of interest, the fact still remains that modern study of the history of economic thought is directly traceable to the "historical movement" in economic science, with its scholarly exponents and its enthusiastic disciples. Of this impulse, the amazing bibliographical knowledge of William Roscher, revealed in the notes to the 'Political Economy,' and more consecutively in the encyclopædic 'History of Political Economy in Germany,' was perhaps the most distinct element. Indeed, it was Roscher's brilliant monograph on 'Contributions to the History of English Economic Thought'—still awaiting editorial resurrection from the learned society's Transactions in which it is entombed—that informed Continental students of the variety and significance of early English economic literature. And if, in the light of more intimate acquaintance with its subject-matter, Roscher's essay no longer enjoys the rank of absolute excellence once accorded it, we are still without any more satisfactory survey of the same field.

For this long neglect of the beginnings of what Prof. Cossa has termed the external history of economic science, no one fact is more largely responsible than the practical inaccessibility of the early texts. Issued for the most part in limited edition, often enjoying the ephemeral circulation of tracts of the times, much of the pre-scientific literature has passed beyond the reach of the ordinary student, even when listed in the catalogues of antiquarian book-dealers. The enterprise of Foulis and his Glasgow press, and the editorial activity of McCulloch, added to the available copies of the more important monographs. But McCulloch's collections of 'Scarce and Valuable Tracts' early became—as some one has feelingly noted—scarce and valuable volumes, and the Scotch reprints are hardly less difficult to procure than the original editions. In issuing the more important economic texts in easily accessible form under efficient editorship and equipped with scholarly apparatus, the English-speaking economists have not only been outstripped by their French and German associates; they have been completely outclassed. The existing state of affairs is well illustrated by the necessity under which the ordinary economist labors, of making the acquaintance of James Anderson's important corn-law tracts in the German translation of Brentano and Leser.

In the last few years the way to better things has at least been pointed. Mr. Henry Higgs has edited Cantillon's 'Essai' for Harvard University. An excellent edition of John Hales's 'Common Weal of England,' bearing the imprint of the Cambridge Press, is the enduring monument of the late Miss Lamond. Prof. Ashley has justified the existence of his Economic Classics series by a reprint of Thomas Mun's 'England's Treasure by Forraign Trade'; and the inclusion of William Douglass's 'Currencies of the British Plantations' in the Studies of the American Economic Association suggests a useful line of publication for that body. But nothing in the way of modern economic reprint compares in any degree favorably with the superb volumes which lie before us. It has been known within professional circles for the last four or five years that Prof. Hull of Cornell University was engaged in editing Sir William Petty's economic writings, and students and teachers have found some solace for the embarrassment of inaccessible texts in the sure confidence that the editorial work would be well done. But, even to this class, the perfection of the finished task will come as a revelation, while, to the larger body, 'Hull's Petty' will slip easily into place as a complete and definitive edition, reducing the original texts to mere bibliophilic treasures.

The student of Petty, be he amateur or specialist, has here from title to cover the comforting sense of contact with an editor who knows all that he tells, and who has not told all that he knows. The fulness and detail of the descriptive notes, the indefatigable zeal with which tantalizing gaps have been bridged, suggest the completeness and exhaustiveness of high scholarship. More than this, Prof. Hull's editorial contribution is no mere exercise in economic microscopics or antiquarian dragging of the ponds. In the brilliancy of introductory interpretation, in the judicial discussion of moot points, and in the restraint of tempting

annotation, he reveals the equipment of a trained economist and the capacity of a gifted scientist. That it should be given to a young American economist to edit, under the generous auspices of an English university press, the writings of the most distinguished British economic thinker before Adam Smith is noteworthy. That the result should be a work so definitive in its completeness and so supreme in its scholarship is even more remarkable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, T. Passages in a Wandering Life. London: Edward Arnold.
Beeching, Rev. H. C. The Poetical Works of John Milton. Henry Frowde. $1.90.
Benson, Archbishop E. W. The Apocalypse: An Introductory Study of the Revelation of St. John the Divine. Macmillan. $3.50.
Berenson, B. The Florentine Painters of the Renaissance. New ed. Putnams. $1.
Brinton, S. Correggio. London: George Bell & Son; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Buchanan, R. Andromeda: An Idyll of the Great River. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Cook, Rev. C. A. Stewardship. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Coppock, J. B. Volumetric Analysis. Whittaker & Co. 50c.
Craft, Mabel C. Hawaii Nei. New ed. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Dunlop, J. M. Anatomical Diagrams: For use of Art Students. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Dyke, H. van. The Toiling of Felix, and Other Poems. Scribners. $1.
Franz, Prof. W. Shakespeare-Grammatik. Lemcke & Buechner.
Gardiner, J. H. The Forms of Prose Literature. Scribners. $1.50.
Gore, Rev. C. St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans: A Practical Exposition. Scribners. Vol. II. $1.50.
Hendrick, F. Railway Control by Commissions. Putnams. $1.
Herrick, Stella M. Amabel. Cincinnati, O.: The Editor Pub. Co.
Hichens, R. The Slave: A Romance. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Hill, J. W. The Management and Diseases of the Dog. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Hobart, F. B. D. Dinkelspiel: His Conversationings. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Hobson, J. A. The War in South Africa. Macmillan. $2.
Höffding, Prof. H. A History of Modern Philosophy: A Sketch of the History of Philosophy from the Close of the Renaissance to Our Own Day. Translated by B. E. Meyer. Macmillan. 2 vols.
Hoogt, C. W. Van der. The Story of the Boers Narrated by their Own Leaders. Harpers. 50c.
Johnston, C. Kela Bai: An Anglo-Indian Idyll. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Jókai, M. Debts of Honor. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Kimball, A. C. Exercises in French Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 12c.
Kipling, R. The Absent-Minded Beggar. Brentanos.
Laboulaye, E. Contes Bleus. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.
La Nation et l'Armée. Par un Colonel. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 2 fr.
Lee, Jennette. Kate Wetherill: An Earth Comedy. The Century Co. $1.25.
McManus, S. The Bewitched Fiddle, and Other Irish Tales. Doubleday & McClure. 75c.
Merrill, W. P. Faith and Sight. Essays on the Relation of Agnosticism to Theology. Scribners. $1.00.
Milton, John. Complete Works. [The Oxford Miniature Milton.] Henry Frowde.
Mitchell, S. W. The Autobiography of a Quack and the Case of George Dedlow. The Century Co. $1.25.
Monier-Williams, Sir M. A. Sanskrit-English Dictionary. New ed. Henry Frowde.
Parker, Clara. An Eventful Night: A Comedy of a Western Town. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Pelton, D. Greenwood: An Elegy. W. L. Allison Co.
Rabelais. Gargantua and Pantagruel. Translated by Sir Thomas Urquhart and Peter Le Motteux. 2 vols. Books I.-III. London: David Nutt.
Reaney, Mrs. G. S. Under Orders: Not His own Master. Chicago: Advance Pub. Co. 75c.
Shakespeare, W. King Lear. [Chiswick Ed.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 35c.
Simmons, W. E. The Nicaragua Canal. Harpers. $1.25.
Stiles, Dr. H. R. A. Hand-Book of Practical Suggestions for the Use of Students in Genealogy. Albany, N. Y.: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Watson, H. B. M. The Rebel. Harpers. $1.50.
Wickersham, J. A. Enoch Willoughby: A Novel. Scribners. $1.50.
Wildman, R. As Talked in the Sanctum. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.
Wilson, Dr. G. R. Clinical Studies in Vice and in Insanity. Edinburgh: W. F. Clay; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Woodberry, G. E. Makers of Literature: Essays on Shelley, Landor, Browning, Byron, Arnold, Coleridge, Lowell, Whittier, and Others. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wright, Rev. A. The Gospel according to St. Luke in Greek: After the Westcott and Hort Text. Macmillan. $2.50.
Zittel, Prof. K. A. von. Text-Book of Palæontology. Translated by Prof. C. R. Eastman. Macmillan. $6.

Henry Holt & Co., New York,

Have Just Published

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The earlier part of this book deals with the stirring events of the French Revolution, the Baroness herself being rescued after having entered the death cart. Quieter passages follow dealing with the court of Frederick William III. and Queen Louise, and giving touching incidents of her friendship for Frau von Alvensleben. Later we get intimate glimpses of Napoleon, Josephine, Barras, and other most interesting people of the time. Events are treated, not from the historian's point of view, but as they affected the lives of two very charming women of the same rank, but of very different nationalities. The book has had a phenomenal success in Germany.

Godfrey's The Harp of Life 12mo. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1900.

The Week.

With the increasing surplus in the national Treasury it was inevitable that a demand should come for a reduction of "war taxes." The monthly excess of receipts over disbursements is from $8,000,000 to $10,000,000. It is a dangerous condition in more ways than one. Not only does it threaten a withdrawal of money from the channels of business which may produce mercantile distress in the midst of plenty, but the existence of a surplus is a constant and fatal temptation to all sorts of reckless and dishonest schemes in Congress to turn the overflow into private pockets. The ship-subsidy scheme is one of this kind. There was a Republican saying current during the first Cleveland administration, when the Treasury surplus was embarrassing, that "it is easier to manage a surplus than a deficit." This rather taking aphorism proved to be wholly erroneous. Whenever we have a deficit, we can choke it by increasing the rates of existing taxes or by devising new ones. When we have a surplus, innumerable schemes are devised for spending it, usually wasteful, often corrupt, always demoralizing. The most disastrous financial crisis the country ever experienced was brought on by the surplus revenue in the early thirties. The fantastic plan of distributing the money to the several States was followed by fantastic schemes for internal improvements, and these led to crazy speculations in land and town lots. The disastrous panic of 1837 followed. This experience proved that a surplus is not an easy thing to deal with if it has to be managed by a series of town meetings.

In the Senate of the United States on Friday stern punishment was visited upon Senator Beveridge by Senator Pettus, to the delight of all the other Senators and of the country at large. The venerable statesman from Alabama, figuratively speaking, took the "boy orator" from the Hoosier State across his knee and gave him what he richly deserved. The solemnity and sense of duty with which the act was performed were so manifest in his air and manner that the whole Senate was convulsed with merriment. It was the only kind of punishment that Beveridge could understand. It has made him a laughing-stock for the whole country. To understand the merits of the case we must recall the sophomorical speech made by Beveridge at the beginning of the session on the Philippine question, in which the commercial advantages of the island formed the sole theme, all moral considerations being excluded. That speech called forth severe rebuke from Senator Hoar, who said that it reminded him of a speech once made upon an exceeding high mountain where all the kingdoms of the world were offered to Jesus Christ on condition that he would fall down and worship the devil. The next time that Beveridge appeared in a conspicuous light was in connection with the Porto Rican tariff bill. Here he attempted to assume a high moral rôle. He wrote out a speech adorned with high-flown periods about duty, justice, equity, principle, public faith, honor, etc., and sent it out to the press, designating the day on which it was to be made; but on the day before the moving appeal was to be delivered, a message from Mr. McKinley called the boy orator to the White House, and the result of an interview there was a postponement of the speech, which was announced to all the newspapers, but with the assurance that it would be delivered a little later. When the time came for its actual delivery, word was sent to the expectant press to omit all after a certain designated headline. This headline was the place where the appeals to duty, justice, equity, principle, public faith, and honor began.

Senator Davis's speech was a trenchant exposure of the miserable makeshift which the Administration has at last wormed itself around to urging as the proper party measure to pass for Porto Rico. He called it "a pernicious mockery of a tariff," and asked Senator Foraker if he wanted to go on the stump and defend a bill which could truthfully be said to leave rum free while taxing flour. The Ohio Senator was observed to "wince" under this thrust, and no wonder. Senator Davis speaks for that larger sentiment of the Northwest which has always looked askance at the Dingley standard of protection, and which is now in open revolt against protective doctrine *in excelsis* that denies the rights of humanity and the sanctions of morality. Mr. Davis has evidently burned his ships behind him on this question, and his speech must have a great and lasting influence. The latest McKinley compromise, which Senator Davis ridiculed, is, in effect, a confession that the bill is indefensible, and a promise not to keep such an oppressive measure in force more than two years anyhow. Then the attempt is made to throw the veil of charity over the whole two-faced and apologetic affair, by talking about the relief of the starving by our generous gifts of food. On this it is enough to quote the scornful comment of the *Correspondencia de Puerto Rico* of March 15: "A thousand times we repeat it—what we want is not alms, but justice and liberty and work."

Speaker Henderson's incoherent letter on the Porto Rican bill shows how the pervading muddle has finally got into his own brain. He sees horrid visions of "Trusts and syndicates" desiring to get their tobacco and sugar into the United States free of duty. Never shall they take their unholy profits so long as a Henderson is in the chair. But 85 per cent. of their blood money he is, on his own showing, perfectly willing to give them. And after two years they may have the whole 100! This is a defence of the bill which will need amending as seriously as the bill itself. And the Speaker's tactful allusion to the Senate as infected with "cowards," and "the body upon which the great interests always concentrate their efforts to defeat proper legislation," will greatly promote harmony between the two houses. If any Representative had made such a railing attack upon the Senate from the floor of the House, he would have been unparliamentary, and the Speaker would have been compelled to call him to order. But Mr. Henderson always carries his stump oratory about with him, and leads his party by waving his arms and shouting "Glory Hallelujah!" It is dangerous, however, for successors, either in the White House or the Speaker's chair, so to conduct themselves that they make the public more than ever lament their predecessors. After Speaker Reed, Mr. Henderson makes the chair of the presiding officer of the House appear absolutely vacant.

Governor-General Davis appears to have joined the great rightabout army. When, in his report to the War Department, as in his statements before committees of Congress, he urgently recommended free trade with Porto Rico, he overlooked, he now says, the fact that a tariff would be needed to raise the "necessary funds." As this applies to the distant future, as well as the present, it seems to put Gen. Davis in opposition to the pending bill, which is to be in force only two years. But perhaps he had not heard of this limitation, and will need another interview in which to adjust his views to it. In any case, the procession of reversed officials in this Porto Rican business is now sufficiently large and ludicrous. It includes the law officer of the War Department, its chief, the President, and committees of both houses of Congress. The spectacle is one of extraordinary frivolity on the part of those set to administer the affairs of a great empire. Men who so freely confess that they were silly and short-sighted in their formal

official recommendations of two or three months ago, can hardly persuade the world that they have become, on a sudden, infallibly wise. Gen. Davis's masterly movement to the rear completes the impression that the whole thing has been done under military orders.

Debate on the army bill in the House on Wednesday week brought out the fact that Secretary Root's surprising statement as to the expenses of the war in the Philippines related only to actual expenditures in Philippine territory. By leaving out the cost of arming and equipping the new volunteer regiments, and of taking them to Manila on costly transports, Mr. Root was able to state that the war had thus far caused the expenditure of "only" 48 millions, while the estimate of the funds necessary for the army during the coming year calls for no less than 120 millions of dollars. The country must thank Representative Wheeler of Kentucky for having unearthed these facts, and for calling its attention anew to what it is costing the taxpayers to carry on a war of absolute subjugation. The declaration of our intention to treat the Filipinos exactly as we have pledged our word to treat the Cubans, would lead to an immediate cessation of hostilities, and of the waste of life and treasure now going on day and night. In this connection it is interesting to note the statement from Washington in the Baltimore *Sun* that the country need not expect any reduction of the present large army in the islands, and may see another regiment, and possibly more, ordered to Manila before the summer begins. Yet it is just eleven months ago since Gen. Otis expressed absolute confidence that 30,000 men, or less than one-half the number he now has, would be sufficient to end the war and restore peace in short order. This is the same General whom Bishop Potter, after a four days' acquaintance, declares to have shown "an able and full comprehension of the [Philippine] difficulties, and a rare wisdom in meeting them."

How profitable it has been to rent vessels to the Government for transport service was clearly manifested by the Secretary of War's statement of expenses transmitted on Thursday to the Senate. From this it appears that the total disbursements have been $25,789,409 since the outbreak of the war, for which sum 49 vessels were purchased and 128 chartered for long and short periods. It appears that four of these hired ships earned in less than two years sums very considerably greater than their assessed valuation. Thus, the *Zealandia* was paid $83,266 more than her worth, the *Indiana* $19,166, the *Ohio* $26,338, while the *Senator*, valued at $400,000, received no less than $134,375 more than that sum for her voyages to Manila. Here is a profitable trade, indeed, beside which the gifts of the pending subsidy bill cut but a comparatively small figure. What ship-owner would not heartily welcome a war with the Filipinos or any other people on such terms? It must be understood, of course, that these great sums paid represent the net profits of the owners, since all running expenses, crew wages, and cost of refitting were borne by the Government. Nor must the fact be overlooked that the four most favored ships were owned by Pacific Coast companies, in one of which a United States Senator was much interested. The Senate should probe further into this bit of War Department extravagance, and at least find out why the transport *Senator* was not originally purchased by the Government and $134,375 saved. It is to be hoped that as these matters are understood more clearly, the House will reverse its action in throwing out an amendment to the army bill transferring the transport service to the navy, where it rightly belongs.

The views of the Rev. Percy S. Grant on the Philippine question were presented afresh by that gentleman at Cooper Union on Sunday evening. There were three good reasons, he said, why we should keep the Philippines. The first was the good we can do them "if we handle them rightly"; the second was the good they can do us if we handle ourselves rightly; and the third was the good we can do to Great Britain, anyhow. The second reason we find reported in a morning paper in these words:

> "It will be good for us to keep the Philippines, not alone on commercial and political grounds, but for the reflex action of the responsibility of governing them, because if we don't deal justly and wisely with the natives, we'll have an insurrection on our hands all the time."

The reflex action upon which Mr. Grant places so much dependence has, we are glad to observe, been put in operation in Guam, where Gov. Leary has been issuing a series of decrees and general orders to that end since last August. On the first of November he adverted to the reflex action of intoxicating liquors in the island, feeling obliged to issue a proclamation against it. "Drunkenness," he said, "the chief source of all crime and trouble in this island, must and shall cease." Class distinctions engaged his thoughts on the 19th of January last, leading him to call public attention "to the fact that the natives of Guam are not 'damned dagoes' nor 'niggers,' but are law-abiding, respectful human beings." He refers also to "several disgraceful cases of assault committed by persons attached to this station, interfering with the functions of local officials, ruthlessly destroying private property, viciously violating the sanctity of native homes, etc., worthy only of the dastardly cowards and blackguards who were implicated in these acts." These praiseworthy efforts of Gov. Leary to promote reflex action on the Americans in Guam seem to have been little appreciated by the Navy Department, for Gov. Leary has been recalled. It seems, also, that the orders issued by him were intentionally suppressed by the Department until a few days ago.

There is evident need of a Governor in the Philippines who shall give stricter attention to the promotion of reflex action. Although the Rev. Mr. Grant saw no drunkenness or disorder among our soldiers in Manila, and although Bishop Potter found a model government there, the official reports are, nevertheless, somewhat depressing. Thus, in Monday morning's dispatches to the Associated Press we read that the transport steamer *Sherman* sailed from Manila on Sunday for San Francisco, and that she has on board 175 military prisoners and 25 insane. On the same date the transport *Sheridan* arrived at San Francisco, bringing 110 military prisoners, 11 naval prisoners, and 11 insane. These routine reports are seldom noticed nowadays, yet the fact was given out at San Francisco the other day that the military prisons at Fort Leavenworth, and at Alcatraz Island, California, are now full, and that it will be necessary for the Government to erect a new penitentiary for the increasing number of criminals coming from our new possessions. Of course this is a serious reflection on the state of discipline in the Philippines, and it is easy to see that "the good they can do us" is not yet so pronounced as to call for much exultation.

The industrial situation in Chicago is very deplorable. For more than a month, building operations have been practically suspended, and not a few employers declare that they shall be obliged to give up their business or transfer it elsewhere. The labor unions in the building trades have followed the example of the great manufacturing corporations, and formed a Trust or combination which is absolute in theory, and nearly so in practice. The extent of their power is shown by the statement of Mayor Harrison that on election day (April 3) the non-union contractors and employers of Chicago need expect no protection from the police. Most of the policemen, he said, would be needed at the polls, and if these non-union employers did not see fit to shut down for the day, they would have to take the consequences. Mayor Harrison mentioned only non-union employers, but his threat was, of course, directed equally against the non-union laborers. They know very well what it signifies to have it officially proclaimed that the officers of the law will not defend them against assault.

Mayor Harrison's excuse cannot be accepted for a moment. He is charged with the preservation of the peace, the enforcement of the laws, the protection of life and property; and there is no more valuable property, to the individual citizen and to the community, than the right to work. It is this fundamental right which has come to be involved. Laborers have the right to form unions or combinations. They have the right to strike for higher wages and for shorter hours. They have the right, as individuals, to refuse to work for any employer upon any grounds whatsoever. That right is implied in the right of free contract. The question whether a combination of laborers has a right to insist, as a condition of working for an employer, that only members of the combination shall be employed, is a different matter. This question now presents itself in its most extreme form, owing to the federation of the labor unions. In the construction of a large modern building many trades are engaged, and in the cities the unions in these trades practically monopolize them. In Chicago the leaders of the unions have combined in what they call the Building Trades Council, and the officers of this council now dictate the terms on which each and all of the members of the several unions shall be employed. If any union is dissatisfied, its grievance is made the cause of all, and if the employer does not remove it, every workman on his building will stop work until he does. It is no longer a question of individual rights, but of the rights of a combination to secure a monopoly for its members. It is, too, a struggle between just government and mob rule.

The presentment handed in by the grand jury of New York on Friday is one of the most remarkable deliverances that ever came from such a body. The grand jury and the District Attorney of a county are supposed to be always the closest possible allies in the war upon crime. But this grand jury report that they failed to receive from District Attorney Gardiner "any practicable help or effective coöperation" in their endeavor to investigate the corruption in the Police Department. They say that, while they found indictments against one comparatively inconspicuous official, as they were in duty bound to do upon the District Attorney's advice, they believe this police captain's superiors were criminally responsible to an even greater degree for the open violation of law in his precinct. Yet the District Attorney told them that no complaints had been made to him, and that he did not know of any violation of law! The grand jury set forth in plain words the shocking facts about the maladministration of the Police Department, charging in so many words that in their relation to disorderly places, and places in which the law is violated, the officials, from the roundsmen up to the Commissioners, are guilty of "criminal ignorance and criminal negligence." One thing ought to result from this presentment—the prompt removal from office of the District Attorney. Mr. Gardiner himself realizes that he cannot ignore such charges, or avail himself of any technicalities to prevent their consideration by the Commissioner who is now investigating his conduct. This inquiry ought to be pushed to a conclusion as promptly as possible, to the end that the Governor may remove the derelict official without a day's unnecessary delay.

The English papers express great disappointment and indignation at the size of the award made by the arbitrators in the matter of the Delagoa Bay Railroad. It had been generally assumed that the award would be greater than Portugal could pay without English assistance, for which a compensation would be received. The award now made, however, is only about $3,200,000 and interest, or one-third of what was expected, and this sum can be easily secured by Portugal without recourse to English assistance. Some of the English papers go so far as to say that the Swiss arbitrators were influenced by "Anglophobia" in their decision, but this view encounters the difficulty that the United States Government, as well as that of Great Britain, represented claimants. Nor does it appear that the arbitrators followed other rules than those of the common law in their allowance of damages. The original contractor failed to complete the contract according to its terms, and the Portuguese Government held the contract and the concession of the right to build the railroad forfeited. Under such circumstances, the contractor might perhaps establish a claim for damages to the extent of his actual disbursements, or what is called in law a *quantum meruit*. Such damages the arbitrators have allowed, with interest at 5 per cent. But the claim for prospective profits, which some experts figured at from $15,000,000 to $30,000,000, could hardly be allowed, on legal grounds, unless the contractor had completely performed his agreement. It is reasonable to suppose that the arbitrators found that the contractor was in default, in which case he could not easily make good his claim for prospective profits. The anticipated overthrow of the Transvaal Republic deprives the matter of much of its political significance, as in that event the railroad would cease to be available in military operations against the British possessions.

It now costs rich people who die in Great Britain nearly $90,000,000 per annum to pay their final taxes. In a recent debate in the House of Commons, apropos of the death of "Chicago Smith" and his contribution of $4,500,000 in death duties, Sir William Harcourt said that when he was Chancellor of the Exchequer the death duties yielded £10,000,000. He then proposed an increase estimated at £3,500,000, which Parliament enacted, but, instead of a total of £13,500,000, the amount had now swelled to £17,500,000. In other words, the increase had been double the estimate. It had been predicted that under this death-tax millionaires would disappear. On the contrary, he said, millionaires had been found who would never have been discovered otherwise. Chicago Smith was one of this class. Sir William regretted the tone of levity with which the present Chancellor had referred to the author of this windfall to the Treasury, "because you ought not," he said, "to look a dead millionaire in the mouth." If Chicago Smith had known how much merriment his death would cause in Government circles, he would perhaps have spent as much as twenty shillings per day for his own use, instead of limiting himself to fifteen, as Sir Michael Hicks-Beach estimated his personal expenses.

Signs of the democratic ferment at work in Germany are multiplying at the very moment when the pitch of absolutism seems reached. One of them is the proposal, urged with renewed earnestness by the various radical groups in the Reichstag, to pay salaries to members. Another is the introduction of obstructionist tactics to defeat offensive measures before the Reichstag. Resort to parliamentary filibustering, such as Biggar or Parnell might have envied, was successfully made by the Social Democrats a couple of weeks ago, and led to scenes of disorder unequalled since Bismarçk's Kulturkampf. The particular occasion was the attempt to pass a law regulating the sale of books, pictures, etc., and placing public entertainments under stricter police control. This so-called "lex Heinze" has aroused great excitement and antagonism in German artistic and literary circles, where it is denounced as a dangerous attack on the freedom of literature and art. Deputations of distinguished men—Mommsen, Menzel, Sudermann, and many others—waited upon the Chancellor to protest against the measure. But the Conservative and Clerical majority in the Reichstag went steadily ahead passing its opening clauses, until the Social Democrats took to moving obstructive amendments, and finally compelled the Government to carry the matter over into April. The incident shows once more how the Social Democrats have attained their great political power in Germany, not as Socialists pure and simple, but as the one party standing consistently for liberty, and furnishing the readiest weapon against arbitrary government.

THE UNDERSTANDING AS TO CHINA.

Through the publication of the official correspondence covering Secretary Hay's Chinese negotiation, we are enabled to see on what boldly original lines it was conceived, and with what complete success it was carried out. When the London *Times* recognizes the event as a "signal success of American diplomacy," Americans ought not to be behindhand in their praise of a great achievement by their Department of State. It is no mere triumph of a selfish national interest. What Mr. Hay asked for our merchants and investors in China was simply an equality of right and privilege with all the world; and in securing it for ourselves, he won a guarantee of it for all. Hereafter, so far as the solemn commitments of seven great Powers can assure it, any citizen of any of them, or of any other nation, who wishes to embark in the Chinese trade, enjoys the certainty that he will have to submit to no discriminating tariff taxes, or harbor dues, or railway charges. This is a noble work of peace. Mr. Hay has extended the saying that he serves his party best who best serves his country, and converted it into the larger truth that he serves his country best who best serves the whole world.

From the diplomatic point of view the negotiation appears simplicity itself. No treaties: just an exchange of official notes. No alliances: no playing off of one Power against another; simply a quiet inclusion of them all in a common policy. This is simple enough, but so is any feat of skill when you know how to do it. It took high talent to arrive at the novel conception, and delicate tact to press its acceptance. Both design and execution have been masterly. If the plan of negotiating treaties had been elected, months or years would have been consumed, and a jealous and mischief-making Senate would have spoiled the work in the end. As it is, Mr. Hay lays before Congress a completed transaction. The Senate can neither add to it nor take from it—neither make nor mar it. It is *fait accompli.* And the Secretary displayed the nicest skill in urging his project simultaneously upon the various Powers. His shrewd proviso that no agreement should be binding unless assented to by all, led all the chancelleries to agree almost before they knew it. Great Britain was, of course, willing to promise the open door; it is her historic and invariable policy. But Germany? Well, Von Bülow may have thought it safe to make a promise contingent on France's acceptance, which might never be given. The French Foreign Office may have counted on Russian reluctance; Count Muravieff on Japanese aversion, and so on around the circle. In the end, Mr. Hay appeared smiling with his whole sheaf of acceptances, and the thing was done. It was an exceedingly daring and skilful stroke of diplomacy.

Of the commercial and industrial outlook which the agreement opens for China, and foreign interests in China, it is superfluous to speak. The Empire is rapidly unlocking its doors. In the mere matter of projected and feasible railways, the near future is sure to see a marvellous transformation in the conditions of life and commerce in China. These railways will be built, though with foreign capital, yet with the consent of the people. Somehow or other, they are getting over their old superstitious notions about the *Feng-Shuey,* those obstructive spirits of the air and water which formerly made railway building sacrilegious. Great trunk lines will soon cross the vast domain. And the interior resources which will be opened to the world's industry and trade are only beginning to be realized. Mr. Joseph Walton, an English member of Parliament, recently journeyed 1,600 miles up the Yang-tsze, and found a "land of peace, plenty, and civilization," possessing the richest alluvial soil, which grew two or three crops a year, and where the people were so in a world by themselves that they had never heard of the war with Japan. This is in the British sphere of influence; and the French and Germans are developing their "leases" with feverish activity. What France might naturally be expected to do in her Chinese territories may be inferred from what she has done in Cambodia and Tonkin. In 1885, seven-eighths of the imports into those regions were English and German. The French promptly clapped on protective duties, and cut the proportion down to one-quarter. So exclusive commercially is the French colonial policy that a European diplomat sorrowfully said that an island or continental strip acquired by France might as well be blotted off the map, so far as the world's trade is concerned. In China, at least, thanks to Mr. Hay's diplomacy, French possessions, like those of all other countries, will be open to ships and goods of all nationalities on equal terms.

It has been alleged that the Secretary had pointed questions addressed to him, in the course of the negotiation, by some of the Foreign Ministers. They wanted assurances about an open door in the Philippines. They were even said to have expressed innocent surprise at the sudden desire for an open door by a nation that kept its own doors slammed and double-locked in the face of all foreigners. Nothing of this appears in the official documents, whatever may, in fact, have passed. We presume that Mr. Hay declined to be drawn into the discussion of a side issue. If he had said that American protection was a dead issue, he would not have been wide of the truth. His own negotiation puts an official seal of ridicule upon our old "home-market" and "what-have-we-to-do-with-abroad" contentions. The day of our narrow, home-keeping protection, with its Chinese-like hatred of foreign devils, has gone for ever. The conception of a world's market, in which we and all must compete, without fear or favor, is the informing spirit of Mr. Hay's large-minded diplomacy; and for this, and because it is a splendid instance of American sagacity winning a peaceful victory, we extend to him our warmest congratulations. His Chinese negotiation, with his enlightened canal treaty, will make his occupancy of the State Department memorable.

POLK AND M'KINLEY.

Mexico and our Mexican war have all along been a stone of stumbling and a rock of offence to our latter-day Imperialists. Their leading political doctrines were distinctly repudiated, one after the other, by this country in 1847-48. The flag was up over a vast territory completely at our mercy, but it was hauled down. As at the end of the Spanish war, the opportunity to bless an inferior people by robbing them of their country was tempting a half-century ago. Bishop Potter's new light about the duty of a strong nation to take over the goods of a weak one, is only a revamping of Birdofredom Sawin's great moral discovery made in Mexico itself:

> "—— our nation's bigger'n theirn, an' so its rights air bigger."

The danger that Mexico would fall into helpless anarchy was just as great as that the Philippines would; and President Diaz's declaration the other day that his country is now enjoying great prosperity, and showing every sign of contentment and progress, is the sufficient comment on the futility of such prophecy.

All these things, we say, have been difficulties to the argumentative Imperialist of our day, who has met them in the good old way of looking them full in the face and discreetly passing by. But Prof. Bourne of Yale University has given a new point to the Mexican analogy by his paper in the April *American Historical Review,* on "The United States and Mexico, 1847-1848." What he abundantly shows by his researches in contemporary documents is that there was, in 1847, a powerful movement for the annexation of all of Mexico. It affected both parties, and was found in all parts of the country. It had its spokesmen in the press, in Congress, in political conventions, even in the Cabinet. And all the arguments which were used in 1898 to justify the taking of the Philippines were brought into play in 1847 to force the absorption of the whole of Mexico. The reason why the earlier clamor failed while the later succeeded is to be found, ultimately, in the fact that in 1847 a man was living in the White House.

Glance for a moment at some of the evidence which Prof. Bourne collects in

his striking article, going to prove that a President with his ear to the ground in 1847 would have got an imperative command to annex all Mexico. England wanted it, as we know she wanted us to take the Philippines. "People are beginning to say," wrote Bancroft to Buchanan from London, "that it would be a blessing to the world if the United States would assume the tutelage of Mexico." Religion and humanity were made a cloak for greed, fifty years ago as now. "Civilization and Christianity" were invoked against the policy of withdrawing our troops and leaving Mexico a prey to "barbarism and anarchy." The military forwards were for keeping all. Gen. Quitman posted to Washington in hot haste to urge upon the President a plan for the permanent occupation of Mexico. Commodore Stockton, "the Dewey of the conquest of California," as Prof. Bourne happily calls him, was for an indefinite occupation of all conquered territory. Not even the "strenuous" argument was wanting. The Hunker Democracy of New York came out in State convention, with language which clearly marks the political ancestry of the present Governor, and asked, respecting the field opened in Mexico, "Shall we occupy it? Shall we now run with manly vigor the race that is set before us? Or shall we yield to the suggestions of a sickly fanaticism, or sink into an enervating slumber?" Lest any reader should think this an unblushing plagiarism from the man who "thinks with his fists," Prof. Bourne gives the reference to *Niles' Register*.

The final crisis in 1847 was reached in the White House. Polk's unpublished diary, of which Prof. Bourne has had the reading, shows how uncertain and divided were the Cabinet and the Senate, and how he was led up into a high mountain to be tempted, as was his latest successor in office. The situation was awkward. The Mexicans, though hopelessly beaten, had refused the President's terms of peace. It was necessary for him to recommend to Congress the next step. What should be the tenor of his message? That was the question anxiously debated by Polk and his Cabinet all through the month of November, 1847. Finally, on the 20th, Buchanan, who had been asked to make a draft of this part of the message, advised the President to tell Congress that, in case the Mexicans continued to stand out, "we must fulfil that destiny which Providence may have in store for both countries." There it was—Destiny, with its religious attachment! Annexation by inertia and drift! But Polk, instead of putting his ear to the ground, put it to the Constitution and his own sense of personal dignity and responsibility, and told the Cabinet, as he wrote in his diary, "I thought this would be too indefinite, and that it would be avoiding my Constitutional responsibility." Strange idea of a President's duty! And Polk went even further in his eccentricities, and declared that he would not consent to any result of the war inconsistent with its avowed object, and actually told Buchanan that "I did not desire that anything I said in the message should be so obscure as to give rise to doubt or discussion as to what my true meaning was"! Evidently the "emperor of expediency," as ex-Speaker Reed calls him, had not then mounted the throne.

Prof. Bourne does not press his *de te fabula*. He leaves his racy and instructive material to speak for itself. We can but imitate him in this; only remarking on the fresh proof he has given us of the immense place which personality, after all, holds in political evolution. Polk has long been a butt of Republican vituperation, but what a giant of firmness and courage he appears beside that reed, shaken in the wind and tossed, which the Republican party has at last put in the White House! Amid the nicely balanced forces of 1847, it was Polk's personal weight which turned the scale and kept us out of Mexico. Under far less real pressure, in 1898, the President went with what he thought to be the crowd, and got us into the Philippines. Destiny, in solemn capitals, confronted Polk as it did McKinley; but Polk looked it out of countenance with Personality. But this, unfortunately, was precisely what nature left out in mixing the elements of McKinley.

GOVERNMENTAL COMMISSIONS.

One of the chief causes of the rapid increase in the expenses of government in recent times is the multiplication of commissions. The variety in the nature of these commissions is as remarkable as their number. They are created by the national Government, by the State governments, and even by municipalities. Some are permanent bureaus, some are temporary. Some are stationary and some are roving. Almost all are expensive; very few are necessary, and many, it is to be feared, are created for the purpose of furnishing certain favored individuals with comfortable and even lucrative positions. Not a few are practically sinecures, the fortunate incumbents taking pains not to attract public attention to their existence. It might be better if we could call others sinecures, for when commissioners become impressed with the greatness of their office they may do much mischief, as the Commissioners of Statutory Revision are charged with doing to the laws of New York. The non-partisan commissions are sometimes positively corrupt, for it is understood that their members are to be named by the leaders of the political parties, and sometimes such nomination is actually prescribed. Were the cost of all these commissions calculated, it would reach incredible figures. The Comptroller of New York city states that to obtain certain water rights cost this city $1,400,000, of which $900,000 went for the expenses involved in acquiring title through condemnation commissions.

Nothing seems more reasonable than the theory of the commission. The Legislature desires to be furnished with information on which to base its action, and what more natural than to appoint a commission to collect this information and present it in intelligible shape? An executive needs facts in order to frame a policy, and a commission is the most obvious means of obtaining them. But in practice the theory encounters difficulties. Legislatures perversely ignore the reports of their commissions, when they are not adapted to the political conditions or satisfactory to potent interests. Executives find that the reports of their commissioners are seldom accepted as conclusive, either by legislators or by the people at large. The instances where reforms have been accomplished by the influence of the reports of commissions on the minds of legislators are comparatively rare. If the reports happen to coincide with public opinion or party expediency, well and good; otherwise the reports merely swell the printers' bill. One of the New York commissions recently published its report, at a cost of $42,000, and others have cost as much as $20,000 and $30,000. The reports published by the national Government cost enough every year to endow a college. They are occasionally of value to students, but they are not often aids to legislation. We have had an exhaustive and expensive report on the Philippine Islands by one commission, and shall after a time have another by a second; but it will not be contended that Congressmen have been influenced by the first or will be by the last. Probably very few of them will read either.

We will not deny to these commissions a certain negative value. Lord Melbourne used to say, when the question of amending some established usage was brought up, "Can't you let it alone?" Very many evils correct themselves better than legislators can correct them, and many laws, passed in a spasm of reforming zeal, do more harm than good. In English politics this is well understood, and the Parliamentary commission is an established device for shelving inconvenient proposals. When the public works itself up to such an extent as to stimulate members of Parliament to demand action, Ministers do not always think it wise to refuse to grant requests to which they have objections, but profess lack of sufficient knowledge. The subject to which attention has been called, they say, is one of great importance—too great importance to allow it to be hastily dealt with. We must proceed

with deliberation, after full acquaintance with the facts, and we will therefore grant a commission to investigate them. In due time the commission reports; but meanwhile the world has moved on. When the commission on the depression of Trade finishes its labors, Trade, like old dog Tray, is laughing; and probably a member of Parliament, or of Congress, condemned now to read the report of the last commission on bimetallism, would beg, like the Florentine convict who preferred the galleys to Guicciardini's History, to be let off with a term in prison.

From the point of view of the beneficiary, the "roving" commission is the most desirable. The country would be surprised to know how many men are sent abroad by the authorities at Washington to study the affairs of other nations. Some of these commissioners really prepare conscientious reports, reports which might be of value if they were acted on. But they are not acted on, and, under present conditions, these pleasant appointments are obtained by political influence. A Washington pastor was once selected as "Inspector of Consulates"—such consulates as could be conveniently inspected in a trip around the world; and the appointment was rather more conspicuous than unusual in character. There has been for some years a very large "Industrial Commission" roving over the country, and holding sessions at which any citizen of sufficient prominence may express his views on matters and things in general. This commission was apparently created to relieve Congressmen who had lost their seats, or who expected to lose them, from the disagreeable jar and pecuniary stress of a sudden return to private life; the "labor" element being propitiated by a few appointments. The testimony it takes is about such as newspapers obtain in "interviews," and its report will be of larger bulk and less value than a file of almost any leading journal.

One of the greatest impositions on the public is the "trade" commission. A bill now before Congress proposes to have a commission appointed "to study commercial and economic conditions in the Orient." This commission is expected to instruct our merchants how to develop their Asiatic trade intelligently and vigorously. With not unreasonable indignation, the Portland *Oregonian* protests that the merchants of this country do not need to be taught their business "by the efforts of a junketing band of commissioners." It presents very conclusive evidence that the trade of the Orient has been not only studied, but also developed to a remarkable degree, by trained business men, who understand how to carry it on profitably. The same journal insinuates that these alert merchants would not select the kind of men that will be appointed commissioners when they engaged in important commercial enterprises. But as the commissioners will probably enjoy their Oriental tour at the public expense, they can afford to smile at such invidious comments.

A NAVAL STUDENT ON OUR WAR WITH SPAIN.

Contemporary foreign opinion is said to anticipate the verdict of posterity. This is certainly apt to be the case with a war, of which a disinterested foreign expert can naturally form a cooler and saner judgment than a citizen of either of the combatant nations. Hence a peculiar value and interest attaches to the recent publication of 'The Downfall of Spain' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), by H. W. Wilson, the English naval writer, author of 'Ironclads in Action,' etc. He brings out this naval history of our war with Spain at a date late enough to have the advantage of full official reports, both American and Spanish, together with the technical discussions already printed by eminent naval authorities, and yet not too late for his subject to retain living interest. As an absolutely impartial specialist, Mr. Wilson is in a position to set right the shouters on either side; and the judicial quality of his review of the war makes his opinions well worth consideration.

As a preliminary question, he discusses the blowing up of the *Maine*. Premising that "it is the general opinion of foreign naval authorities" that the disaster was due to spontaneous combustion in the bunkers, Mr. Wilson declares that this is only a "simple and easy method of getting over the trouble of studying the evidence." After going over the exhaustive and scientific investigation made by our board of inquiry, as also the flimsy and inconsequential report of the Spanish naval officers, Mr. Wilson deliberately concludes that the evidence "establishes the probability" that the *Maine* was destroyed by a mine. The strongest element of proof is the rigorous elimination of all other suggested causes of the explosion. As to the motive, Mr. Wilson points to the fact that the destruction of the *Maine* left the American navy weaker "on paper" than the Spanish. Good judges in England held the opinion that the loss of the battle-ship made Spain the stronger at sea; even Admiral Colomb took that view as late as April 18. Hence, argues Mr. Wilson, some reckless Spanish officer in Havana, of course without authority, may have concluded to take this desperate means of turning the scale in favor of his country. Mr. Wilson adds:

> "That the *Maine* was considered in unofficial Spanish circles in Havana to have been blown up by a Spaniard is shown by the fact, of which the author was informed by a friend, resident then and now in Havana, that, on the night of her destruction, and on the following day, the health of the men who destroyed her was being drunk in the cafés by Spaniards."

Coming down to the naval battles of the war, Mr. Wilson quietly overrides those extemporized naval experts, like Senator Lodge, who rank the battle of Manila Bay above that of the Nile. He says tersely of Dewey's work on that May morning, that it was "a military execution rather than a real contest." This is not intended in the least to detract from the Admiral's "deserved reputation." He "did his work excellently well, without a trace of doubt or hesitation." But, when all is said, Mr. Wilson thinks that Dewey's chief credit lies in the fact that "he seems, more than any other American officer, to have realized the hopeless rottenness of the Spanish navy and the Spanish defences." As for Montojo, he was completely outclassed from the beginning, yet showed strange want of foresight and energy. He did not even utilize, as he might have done, the feeble forces at his disposal.

It is not necessary to follow our author in detail over the stages of the operations which led up to the Santiago sea-fight. He shows how, to the astonishment of the world, the Spanish naval strength on paper dwindled to almost nothing in fact; so that the final destruction of Cervera's fleet was a comparatively easy affair. While praising the Spanish Admiral's serene courage and perfect realization of the fate before his squadron, he shrewdly points out that so despondent a commander was not the man to make the best of a bad situation. A more enterprising because more hopeful Admiral might, in Mr. Wilson's opinion, have given the Americans much more trouble at Santiago than Cervera did. For Sampson and the American captains our author has little but high praise. The actual battle, he justly says, was a captains' and engineers' fight, and to them was due the victory. But the Admiral in command had foreseen and directed everything.

Into the Sampson-Schley controversy Mr. Wilson does not explicitly go. Yet he shows, from official records, how Schley made many mistakes and came perilously near disobeying orders. Of the famous "loop" of the *Brooklyn*, made early in the fight, by Schley's orders, Mr. Wilson says that the explanation given for it does not square with the facts, and that, "on the whole, it seems probable to the writer that Schley wished to move the *Brooklyn* further out." Yet "it is cruelly unjust to impugn his personal courage." Finally, we quote this distinguished authority's tribute to Admiral Sampson, which brings home to us afresh the strange neglect of Congress to reward him or the men of his fleet for the work which foreigners have rated so highly. Yellow journalism and small-minded politicians have so far successfully prevented due official recognition of an Admiral (and his admiring cap-

tains) of whom an eminent foreign expert can write as follows:

"After the battle, ungenerous and ignorant attempts were made to rob Admiral Sampson of the credit which he deserved. By certain Americans, who are apparently unaware that Admiral Sampson's name as a great artillerist has been for years familiar to all naval students, it was assumed that his promotion to the chief command over the heads of Capts. Schley and Watson was a piece of favoritism. Admiral Sampson's success is the best answer to this charge. He has been blamed for his absence at the moment when Cervera put to sea, though it is now known that he had been expressly ordered by the Navy Department to go to Siboney, and though it was obviously impossible for him to foresee the enemy's movements with absolute exactitude. Admiral Sampson from the first to last did his work in a manner that commands British admiration, displaying coolness and judgment both in council and in action, and adopting dispositions which were excellent for the object in view. Blame for the mistakes at the outset—in not closely watching Cervera's fleet—cannot be laid at his door."

"SPIRITUAL POWER" AND HONESTY.

More than two million and a half communicants of the Methodist Episcopal Church during the past week, in theory at least, have been fasting and praying, their prayers going up for that return to "spiritual power" which their bishops, who recently summoned them to these acts, say has departed from their religious organization. In support of this contention, the bishops point to the fact that, notwithstanding the financial prosperity of the communicants and the churches, and the rapid growth of Methodist missions, both abroad and at home, the list of converts in the home churches is waning, and the latest statistics show not only a relative, but an absolute decrease in the membership of the denomination.

The minor reasons for this startling state of affairs in a denomination hitherto distinguished preëminently for zeal in evangelization, as they are assigned by the bishops, are the alienation from the church of the wage-earners, the disintegrating influence of Christian Science and similar "vagaries," the frivolous character of the books and papers read by the young, the passion for amusement for amusement's sake, the irreverence for sacred things, and the baneful influence of the Higher Criticism. But the major reason is the waning of "spiritual power," the decline of the camp-meeting and the revival, and of the old Wesleyan ideals and methods.

The denominational press has, in the main, accepted the accuracy of both the diagnosis and the prescription. But there has been one notable exception, one discordant note, one intimation that possibly the trouble with the denomination is ethical rather than "spiritual." This note of dissent comes from *Zion's Herald*, a non-official journal, whose former editors have been men of independence, notably when Gilbert Haven edited it, and whose present editor, Dr. Parkhurst, is only a trifle less bold than the New York clergyman of the same name. This free-lance has boldly declared that what is paralyzing the denomination is not any one or all of the things named by the bishops, but the fact that "our bishops, book agents, general secretaries, editors, and other representative leaders in the church do not carry the fragrance of holy living to the people, and no longer attest by personal example that they are more anxious for the salvation of the multitude than for anything else." The plain-spoken editor proceeded to say that, "if we are to get right before the Lord, and not be guilty longer of hypocrisy and unrighteousness, the church must be purged at its fountain-head. Unholy ambition, business dishonesty, impure thinking and speaking, must be put away." He then denounced unsparingly the political scheming within the denomination, which is especially marked now that a General Conference is approaching.

Bolder charges than these against spiritual leaders have rarely been framed. They will surprise many people, but certain recent happenings in the church show that they are well founded. The Secretary of the Epworth League, the organization which represents the young people of the denomination, was found not long ago to be drawing revenue from the sale of song-books, the trade in which was promoted by his endorsement as an official of the League. So far from realizing any infelicity—not to say obliquity—in his course, he resisted vigorously the efforts of the more sensitive members of the League to bring about his removal. Moreover, at first a majority of the Board of Control were disposed to shield him, this body including a bishop. He was finally forced out of his place, the pressure being too strong for the "machine" to resist. But the incident revealed clearly that to many in high places in the denomination it did not seem at all questionable for a salaried official of a Christian organization to use his influence as such an official to put revenue in his pocket as an individual. Open charges have been made that church officials travel on passes and charge the church treasury for mileage expenses. When challenged as to their right to do this, they have made precisely the same defence that a Tammany official would.

There was a similar revelation of insensibility to ethical distinctions about a year ago, when the long-disputed claim of the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church for damage done to the property of the denominational Book Concern during the civil war was finally disposed of by Congress. It was then shown that not only had the present Book Agents of the denomination pledged an excessive proportion of the claim to the lawyer-lobbyist who had worked the claim through Congress, but also that they had equivocated—to put it mildly—with respect to this fact when questioned about it while the claim was pending in the Senate. Their reply was negatively, if not positively, untruthful. The Senate, taking them and their message at their face value, passed favorably on the claim, only to learn later that it had been deceived. But these men are still agents of the church. A few of the conferences and one of the minor denominational journals demanded that they be removed and the church purged. But their official friends rallied successfully to their defence.

Such developments as these show how complete is often the divorce between religion, in the conventional sense of the word, and every-day honesty. There is something wrong with the Methodist Church, as the bishops say, but the trouble goes deeper than they see, and the cure demands more radical remedies. "Spiritual power," in the common acceptance of the term, as synonymous with a revival of the camp-meeting among the masses, will never meet the case so long as the leaders condone a low moral tone in the transaction of business, and whitewash prominent men who have been exposed in dishonesty. This is a lesson, too, which other denominations than the Methodist need keep in mind, if they would comprehend the attitude of the modern world toward the church.

CHARLES ALBERT—LEGEND AND HISTORY.

FLORENCE, March 14, 1900.

"Accursed, O Carignano, goes thy name to the ends of the earth; there is no shore so remote that hate, misery, the curse of the fugitive do not there acclaim thee traitor." Such was Berchet's poetic epitome of the legend. Giusti, in his satirical poem, "The Coronation" (of the Emperor of Austria), among the gathered sovereign satellites notes "First to soil his knees the Savoyard, yellow with remorse; he who atoned for his brief folly by glory gained at Trocadero. Carbonari, this is your *Duce* who led you to the scaffold and to the Spielberg. Most royally he now keeps his oath [of 1821]." Historians, also, save the laureate courtiers, gravely narrated how the young prince of Carignano, the heir apparent to the throne of Sardinia, a Carbonaro, had joined the Liberals of Piedmont in conspiring to wring a constitution from the King and then to proclaim war against Austria. Santorre Santarosa, the head of the military revolution, war minister during Charles Albert's brief regency, fugitive and exile after the defeat, martyr for Grecian liberty (May 9, 1825), in his brief sketch of the 'History of the Piedmontese Revolution,' narrates that the young prince "had informed the Marquis Carlo di San Marzano of his knowledge of plans for liberating Italy from the Austrian yoke, his ardent desire to share in her redemption. On the 5th of March Marzano, Santarosa, Collegno, Lisio, and a 'fifth person' had a private interview with the Prince in his library, revealed their plans, to which Charles Albert gave his entire consent, and I [Santarosa] grasped his hand with the

frankness of a free citizen." The entire narration of the events that followed is veracious as far as Santarosa could speak from his own knowledge; his appreciation of their immediate causes must be qualified by other facts that have come to light during the last eighty years, though many are still hidden in royal archives closed to eyes profane.

The revolutionists demanded a constitution. Victor Emanuel abdicated, naming Charles Albert Regent in the absence of Charles Felix, his brother, then at Modena. The Regent, on the 14th of March, 1821, took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution granted by himself, but Santarosa ignores the added proviso *that it receive the approbation of King Charles Felix*. He briefly narrates the departure of the Regent clandestinely by night (March 21-22) after making him (Santarosa) Minister of War, and naming other ministers, and giving them an appointment on the following day for a cabinet council.

"The Prince of Carignano did not place himself at the head of the reactionary party. Why not? Why not carry his treachery to its bitter end? Why not dissipate all traces of plans formed with his consent, carried out by his orders? . . . The pusillanimous and wretched Prince could not make up his mind to take the only step that could save him [*i. e.*, return with Della Torre and the faithful regiments to crush the revolution in Turin]. He passed the Ticino—that river which he had so often sworn to cross at the head of a liberating army—as a fugitive, threw himself at the feet of an Austrian governor, Count Bubna, who, a master of sarcasm, presented him to his officers, saying: 'Behold the King of Italy.'"

Santarosa's is the germ of the historical legend which passed for truth from generation to generation, all good Liberals receiving it as gospel even in 1848, when Berchet suppressed his "Esecrato o Carignano." Hence, after the capitulation of Milan in July, 1848, the cession was also attributed to treachery; and when, on Novara's fatal battle-field, Charles Albert abdicated, his crown passed to Victor Emanuel with its legendary stain. Until 1884, no doubts ever crossed my mind as to the truth of the accusation. Then, while I was writing the Life of Joseph Mazzini, Cesare Cantù, Custodian of the Archives of Milan, graciously placed at my disposal his own index to private documents and a chair in his own study. Among the documents I found the following dispatches:

Buffalora, March 30, 1821. "No. 57. To the Aulic Councillor of Police in Milan. At 10:30 P. M. yesterday Prince Carignano left Novara, arriving at this frontier of Buffalora shortly after midday under the name of Conte di Barges. At Novara, he started in a carriage from the house of the general-in-chief, Della Torre, and was rejoined, outside the city, by three carbineers who escorted him to the frontier." (The agent, who gives many other details, signs De Vallata.)

Report of Strassoldo, Aulic Councillor of Police in Milan, to Prince Metternich, March 30, 1821. "Expédié le 31 à 6 heures du soir, S. A. Sérénissime Mr. le prince de Carignan a passé de matin *sans s'arrêter par Milan*, se rendant à Modène."

That "without halting at Milan" at once dispelled the legend that he had thrown himself at the feet of Count Bubna and suffered the insulting sarcasm. Other dates and documents proved that he was not present at the coronation of Francis IV., Emperor of Austria. Later, when the writings of Gino Capponi were published, his reminiscences of Carlo Alberto seemed to come as a psychological revelation of the unhappy Prince's nature and environment.

"In the autumn of 1817, the Prince of Carignano came to Florence to celebrate his nuptials with the daughter of the Grand-Duke. It fell to my lot to accompany him, and, as we were both young, we became very intimate. We talked of Italy and of driving out the Austrians, he brandishing his sword; and so excessive was his hatred of Austria that he felt by no means drawn towards the young bride assigned to him without a choice, instead of another (I forget whether a Saxon or a Bavarian), whom he would have preferred. . . .

"At the close of the following year he welcomed me most cordially in Turin and introduced me to all the notables of the kingdom, indulging in sharp irony concerning most of them; and when meeting any of them at dinner he delighted in drawing them out so that I might see the truthfulness of his portraits. Though he found the rigid etiquette of the court and the pedantic gravity of the bewigged Piedmontese most wearisome, in his own house and especially with his wife his manners were cold and austere."

On the birth of Victor Emanuel, the Prince wrote to the Marquis, then in Paris, under date of Turin, April 5, 1820: "The birth of my son is that of a truly Italian prince, but in attachment to our beautiful fatherland he will not, assuredly, surpass me." And later, when Capponi had given a letter of introduction to Count Confaloniere, September 2, 1820:

"Let us hope that better times are dawning for our poor country. Count Confaloniere has not arrived in Turin, so I cannot make his personal acquaintance, but I hastened to assure him of the high esteem in which I hold all who, like himself, are concerned for the well-being of their country, which I seek to promote here as far as I can, never ceasing to hope that time will enable me to work for the end we aim at. Here the schools [which Charles Albert had opened for his regiments] go on well, despite the attempts to thwart them made by many. They are established in several regiments, and I intend to open others in one or two of the artillery corps, as the King has charged me with the reorganization of this department, gone to utter ruin. I am sorry that I cannot by letter say all that I think, but my sentiments are, I trust, well known. I end by assuring you anew of the vivid friendship which is felt for you by your affectionate C. A."

"After the failure of the revolution of March [1821]," continues Capponi, "Carignano came to Florence and asked for me. I found him miserable and morally prostrate; he talked of going to Russia as a soldier. I told him that such a decision did not seem to me a wise one; that appearances and public opinion were in truth against him; that in his case one could not do as one would, and that I should be glad to be able to absolve him from all accusations. He gave me a very long account of events in order to justify his conduct, and the substance was this: that it was impossible to carry the movement to success, as the materials were insufficient, and that he had to withdraw as best he could; that he had been assured that a large portion of the army was with him, whereas the few soldiers who had been paid 5 francs per head to cry 'Viva la Costituzione,' on the following day turned against and fired at him. This was true, and it is also true that the revolution was made against his advice, that when the chiefs warned him that they intended to act on the morrow, Cesare Balbo,* whose advice he asked, bid him act as military obedience and loyalty to the King dictated.

"This apology did not satisfy me, and, as soon as he ended, I left him without saying a single word. Later, the rumor that he had communicated letters written to him by myself and others obtained general credence; his demeanor was neither frank nor dignified, and certain sanctimonious airs that he now assumed, and that were not believed sincere, only strengthened the accusations. I, therefore, ceased to hold any communication with him. I did not answer the words which on meeting he addressed to me; nay, I went so far as to cut him dead. So things went on till the last days of his exile [in Tuscany], when a Piedmontese lady who came to Florence assured me that Charles Albert was not, after all, so blameworthy, and that it was not for the good of Italy that he should be thus humiliated and alienated; that in Turin the best patriots held him dear, fearing to see him replaced by the Duke of Modena. In short, she insisted on our reconciliation, which happened thus wise. At a ball in the Borghese Palace, this lady taking my arm, we met the Prince of Carignano in a quiet room as had been arranged. He came to pay his respects to the lady, and a few words passed between us. I took the hand that he offered me; we soon separated, and this was the last time that I saw Charles Albert."

*Cesare Balbo was the "fifth person" in the library, whom Santarosa disdains to name.

How this laconic narrative brings home to one the gall and bitterness with which Charles Albert's soul was drenched before he flung himself into the hands of the legitimist party and went to win his spurs at Trocadero! Yet what was his crime? He hated Austria, he believed in the conspirators, he joined in their demands for a constitution—was not, assuredly, prepared for the King's abdication. As Regent he granted that constitution "salvo l'approvazione del re legittimo, Carlo Felice." That King flashed his refusal from Modena, and his orders for the Regent to repair thither at once. He might have headed the revolutionists, who certainly were not prepared and who made no real stand even against the royal troops, so that all was over before the Austrians came to their rescue. Or he might, as Santarosa suggested, have marched back from Novara to crush the revolution. He did neither, and the consequence of "being neither cold nor hot" fell on him with a vengeance. But neither did he betray a single accomplice, nor hand over a single letter addressed to him, as is proved by the fact that the Austrian authorities never dreamed, till a year later, that the Piedmontese revolutionists had hundreds of accomplices in Lombardy-Venice. The conspiracy was discovered by pure accident, and Metternich exhausted his efforts to find proof of the complicity of Confaloniere and Charles Albert. He betrayed no one, but sealed up in his embittered soul the vow to fight against Austria, and never more to hold converse with conspirators and revolutionists.

We are writing of the Prince, not of the King, who, egged on by Jesuits and reactionaries to believe that his throne was undermined, his idol (the army) corrupted and disloyal, wrote in 1833 the bloodiest page of history that defaces the annals of the House of Savoy; who, in 1848, might have won and worn the Italian crown but for his utter, maniacal distrust of all popular or revolutionary methods even after the unarmed populace had ousted the Austrians from Milan, Venice, and the whole of Lombardy with the exception of the four fortresses. In 1849, he could not have won the day. His army *was* then undermined by the Austro-Jesuit party, depressed by defeat and by the certainty that Austria must conquer. Nor even then would Charles Albert admit of or abet a revolutionary army in the rear or on the flank of the common foe. Garibaldi had been rejected and despised, the brave Lombard legions disbanded, save Manara's, which found Rome to die in, and he must forsooth

choose for generals a Krzanowsky and a Ramorino—the traitor of the Savoy expedition for his only title of merit. No! Victory was impossible, but death he sought, sought on the battle-field. Even there fortune denied the spectral boon, dooming him to die in exile, to share the fate of the thousands he had so doomed, haunted by the spectres of the twelve Apostles of young Italy shot to death for no crime save their love for her.

Tragic as no other kingly tragedy this life and death of Carlo Alberto. His spare, melancholy, half-monkish, half-Quixotic figure on horseback now looks from the Quirinal Square on Rome. Ten years ago, Carducci, the poet who never sacrifices historical truth to political partisanship or to personal predilection, Carducci, the well beloved, whose voice, silent for a while, Italy longs and hopes to hear once more and speedily ring out, paid a touching tribute to the King who loved Italy and hated Austria, in the ode "Piedmont," dated Ceserole Reale, July 27, the anniversary of Charles Albert's death in 1849.

"Italia, Italia!—E il popolo de' morti
Surse cantando a chiedere la guerra;
E un re a la morte nel pallor del viso
Sacro e nel cuore

Trasse la spada. Oh anno de' portenti,
Oh primavera de la patria, oh giorni,
Ultimi giorni del fiorente maggio,
Oh trionfante

Suon de la prima italica vittoria
Che mi percosse il cuor fanciullo! Ond'io,
Vate d'Italia a la stagion più bella,
In grige chiome

Oggi ti canto, o re de' miei verd' anni,
Re per tant' anni bestemmiato e pianto,
Che via passasti con la spada in pugno
Ed il cilicio

Al cristian petto, italo Amleto."

. . . . . .

J. W. M.

ELIZA BONAPARTE.

PARIS, March 22, 1900.

The Bonaparte literature is getting richer every day; new documents are everywhere sought for, published, and read with eagerness. I notice to-day a volume published by M. Rodocanachi, on Eliza Bonaparte, one of the three sisters of Napoleon, and most resembling her brother. She had his Corsican features and hard look, and lacked the delicate beauty of Pauline. She was also very masculine in character, and very autocratic.

Eliza was married on May 1, 1797, to Félix Baciocchi, an officer of the French army. He was very fond of playing the violin and of parading in a fine uniform. His advancement had been slow. He entered the service in 1777 at the age of sixteen; he became a captain only in April, 1793. He was better fitted for sedentary work than for anything else—inspecting the troops, holding reviews, keeping accounts. He was noted as being a very ordinary officer. When he married Eliza Bonaparte, she could not make any great pretensions: she had no fortune, she had been jilted by a soap merchant of Nice named Rubasoin; Admiral Truguet had thought of her for a moment, but had not asked for her hand. She accepted Baciocchi, though he was fifteen years older than herself (he was born in 1762, she in 1777), and though her brother Bonaparte had no opinion of Baciocchi as an officer, and judged him incapable of rising high in the ranks of the army.

M. Rodocanachi's volume deals chiefly with Eliza when she became Princess of Lucca and Piombino. The manuscript documents which he uses are the archives of Lucca, Florence, and Rome, those of the Foreign Office in Paris, and of Tuscany. It was on the 18th of March, 1805, that the Emperor Napoleon informed the French Senate that the Principality of Piombino, situated in Tuscany, separated from the other French possessions and declared territory of the Empire, was to be subjected to a peculiar régime, in consequence of which he gave this principality, "under the high dominion of France," to his sister Eliza, and conferred on her husband the title of Prince of the Empire. The Principality had only 120,000 inhabitants. The great families which inhabited it, of Florentine, Lombard, or Roman origin, lived in their palaces lazily, with that outward luxury which pleases the southern races, and which often covers real poverty. Eliza immediately composed for herself a court, with chamberlains and pages. Girolamo Lucchesini, the head of an old family of Lucca, was named high chamberlain.

If the dignitaries were Italians, the functionaries were all French. The sleepy little city of Lucca became very animated under the rule of the woman who liked to be called the Semiramis of Italy. Her husband played a very secondary part, not interfering in any way with the decisions of his wife, nor with her caprices. Eliza was always, rightly or wrongly, accused of very light conduct. In 'Memoirs of the Empress Josephine,' Mlle. Avrillon says: "She [Eliza] had the reputation of being very *galante*. But her husband bore it all, and looked for consolations on his own side." We must remember, however, that Mlle. Avrillon was a mere *femme de chambre* of the Empress, and that Josephine was at drawn daggers with all the sisters of Napoleon. The great favorite at Lucca was Cessami; Eliza made him her first equerry, gave him the direction of public instruction, heaped decorations on him, and settled on him a pension of forty thousand francs, from a fund derived from the sale of the lands of the religious corporations which had been secularized. Eliza's civil list was too small for all her expenses, and she naturally complained of it to her brother, who promised her, in a letter written on March 13, 1808, to give her in Tuscany an estate yielding a revenue of 200,000 to 300,000 francs. He informed her, also, that he had bought a house which Eliza had in Paris for 800,000 francs, which, at the prevailing rate of the funds, would give her another 50,000 francs. Eliza was not ungrateful, and she had plans made for a great monument to adorn the square which she had created before the palace, with the name of Piazza Napoleon. The statue of the Emperor was to have on its base four rivers, the Nile, the Po, the Danube, the Vistula, and bas-reliefs representing the victories of Abukir, Marengo, Austerlitz, Jena, etc.

Eliza was a very laborious and, on the whole, very intelligent ruler. She presided over the council of ministers, saw to every detail of the administration, felt an immense satisfaction in being a real sovereign, even in a minuscular principality.

"Mon verre n'est pas grand, mais je bois dans mon verre,"

said Musset. She wrote to her brother Lucien: "I don't find here the pleasures of intimacy; but, in my position, I feel that I must live for glory and give little to private affection." We see her busy with mines, with fisheries, with forests, with roads; she even organizes a little army. She soon became very popular. Napoleon was satisfied with her, and in 1806 he annexed to her principality the territory of Massa and Carrara, the site of the famous marble quarries. Eliza employed the first blocks of white marble extracted from them in the fabrication of busts of the Emperor, after a plaster model by Canova, which were sent by her as presents to Talleyrand, Duroc, Regnaud de St. Jean-d'Angély, Clarke, and many other high dignitaries and functionaries of the Empire. (In a report of January 12, 1809, we see that as many as twelve thousand of these busts had been made and sent from Carrara.) She employed some young Italian sculptors, among others Bartolini, in making statues of the Emperor and of all the members of the imperial family. "I have converted my quarries at Carrara," she writes to the Emperor, "into sculptors' studios; the models of Chaudet and Canova are multiplied under my eyes, and are sent to the kings whom your Majesty has made, and to the nations which owe their happiness to you. These monuments of gratitude raised in honor of immortal genius are the thoughts of my heart." Singular language from a sister to her brother; but, brothers and sisters, the Napoleonids thought themselves members of a new Olympus—they had ceased to be human.

Eliza naturally founded an Academy, the Academy Napoleon, and chose as correspondents the famous Monge, Laplace, Cardinal Maury, Sismondi. The first difficulties she met with arose from the religious question. When she arrived in Lucca, she found there more than fifty convents and churches; the religious authority was independent of the civil. On July 4, 1806, Eliza was authorized to extend to her states the application of the "concordat established between the French Government and his Holiness Pius VII." Article xii. of the decree proclaimed that all the lands belonging to the curés should be added to the domain and sold as national property; the next article provided that the estates of the religious communities should be provisionally kept and administered by the state. These communities were numerous, and their revenues amounted to more than 601,000 francs. They gradually disappeared. Eliza seems to have been very decided in the war she was making on the Church party; she ceased to appear in person at the popular festivities given on saints' days; she closed more than sixty churches and oratories; she transferred many religious ornaments to the palace of Piombino. She wrote on May 17, 1808, to Napoleon: "All the monks are secularized; these enemies of the Government and leeches of the people are pensioned, satisfied, and returned to their families. The most fanatical people of Italy are now the most enlightened."

This was only partially true; Eliza made herself unpopular with many of her subjects, and felt a desire to exchange her little principality for a larger one. The Queen Regent of Etruria, Maria Louisa, had incurred the displeasure of Napoleon, who resolved to add Tuscany to the kingdom of Italy. Ten thousand men under Reille entered Florence by one gate, while Maria Louisa left by another (November 11, 1807). After an interregnum, Napoleon, on March

3, 1809, conferred on Eliza, Princess of Lucca and Piombino, the government of the departments of Tuscany, with the title of Grand Duchess. Napoleon had already put the imperial constitution in force in Tuscany; he had created there Senators and electoral colleges for the nomination of Deputies. Eliza was to be in Tuscany only the living representative of the will of her brother. As for her husband, there was not even a mention of him in the reorganization of Tuscany.

Eliza was now at the head of the administration of one of the finest provinces in Italy. She made great efforts to show herself worthy of this new post, but she was not as fortunate as she had been in Lucca. When she showed herself for the first time, her yellow complexion, her black hair, her imperious and somewhat masculine aspect made no little impression on the Tuscans; but she did not become popular. She found herself at once in conflict with the French authorities; she wished to be a queen, and she was in reality a mere prefect. The upper Florentine society maintained a hostile reserve towards her; she humiliated without reason the Countess of Albany, who held a high position in that society, and finally exiled her. Her financial difficulties were constant. When she heard in Florence the news of the disasters of the Russian campaign of Napoleon, she began to be alarmed about her sovereignty; a certain agitation arose in the Tuscan departments, especially at Leghorn, where the English had much influence. When the Austrians came to Bologna, she took measures to put Florence in a state of defence. She wrote to Napoleon that if the enemy occupied Florence, she would retire by way of Piombino to the island of Elba. Murat was advancing from the south; his troops entered Florence, and Eliza was obliged to fly. Murat hoped to add Tuscany to his kingdom of the two Sicilies, and to become later King of Italy. His hopes were disappointed, and he could not prevent the restoration of the Archduke Ferdinand. As for Eliza, she took refuge at Bologna, where she was apparently free; in reality, a prisoner of Austria. When Napoleon left for Saint Helena, she established herself at Trieste. She asked permission of the Emperor of Austria to go back to France, which was refused. She died at Trieste, on August 7, 1820, in the Villa Vicentino, from the same malady of which her illustrious brother became a victim a year afterwards at St. Helena.

Correspondence.

BOOK-PLATE THIEVERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the purpose of warning collectors of book-plates who may have Harvard plates offered them, will you allow me to call attention to the depredations to which the Harvard library has lately been subject—a misfortune which I should otherwise prefer to have remain unknown? During the month of January or February some one who has had access to the book-stack has cut from a large number of the older books the front covers on which the book-plate is pasted, leaving the volumes on the shelves, to all appearance unmutilated unless removed from their places.

The book-plates which particularly excite the interest of collectors are those which were placed in the volumes given by John Hancock, Thomas Hollis, the Province of New Hampshire, and other generous donors just after the destruction of the library by fire in 1764. For these gifts Nathaniel Hurd, the earliest book-plate engraver in America, engraved three plates which are excellent examples of the art. All of these plates were altered over from time to time to suit the requirements of later bequests and gifts, so that a number of different varieties have been in use.

In 1823 a new plate, closely following the old, was cut by Bowen, and about 1840 another of an entirely different design was drawn by Billings and engraved by G. G. Smith. All of these are naturally prized by collectors, especially the earlier ones, which very seldom leave the possession of the library in any legitimate way. A large number of these have, however, recently passed through the hands of a Canadian doctor in Boston, well known to collectors, who has been arrested, and whose case will come before the Grand Jury in June. From several collectors who have innocently bought from this person, I have received back sixty of the stolen plates, and I gladly bear witness to the honorable promptness with which these have been returned to me, and to the indignation which has been expressed in regard to the theft. Others I expect to recover, but there are still a considerable number to which I have as yet no clue, and it is in regard to these that I beg to warn collectors in case they should be offered, and to ask coöperation in securing their recovery.—Very truly yours,

William C. Lane, Librarian.

Harvard University, March 27, 1900.

THE COTTON PROSPECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Preparations for planting the cotton crop of 1900-1901 are under way. The future was never more cheerful for the Southern farmer. He has just finished marketing one of the most profitable crops ever grown, and has plenty of hog and hominy to make another very cheap crop. The large surplus of cotton usually carried over is wiped out, and the world's consumption is apace with the South's bumper cotton crop. So a fair price is assured, even with a large crop. As a matter of fact, the outlook is for very high prices next season. The promise for the cotton yield of the rest of the world is very gloomy. The Egyptian crop, owing to the extraordinary lowness of the Nile, will be small, thus insuring to the South the old-time premium on staple cotton.

The wonderful prosperity of the industrial South will limit the size of the next crop. The mines, mills, and timber concerns have absorbed an enormous amount of labor. Negro men, attracted by the good wages and the proximity of towns, have left the plantations in large numbers. The scarcity of farm labor is beginning to be a very serious question. Again, $20 seed, as compared to $5 seed, has tempted many of the improvident to dispose of their planting-seed, and take the chance of getting it back at planting-time. The oil mills are looked to for this supply. This year, however, there is hardly an oil mill that has not contracted for even more product than it can supply; hence they cannot be relied on for planting-seed. Should the planting period be bad and wet, and replanting necessary, the condition will become critical. The season so far has been damp, and farm work is much behind.

In short, the prospects are not for a bumper crop, but for a moderate crop, which is vastly more profitable.

W. Collier Estes.

Memphis, Tenn., March 23, 1900.

FELLOWSHIPS FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read with pleasure Mrs. Franklin's communication to the *Nation* on "Fellowships for Women." More than twenty-five years ago, before I had ever gone north of Mason and Dixon's line, and hence amid influences all the other way, I reached a very definite opinion as to the justice and wisdom of giving every encouragement to young women, whether by coeducation or otherwise, to secure all the higher culture that men are encouraged to attain. The fact that sex pervades mind is no ground for maintaining any arbitrary distinction about opportunity, whatever may have been the dictum of our grandfathers. Subsequent experience during this quarter of a century has greatly strengthened the conclusion of early manhood—experience in teaching young women, young men alone, and sometimes the two sexes together. When I published my article on 'University Education for Women' in the January number of the *North American Review* in 1883, the object being to open the doors of Columbia College to them, some of my friends thought the effort quixotic. Step by step since that day progress has been made, until within the last few months Barnard College has been formally recognized as a part of Columbia University.

Those of us who believe in fair play without distinction on account of sex have had much cause for gratification in noting the increasing disposition to recognize what women can do and have done. The majority, of course, will not want higher education, but this makes no difference about the rights of the minority. Fifty years hence, I am confident, no institution of higher education in America will make distinctions on account of sex any more than such distinctions are made about church membership, or attendance at the theatre, or admission to the theatrical profession, where Ristori and Terry have shared honors with Booth and Irving.—Very truly yours,

W. LeConte Stevens.

Washington and Lee University,
Lexington, Va., March 17, 1900.

A BETTER POSTAL CARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can any one explain to me why this splendid big nation, which gives itself every conceivable form of luxury, cannot manage to provide for its inhabitants a white postal-card? In England a lady or a gentleman can write a short note on a post-card and not feel that one has done anything derogatory to one's dignity; but here one must make use of an unpleasant yellow thing, of inartistic proportions, and decorated at present with a hideous blear-eyed picture said to represent Jefferson, or else go through the fatiguing and expensive work of writing a note, putting it into an envelope, and affixing to it a two-cent stamp.

Last year, being a public-spirited person, I wrote myself to the Postmaster-General and begged him to provide a white and tidy card, even if it had to cost two cents; he replied that it was impossible at that time, but that it should be done another year. Another year has come, and there is still nothing of the sort to be seen. Now what I wish to know is this: Why should a luxurious nation think it worth while to practise this particular form of penury? L.

TWO LAPSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your kindly notice of 'Ricardo's Letters to Trower,' in your issue of March 8, you describe me as Secretary of the Civil-Service Commission, instead of Senior Examiner. The Secretary is Mr. J. S. Lockhart, brother of the late Gen. Sir William Lockhart.—Believe me, sir, yours sincerely,

James Bonar.

Savile Club, London, March 19, 1900.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On your recent page 148 I notice that my friend Mr. E. A. Fitzgerald is called an American, and I am contrasted with him as a member of the Alpine Club. We are both Englishmen alike, and both members of the Alpine Club.—Yours very truly,

Martin Conway.

The Athenæum, London, March 19, 1900.

"SUN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent who asks for an explanation of the word "sun" in 'Tom Jones,' book viii., chap. 5, has, I think, been misled by finding the word spelled with a small letter. In my own edition of Fielding, 'Edinburgh, 1818,' the word is spelled "Sun." Spelled thus, it plainly indicates the name of a particular room in the tavern, and is to be explained by the fashion of thus designating the different rooms of an inn. Compare, for instance, First Part of "Henry IV.," act ii. scene iv., "Score a pint of bastard in the *Half-moon*"; and again, a few lines farther on, "Look down into the *Pomgarnet*, Ralph." An eighteenth-century reference to the custom will be found in "She Stoops to Conquer," act iii.: "Attend the *Lion* there; pipes and tobacco for the *Angel*; the *Lamb* has been outrageous this half-hour." Clarence D. Wood.

Brown University, March 31, 1900.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Without claiming an especial interest in semasiology—indeed, without having recently looked that term up in the dictionary—I venture to send a few quotations which may suggest to your correspondent a not improbable explanation of Tom Jones's *Sun*, and acquit lexicographers of a conspiracy of silence:

"So Boots goes up stairs to the *Angel*, and there he finds Master Harry, on an e-normous sofa," etc.—Dickens, *The Holly Tree*.

"'I shall not go to bed till night; but I want a bedroom, and a barber.'

"'And then breakfast, sir? Yes, sir. That way, sir, if you please. Show *Concord!* . . . Fetch barber to *Concord*.'

"The Concord bedchamber being always assigned to a passenger by the mail," *etc.*—Dickens, *A Tale of Two Cities*, chap. iv.

Other examples could easily be cited, beginning with Shakspere ("I. Henry IV.," ii., 4). W. H. T.

Cambridge, Mass., March 29, 1900.

ONE USE OF THE NEUTER PRONOUN IN GERMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter, in this week's *Nation*, on the use of "He, She, and It," calls to my mind an expression that I recently heard used by a member of a German communistic society, with the dialect of which I am more or less familiar. The sentence in question is as follows: "Dann kann jedermann sehen was es gekauft hat," in which *jedermann* is the regular indefinite pronoun for "everybody" or "each one," but commonly treated as masculine, and *es* is the neuter pronoun referring to it. At the time, it seemed to me that this German had solved the difficulty, for *jedermann* could refer either to a man or to a woman; and as it would have been awkward to say *er oder sie* (he or she), or, under the circumstances, to choose one of these words, he simply said *es* (it).

The use of the neuter for an indefinite person is much more extensive in German than the note of C. L. F. implies. The neuter pronouns *das, alles, keines*, etc., are commonly and regularly employed with reference to a person whose sex is not indicated and in general or collective statements. Any number of examples could be picked up at random, as, "Alles verliess, alles verachtete sie hierauf," and "Keines muss das Andere weder glücklicher noch unglücklicher machen," in Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm"; "Nun sag' mir eins, man soll kein Wunder glauben," in Goethe's "Faust"; and, to go back to Middle High German, "Im enkunde niht gevolgen wan Kriemhilde man," in the 'Nibelungenlied.'

Charles Bundy Wilson.

University of Iowa, Iowa City, March 31, 1900.

Notes.

The American Dialect Society solicits subscriptions to a reissue of volume i. of *Dialect Notes* (1889-1896), rich in dialect data, and with an index referring to some 3,000 words and expressions. The edition can hardly exceed the number of subscribers, and is likely to be final. The price ($4.00) is a reduction of one-half. Subscriptions may be sent to Prof. R. W. Deering, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, O. The next number of *Dialect Notes*, by the way, will include a Dictionary of College Words and Phrases, assigned as far as possible to the institutions at which they are in vogue. Subscriptions for this should be addressed to Prof. O. F. Emerson, as above.

M. S. Mansfield, No. 14 West Twenty-second Street, has in preparation a reprint of Lieut. William Bligh's 'Narrative of the Mutiny on Board His Majesty's Ship *Bounty*' (1790), and an illustrated edition of Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' royal octavo, with rubricated initials by Blanche McManus, and a portrait of Arthur Henry Hallam.

'The Interpretation of Literature,' by Prof. W. H. Crawford, is soon to be published by Macmillan Co.

All good things in threes, as the German proverb has it; but in twos, according to the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde). We lately noticed the greater and the lesser Molière issued by this Press, and now we have two Miltons, equally from one text, but the pocket edition has the spelling modernized. We dismiss the latter (Oxford miniature) by saying that its 1,082 pages are on that thin but opaque paper which permits such marvels of compression as the Press has revelled in. The major and truly elegant edition—whose price is nevertheless remarkably low—has been cared for by the Rev. H. C. Beeching, who has restored the text of the several first editions of Milton's poems with Chinese fidelity, yet with a certain necessary deviation in the case of errata and otherwise. The punctuation has been adhered to, as well as the spelling, and for both the editor furnishes a plausible excuse, as throwing light on the poet's meaning. Very curious is the discussion of the reason for occasional doubling of the vowel in *me*, etc., the occasional spelling *thir*, etc. Mr. Beeching hints that he obeyed his publisher's request rather than his own instinct in undertaking all this labor, which has consumed a year of his life. The result must meet, however, with general approbation. The volume is adorned with facsimiles of Milton's MS. and of the several title-pages of the original issues. The print is beautiful.

We have several times called attention to the excellent "Tudor Translations" edited by Mr. W. E. Henley, and sumptuously published by David Nutt, London. The latest issue but one, Sir Thomas Hoby's version of Castiglione's 'Courtier,' in its day the mirror of courtesy, reflecting the Renaissance ideal of the scholar-gentleman, is quite worthy of its predecessors.

G. P. Putnam's Sons bring out a second edition of Berenson's 'Florentine Painters of the Renaissance,' the changes in which, so far as a cursory examination informs us, are confined to a revision and additions to the lists of works at the end.

Mr. James M. Dunlop, A.R.C.A., has given us, in his 'Anatomical Diagrams for the Use of Art Students' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), the best book of the sort we have yet seen. Mr. Dunlop is a teacher of drawing and lecturer on artistic anatomy at the Glasgow School of Art, and his experience has taught him the kind and amount of information that is needed by the art student, while his manner of presentation is very clear. The diagrammatic nature of his plates renders them much more readily comprehensible than the usual detailed drawings of elaborate text-books, and brings them also more within the reach of the student of limited means. There is practically no text, separate from the drawings; the necessary amount of explanation being appended, in brief form, to the plates themselves. We can heartily recommend the book to schools of art.

The "Great Masters Series" (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan) again deals with an artist of the first rank in Selwyn Brinton's 'Correggio,' and does it well. Mr. Brinton is in full sympathy with that joyous pagan whose family name, Allegri, was a prophecy, yet he remains sufficiently cool and critical. One fault we have to find. It may, perhaps, have been necessary to take some of the illustrations from Toschi's "clear, finished water-colors rather than the hopelessly faded and damaged originals,"

but surely we should have been told which are so taken. Toschi's sugared reproductions have done much harm to Correggio's reputation, and give his works a sickly sweet flavor that is not native. It is only by internal evidence that we are here permitted to separate the original from the copy; but let any one compare the "Group of Apostles" opposite p. 80, where the cracks in the plaster assure us of a direct reproduction, with the similar group opposite p. 74, which has none of these marks, and he will be able to feel the difference between a great artist's work and a feeble copyist's imitation. This latter plate and those facing pp. 72, 88, 90, 92, and 94 would seem to make up the number of those taken from Toschi. The "Christ in Glory" of the Vatican is given in the list of works as by Correggio, though the plate is labelled "by Caracci," an attribution that seems to us more reasonable. Mr. Brinton agrees with practically all good judges in taking from Correggio the Dresden "Reading Magdalen"—a subtraction that leaves the total sum larger than before.

A photograph of a pleasing young lady in full dress, prefixed to 'With a Palette in Eastern Palaces,' by E. M. Merrick (Scribners), prepares the reader of this ingenuous little book for what he has to expect. The author is an authoress, and a very gay and chatty companion, full of amusing anecdotes of others and still more amusing stories of herself. We rejoice to learn that her book was considered "charming" by Ruskin. We deeply regret that the women of the Zenana of the Maharajah of Dholpore put out their tongues at her. We are also duly impressed with the fact that she dined at the mess of the King's Dragoon Guards, and that "an exquisite gold enamelled punch-bowl with twelve cups to match" stood on the table; that Lady Lansdowne looks "regal and lovely"; and that the authoress was "congratulated on all sides" on her brilliant success in painting a portrait of Lord Lansdowne. The bright chapters were composed from "gleanings of letters," and very entertaining letters they must have been. Bits of Egypt and India revolve through the transparent haze of cheerful chatter; and though the central figure is always Miss Merrick, we could not spare her for an instant. In fact, the book would be nothing without her. We recommend it as a study of a gladsome nature, happy with success. It would make a good gift for a hospital.

It is manifestly impossible to produce a manual of English literature which shall give at once a satisfactory historical account of its development and transformations, sufficient biographical notices of authors and critical estimates of their work, with such representative selections as illustrate the criticism, and yet shall not exceed the reasonable bulk of a class-book. Writers of such manuals are forced to decide what and how much they shall leave to be supplied by the instructor or by the student's private reading. From the title of F. V. N. Painter's 'History of English Literature' (Boston: Sibley & Ducker), one would expect the historical aspect to be predominant, but the writer has given most attention to the biographical. The sketches of the lives of eminent men of letters are, for a work of this kind, unusually full, and are attractively illustrated with portraits and views. The critical estimates are judicious, and might have been a little fuller. One awkward slip occurs on p. 52. Gower nowhere makes "the statement that Chaucer was his disciple." If Dr. Painter will turn to the 'Confessio Amantis,' he will find that it is not Gower but Venus that is speaking.

Of the first edition of Col. George B. Davis's valuable 'Elements of International Law' (Harpers) we have heretofore spoken. Its value is now much increased by bringing the subject down to date. One may read here of the Hague Conference, of the Venezuela dispute, the case of the *Maine*, and of the rules as to "Spheres of Influence," balloons, and explosive bullets. For the intelligent general reader it appears to be a particularly good book. In the preface to this edition the author speaks of "the constant and extensive use which has been made of it, by the class for which it was originally intended—the undergraduate students of American colleges and law schools"; and he remarks that "the volume remains, what it was intended to be from the first, a text-book for the use of students." The skill of the writer has made this an interesting as well as a learned and instructive work.

Of the two recently published volumes of the 'Text-Book of the Embryology of Invertebrates,' by Dr. E. Korschelt and Dr. K. Heider, translated from the German by Matilda Bernard and revised and edited with additional notes by Martin F. Woodward (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), volume ii., of 375 pages, contains the Phoronidea, Bryozoa ectoprocta, Brachiopoda, Entoprocta, Crustacea, and Palæostraca, and volume iii., of 441 pages, completes the Arachnida, Pentastomidæ, Pantopoda, Tardigrada, Onychophora, Myriopoda, and Insecta. The original arrangement of subjects has been so changed that only the Mollusca, Ascidia, and Cephalochorda remain for the final volume of the work. Both of the present volumes are considerably enlarged by the new matter necessary to bring the subjects up to date. For their treatment of these portions of this important work both translator and editor are much to be commended. Presswork and illustrations are very good.

Sir William and Lady Huggins have published, in a sumptuous folio volume entitled 'Publications of Sir William Huggins's Observatory, Volume I.,' an atlas of representative stellar spectra from λ 4870 to λ 3300. A short history of the observatory, and a list of published papers on the work done there, are followed by a description of the spectroscope used and the methods of taking photographs of stellar spectra. In the chapter devoted to a discussion of the evolutional order of the stars, there is no attempt at any detailed physical explanation of the differences met with in the almost infinitely diversified spectra of the stars, although some of the successive conditions which may very probably accompany the progress of stellar evolution are pointed out. Only a "preliminary" discussion of the spectra on the plates, twelve in number, is given; the authors very modestly professing the main object of their publication to be to place in the hands of those interested in the subject representative spectra of the principal classes of stars through a long range of wave-length, with scales for the approximate position of the stronger lines. The quaint headings and initial letters drawn by Lady Huggins form an attractive feature of the book.

The Report on the Adoption of the Gold Standard in Japan, printed at the Government Press in Tokio, in 1899, forms a handsome bound volume of nearly four hundred pages. The author is Count Matsukata Masayoshi, the Imperial Minister of State for Finance. The English is so good that we imagine the Minister's son, formerly a student at Rutgers College and in Yale University, has had charge either of the translation, or the revision, or both. In addition to vast improvement in the financial situation at home, the Minister declares that, "so far as our trade with gold-standard countries is concerned, our adoption of the gold standard, which made us use the same standard of value as those countries, has proved to be a source of great benefit . . . without a trace of evil." Apart from economical opinions or theories, the work is a notable addition to the literature of the subject and of great value as history. There are illustrations of the modern coinage. The text, arranged in twelve chapters, gives reproductions of the official decuments in the case, with information about the sources of supply of bullion and the general methods of Japanese banking and Government financial methods. The state of affairs which necessitated the coinage reform of 1897, the Chinese indemnity, the creation of the gold reserve, the coinage law of 1897 and the laws and ordinances relating to the carrying into operation of this law, the minting of new coins, prospects of future supply for the gold reserve, the withdrawal from circulation of the one-yen silver coins, the employment of funds in the Government treasury, and the monetary system of Formosa, are all treated of clearly and in detail.

With a German thoroughness in overhauling a standard work, Mr. J. O. Austin of Providence has just issued a third supplement to his invaluable 'Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island.' It is a four-page folio, but correction and additions are supplied all along the line from Aldrich to Wright. "Finis," as Mr. Austin justly remarks, "can never be written in genealogical research"; and all who own his Dictionary or prize it for reference will desire that finis may be long postponed for this indefatigable genealogist.

We have already praised Mr. Charles Henry Miltzer's metrical translation of Hauptmann's "The Sunken Bell" (Doubleday & McClure Co.). Now that it is being acted at the Knickerbocker Theatre in this city, the publishers have brought it out anew with a portrait of the dramatist and with photographs of the characters and scenes upon that stage. The book is very pretty and tasteful.

The Boer war literature is not confined to the language of the two contestants. From the house of Liebel, Berlin (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) we receive 'Der Krieg in Süd-Afrika, 1899-1900, und seine Vorgeschichte,' by Lieut. Alfred von Müller. The pamphlet, a first part, has already passed to a second edition. It is about equally divided between the narrative of the causes of the war and the action up to the time of England's expeditionary corps coming upon the scene. Three appendixes show the opposing English and the Boer military organization, and there are three loose folded maps, of which the most detailed is that for the western scene of operations, including Bloemfontein, Kimberley, and Mafeking. The author takes fair ground as to the *way* in which England induced the war and turned the world's sympathy to the Boer side.

A genuine contemporary artist forms the subject of the latest of Velhagen & Klasing's 'Künstler-Monographien' (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Max Klinger, born at Leipzig in 1857, is in the prime of manhood. The copious illustrations accompanying Max Schmid's critical account of him afford ample opportunity to judge the variety of his talent as painter, etcher, and sculptor, and of his themes—classical, Scriptural, fantastical, mystical, tragical, humorous. Melodrama, as in the 'In Flagrante'; pathos, as in 'Die Mutter'; Hamlet's father's ghost, and John preaching to three pronounced Jews in the wilderness; the bronze female dancer and marble Salome and Cassandra, all have an individual stamp and manifest a freedom from convention often if not always justified. Klinger's feeling for landscape is noticeable, and his decorative sense generally true.

Bibliographia Medica is the title of a new monthly periodical devoted to the bibliography of medical sciences, and founded on the model of the American *Index Medicus*, of which it is announced as the successor. It is published by the Institute of Bibliography at Paris, whose director, Dr. Baudouin, is editor. The first number fills 64 pages, and the subjects are arranged according to the Dewey system of classification. This is perhaps as good as any arbitrary system, but students and practitioners are not likely to be familiar with it, and the usefulness of the new journal would be greatly increased by an alphabetical index of authors and subjects accompanying each number.

A well-written paper by Ellen Strong Bartlett in the *New England Magazine* for March, entitled "The *Amistad* Captives," recalls a well-forgotten chapter in the history of this country and of the anti-slavery struggle. The incidents described are intensely dramatic, and no lapse of time could make them uninteresting. The accompanying illustrations are excellent of their kind, and have never been grouped elsewhere. In the effort to return to bondage the kidnapped company who rose for their freedom in Cuban waters and drifted into those of Long Island and Connecticut, the governments of Spain and the United States acted harmoniously on the side of cruelty and dishonor. But there were still judges among us.

The current Proceedings of the Bostonian Society contain, among other interesting matter, President Curtis Guild's reminiscent address on Boston sixty years ago, and a suggestive paper by Mr. C. W. Ernst on "Words Coined in Boston." As products of the "golden age" of Boston speech, the period which "began with Winthrop and ended when Andros came," he gives *team*, meaning horse and wagon; *corder*, or wood-measurer; *dockage*, and *abutter*. Among those of a later date are *factory*, *tannery*, and *bindery*, which last "appears to be due to Isaiah Thomas"; *bicycler;* and the phrase "go by trolley." Other phrases whose birth is claimed for Boston are "the spirit of the times" and "Continental Congress."

The most distinguished and the most exclusive body of scientific men in the world is probably the Berlin Academy of Sciences, and Germany is the ancient stronghold of that curious opposition on the part of the unfair sex to permitting women to do anything towards adding to the world's stock of knowledge. It is therefore with a shock of surprise that we see, in a late issue of the *Sitzungsberichte* of this Academy, a determination by Miss Maltby, an American woman, of the conductivities of thin solutions, to within a possible error of certainly one one-thousandth. This is important, as it makes it possible for the first time to approach the fundamental question "how far equivalent conductivities can be resolved into additive capacities for motion of the ions."

—Mr. Ascott Hope's 'Ready-Made Romance' (Macmillan) is a book of adventure for boys which has been prepared according to an ingenious plan. On the one hand it is not fiction, and on the other it has nothing to do with those great heroes, Clive, Wolfe, Nelson, Washington, Farragut, etc., about whom historical books for the young so often centre. Mr. Hope has found a number of rare biographical sketches which deal with the exploits of boys, and, instead of making them over into the form of short stories, he abridges each book until it becomes an exciting chapter of real life. Tedious details are left out and only the best episodes are presented. Usually the actors have a place in the background of famous historical events, although this is not always the case. The opening chapter furnishes a good example of the recondite material which has been used. It is entitled "A Crusoe Among Calmucks," and relates the experiences of a young Silesian, Gottfried Opitz, who, by a train of misfortunes, is landed in the Steppes of Central Asia and kept a slave there for twenty years. The original work is rare enough to be a curiosity of literature, and probably few English readers have ever heard of it. So far from being hackneyed, all these tales will possess the charm of complete novelty for boys who have been brought up on the common round of fiction and history. Mr. Hope retells them with a full sense of their zest, and in good, strong English. We give the headings of a few of his chapters: "Food for Powder," "A Young Rebel," "Under the Terror," "A Den of Robbers," "A Russian Deserter," "School Boys in a Siege."

—We have already said a word or two concerning Dr. Fitchett's 'How England Saved Europe' (Scribners). Several months ago, when the first volume appeared, we described the design of the work, and gave some indication of the manner in which it was being executed. We now report the publication of the second and third volumes, which bring down the story of England's part in the great European struggle with France to the end of the Peninsular War. The opening instalment of Dr. Fitchett's patriotic history reached the battle of the Nile, and in proceeding from that point he has the advantage of dealing with well-defined periods. As he advances into the second stage of his narrative, he has Nelson for a hero until Trafalgar; and Wellington is in the same way a convenient central figure for his third volume, on the war in the Peninsula. Mahan and Napier are used to good purpose, but Dr. Fitchett, though not writing for scholars, is much more than a bond slave to either or both these masters. While his chief possession is a style which moves along, he has read enough for his purpose, and he handles his material skilfully. One of his virtues is a freedom from reverence for brute force, and for reputation won by doubtful means. For instance, take his comments upon the court-martial which followed the battle of the Basque Roads. Even Wellington, whom he admires in the main, does not escape his discriminating criticism. After quoting Lord Roberts's judgment that Wellington has been "underrated as a soldier and overrated as a man," he proceeds to admit that "there were some unlovely aspects to his character." We mention this simply because the natural tendency of "patriotic" historians is to magnify all the virtues of military heroes and to soften their shortcomings. Dr. Fitchett's work, we are afraid, will do something to inflame Jingo feeling in England, but we can acquit the author of the charge of making every general a demigod.

—The two-volume 'Life and Letters of Ambrose Phillipps De Lisle' (Macmillan) was begun and mainly written by Mr. Purcell, who wrote the elaborate depreciation of Cardinal Manning, and to some extent we have that depreciation continued here. De Lisle, born in 1809, eight years later than Newman, anticipated his submission to Rome some twenty years. Naturally he was much interested in the Oxford Movement, to which his biographers devote a good deal of space. Always an eager propagandist and schemer, his enthusiasm, like that of Ward and Oakeley, outran Newman's caution and caused him much anxiety. De Lisle was always expecting the English Church to fall like a ripe pear into Rome's outstretched hand. At Oxford, Ward took advantage of his simplicity and beguiled him with false hopes. The worst things charged against the Tractarians he eagerly accepted as true, as, for example, that many of them would like to enter into active communion with Rome "and yet remain in the Church of England to labor for the reconciliation of their whole Church." His feeling for the English Church was very different from Ward's, who had a facetious way of speaking of it as "Old Mother Damnable." He was always busy with one plan of reunion or another, catching at everything that seemed to promise the reabsorption of the English in the Roman Church, and often meeting with fresh disappointments. He was for Newman's scheme of a Roman college at Oxford, and when Manning thwarted it and set up a college at Kensington, he denounced the latter as "the still-born offspring of hierarchical assumption and lay obsequiousness." He was with Newman against Manning and others of the "insolent faction" clamoring for infallibility, and had the satisfaction of seeing Manning's definition rejected. But once he had to go without Newman's support—in his passionate preference for Gothic architecture. Newman's ideal architecture was Gothic till he became a Romanist, when he felt obliged to conform his taste to the style of St. Peter's. The queerest of De Lisle's vagaries was his discovery of Mohammed and the Turks in the Old Testament prophecies, and his summoning of Gladstone to make himself the Lord's right arm in fulfilment of the Moslem doom.

—The 'Christ' of Cynewulf, edited by Prof A. S. Cook of Yale, is the first number of a series of Old English and Middle English texts to be published by Ginn & Co., under the general editorship of Profs. Bright and Kittredge. The sixty-four pages of text are mainly taken from Assmann's version of Grein's 'Crist' in the "Bibliothek der Angelsächsischen Poesie"; the introduction,

notes, and glossary occupy the rest of the book (333 pages). If one short poem of Cynewulf's really requires such an inordinate deal of explanation, the study of Old English literature must be, for all of us but a few university professors who can give their whole time to the subject, dead past any hope of revival. But this is not the case, as a careful examination of Prof. Cook's book will show. A great deal of his explanatory matter is quite irrelevant to the perfect "understanding of the meaning of this noble piece of Old English literature," the main motive of Prof. Cook's work, as he tells us in his preface. It is matter that would be quite in place in a German doctor-dissertation or *Habilitations-schrift* as displaying accurate methods of investigation. In a book like this, intended to do something towards removing the popular prejudice that Old English had no literature worthy the name, such discursiveness, far from removing the prejudice in question, is likely to add to it another, that American scholarship in Old English is tinged with pedantry. Had the book been cut down by careful pruning to half its present compass, sufficient material for a clear understanding of the poem would still have been left, the suspicion of pedantry have been removed, and the cost of the volume would have been materially lessened. A somewhat exasperating feature of the edition is its numerous German quotations. Surely, mere expressions of German opinion could be accurately translated with a reference to the original source where such reference was necessary. There is nothing sacred about a German statement of opinion even in matters of English scholarship. Despite these blemishes, however, the book is a welcome and scholarly introduction to a series of texts that cannot fail to throw light on the history of our language and the development of our literature. It is well printed and attractively bound, and it is to be hoped that the other numbers of the series will be as creditable to American scholarship as this one is.

—Prof. Paul Fredericq of Ghent has recently printed, with the requisite explanatory commentary, some interesting documents from the archives of Utrecht. One series of these contains portions of the accounts of the vendors, in the province of Utrecht, of a crusading indulgence issued in 1488 by Sixtus IV., while another series concerns the operations in the same district, from 1517 to 1519, of Bishop Arcemboldi, the papal commissioner for the sale, in eastern Germany and the northern kingdoms, of the St. Peter's indulgence which was the occasion of the Lutheran revolt. The latter has importance as showing that, in spite of the discussion aroused by Luther, towards the end of 1517, which put so sudden an end to the preaching of Tetzel, the traffic continued tranquilly in Holland and the provinces of the lower Rhine, although the returns were probably somewhat diminished. All the documents, moreover, indicate how completely the sale of indulgences was a matter of business, conducted on business principles, with commissions paid to all concerned, like any other commercial enterprise. It was necessarily an expensive system, and but a portion of the moneys contributed by the people reached their ultimate destination in the papal camera. Thus, in 1488, at Alkmaer, the receipts were, in round numbers, 70 gold florins, while the local expenses were 59; in Dort the figures are respectively 330 and 213, in Gorcum 60 and 48. In 1517 at Bommel the sale of confessional letters produced 59 florins, from which 31 are deducted for expenses. These are extreme cases, but they do not comprehend the general expenses and the commissions retained by the higher officials through whose hands the moneys passed, so that, even when sales were honestly accounted for, the papal receipts by no means corresponded with the popular contributions. A curious circumstance connected with the indulgence of 1488 is that Abbod, the parish priest of Wageningen in Guelderland, so far from sharing in the proceeds as was customary, had the hardihood to preach against indulgences, declaring them to be mere frauds and deceits to extort money from the people, and he thus destroyed the market for them in his parish. This precursor of Luther was promptly prosecuted in Dokkum, where the magistrates would not allow the money-chest in the church to be opened until the expenses of the prosecution, amounting to 8 florins and 4 stivers, were duly paid. Students of the period have reason to be thankful to Prof. Fredericq for the inner light thrown by these documents on what Boniface VIII. characterized as the happy commerce of temporal things for spiritual.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

It is difficult to take seriously the recent prolongation of the Omar Khayyám cult into little dilutions, such as those made by Mr. Le Gallienne in England and Miss Elizabeth Alden Curtis in America; the latter offering it under the name 'One Hundred Quatrains from the Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyám: A Rendering in English Verse' (Gouverneur, N. Y.: Brothers of the Book). There is no evidence that Miss Curtis, any more than Mr. Le Gallienne, can read Persian; and Mr. Richard Burton, who introduces the book, practically revokes his own praises when he cites (p. 13) such a stanza as the following as being "worthy of the original" (p. 43):

"Yea, on a breath is all existence hung,
The thread on which these beads of life are strung;
One day, perchance, when we shall breathe our last,
By that last breath the Secret may be wrung."

Miss Curtis's verses are thoughtful, pure, and even pleasing; it is the attempt to associate them with a greater original that mars them. Mr. Burton appears to better advantage in his own book of poems, 'Lyrics of Brotherhood' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), which, while never strong or salient, is pleasing though misnamed; comparatively few of the poems bearing any particular suggestion of brotherhood, and the poems of nature being on the whole the best.

Another of the Omar dilutions, given with a variation in the verse, but still with an eye kept askance upon the same old Omar, is 'The House of a Hundred Lights: A Psalm of Experience, after Reading a Couplet of Bid Pai,' by Frederic Ridgely Torrence (Small, Maynard & Co.). When we come to such verses as these:

"The night passed and some youths caroused
and some poor Fakir kept his fast;
Some lovers kissed, some graves were dug,
all the same night, and the night—passed.
"I know not from the fading Rose
with parted lips what whisper went.
I only know the Nightingale
sang once again his old lament,"

it is impossible not to recognize the mine from which they were quarried. The same principle applies to 'The Apistophilon: A Nemesis of Faith,' by Frank D. Bullard, A.M., M.D. (Chicago: Donnelley), in which Dean Cochran of the University of Southern California finds resemblances to both Omar and Tennyson. As compared with the previous book, the Omar reproduction is graver and duller.

'Taliesin: A Masque,' by Richard Hovey (Small, Maynard & Co.), was published but a little before the death of its author, and formed the fourth drama of that "Poem in Dramas" which he is understood to have regarded as his best work. This last volume seems to us intrinsically less promising than the others, and partly from the unsuccessful mingling of Apollo and the Muses with the ever-romantic associations of Merlin, Taliesin, and the forest of Broceliande. There are glimpses here and there of that lyric grace which is so familiar to readers of 'Vagabondia,' but there are so many suggestions of Swinburne and so many of Hauptmann that the little book gives, after all, a doubtful pleasure, and it is to be feared that another man of really poetic gifts has passed away without fulfilling his promise.

'In a Winter Holiday,' by Mr. Hovey's lifelong associate, Bliss Carman (Small, Maynard & Co.), we have a thin volume containing a few of those lyric and narrative measures which we associate, not unattractively, with this author. The holiday ranges, it seems, from the shore of Scituate, Massachusetts, to the Bahamas and what the author calls "White Nassau." Sometimes the too facile measure becomes tame and slipshod, but Mr. Carman is best in this ballad (p. 31):

IN BAY STREET.

"What do you sell, John Camplejohn,
In Bay Street by the sea?"
"Oh, turtle shell is what I sell,
In great variety:

"Trinkets and combs and rosaries,
All keepsakes from the sea;
'Tis choose and buy what takes the eye,
In such a treasury."

"'Tis none of these, John Camplejohn,
Though curious they be,
But something more I'm looking for,
In Bay Street by the sea.

"Where can I buy the magic charm
Of the Bahaman sea,
That fills mankind with peace of mind
And soul's felicity?

. . . . . .

"And where can I buy that rustling sound,
In this city by the sea,
Of the plumy palms in their high blue calms;
Or the stately poise and free

"Of the bearers who go up and down,
Silent as mystery,
Burden on head, with naked tread,
In the white streets by the sea?"

. . . . . .

"Ah, that is more than I've heard tell
In Bay Street by the sea,
Since I began, my roving man,
A trafficker to be.

"As sure as I'm John Camplejohn,
And Bay Street's by the sea,
Those things for gold have not been sold,
Within my memory.

"But what would you give, my roving man
From countries over-sea,
For the things you name, the life of the same,
And the power to bid them be?"

"I'd give my hand, John Camplejohn,
In Bay Street by the sea,
For the smallest dower of that dear power
To paint the things I see."

It is perhaps a tribute to Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton's English popularity—and perhaps in part a key to it—that of the thirteen mottoes to the different portions of her new book 'At the Wind's Will' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) every one is from an English poet. The greater part of these are from Rossetti and his circle; and it is also noticeable that nine-tenths of the profuse endorsements of her literary merits in the advertising pages are from English sources, and, as such, are cordial enough. Living still so largely in the colonial atmosphere as we Americans unfortunately do, this will to many readers seem all that can be desired. Yet to those who believe that there may, even on this continent, be such a thing as local color, both in nature and human life, these facts suggest misgivings which the farther study of this latest volume by Mrs. Moulton only confirms. That she surpasses all other American women, past or present, in the actual technique of verse, may be easily conceded. One looks in vain through the volume for a false rhyme, an unequal cadence. But this, after all, gives only the laurels of Andrea del Sarto, not of Raphael, as discriminated by Browning:

"Ah, but the soul: he's Raphael! Rub it out."

Many a short poem by Helen Jackson has more of real passion, many a single verse by Emily Dickinson more power of imagination, than is to be found in this whole volume. The versification, while always smooth, is rarely bold or commanding; and, worst of all, there is throughout a tone of rather languid pessimism in which the stronger and more self-controlled strain of "The Spring is Here" is exceptional, not normal (p. 141):

THE SPRING IS HERE.

I feel the kindness of the lengthening days—
  I warm me at the strong fire of the sun—
I know the year's glad course is well begun—
  Ah, what awaits me in its devious ways?

What strange, new bliss shall thrill me with amaze?
  What prize shall I rejoice that I have won?
I feel the kindness of the lengthening days—
  I warm me at the strong fire of the sun.

Yet I behold the phantom that dismays—
  The face of Grief that spares not any one—
Rewards come not until the task is done,
And there are minor chords in all earth's lays;—
Nay! Trust the kindness of the lengthening days—
  I'll warm me at the strong fires of the sun.

'A Season's Sowing,' written by Charles Keeler and decorated by Louise Keeler (San Francisco: Robertson), is pleasing as a piece of joint effort; but, after all, a book consisting mainly of detached couplets or even four-line verses becomes as monotonous to the eye as a mile-long necklace would be to the touch. The illustrations have a good deal of grace and variety, but the best of the couplets affords the best criticism on the rest (p. 33):

"Sing life's song in a major strain,
  Then will you not have lived in vain."

A similar monotony, on a larger scale, attaches to 'A Garland of Sonnets,' by Craven Langstroth Betts (Wessels). The correct form of the Italian measure is scrupulously followed, and even Shakspere is not treated to a Shaksperian sonnet. The versification is careful, the thought sincere and modest, and the book is illustrated with portraits of the thirty or more authors garlanded.

The monotony of the sonnet is also fearlessly tested by Mr. Lloyd Mifflin, and his versions of Bion, Moschus, and others under the name 'Echoes of Greek Idylls' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) form no exception to this general statement. To put, for instance, a lyric song of two verses into two sonnets (pp. 64-5) leaves a very incongruous impression; and though Shelley set the example of translating Greek idylls in this form, yet he would have been the last person to follow such an experiment too far. Comparing these poems with the originals, we find many verbal felicities, but, after all, the impression is made of a Greek bard in a modern dress-suit.

There is something rather attractive about 'Mists of Fire: A Trilogy and Some Eclogs,' by Coates Kinney (Chicago: Rand), if only for this reason, that it has the quaint old rhetorical flavor which especially marked the Southern and Western poetry of half a century ago. Its very titles—"Mists of Fire," "Capnisma," "Pessim and Optim," "Singing Flame," "Victrice"—belong to what may be called the Griswold period of our literature, and they are mingled with Loyal Legion poems and "Remember the *Maine*." There are worse things, however, than floridness accompanied by patriotic enthusiasm and simple domestic affection, and there is one of these poems, "Rain on the Roof" (p. 117), which has found its way into various uncritical volumes of school selections.

'Sword and Cross, and Other Poems,' by Charles Eugene Banks (Chicago: Rand), belongs to much the same class, with less flavor of early schooling, and bearing date some twenty or thirty years later. The author adds the more modern theme of "The Battered Old Grip"; he has apparently been on guard in Luzon, has a respect for Whittier, and makes "Uncle Sam to the Philippines" utter this appeal to the other party (p. 261):

"If thou art savage, brave, and strong,
  More brave and strong am I;
Thy children's children shall be free
  Though half my subjects die."

This is an application of Quaker principles which would have quite astonished the bard of Amesbury. The outside of the book is embellished with a very long and formidable sword, holding a very little cross in its protecting embrace; and this represents very fairly the relative proportion of these two influences between the covers.

'Living in the World, with Other Ballads and Lyrics,' by Frank Putnam (Chicago: Rand), is another of the zealously patriotic volumes, somewhat Kiplingized, but fortunately with a difference. The measure of the "Ballad of Civilization" (p. 117) may not quite move with Kipling, but for substance of doctrine it seems to come nearer to the precise truth:

We are out to Christianize the island races,
  (And may the Lord have mercy on their souls!)
For we'll put them willy nilly in the traces,
  And we'll work 'em till their sweat in rivers rolls.
We are going to teach the savage ones among 'em how to pray—
  They will have to learn the motions, if they can't be made to think;
We have got 'em by the collar, and you hear me when I say
  That we'll lead 'em to the water and we'll also make 'em drink.

You can preach until you wabble at the knees
  As to equity and like commercial drugs,
But we're bound to save the blessed Filipees,
  If we have to pump the beggars full of slugs.
Trade is waiting for the signal from the fighting men ahead,
  And our missionary brethren are impatient for the fray;
So we're going to pluck 'em living, or we're going to plant 'em dead,
  For we never shirk our duty when it promises to pay.
They have got to get in line with modern ways,
  They must sow and reap and mine and buy and sell;
They will never see again the foolish days
  When a man could face the world with easy gaze
If he owned a cot, a garden, and a well.
For the flying car of progress has descended on the land,
  Uncle Sammy has alighted and has told 'em what to do;
With a Bible in his pocket and a rifle in his hand,
  He has started 'em for heaven, and he's going to see 'em through.

The poems of Miss Stella May Herrick, under the somewhat commonplace name of 'Thoughtful Hours' (Cincinnati: The Literary Shop), have more than usual thought and feeling, combined with a good deal of negligence as to form and rhyme. An author who habitually substitutes for rhymes such uncouth jingles as "return" and "worm" (p. 80), "heaven" and "fathom" (p. 81), "publish" and "rubbish" (p. 95), is still in the sub-primary stage of verse; and although the example of Mrs. Browning and Miss Dickinson may be quoted to the contrary, yet they succeeded in spite of these obstacles, not by means of them. 'Nature-Pictures by American Poets,' edited by Annie Russell Marble (Macmillan), is a fairly good school-selection of poems on Nature, with, perhaps, a slight tendency to the commonplace in the selection and a distinct flavor of school manual in the introduction. There is great accuracy in the editing, which is, after all, the essential thing, in view of the purpose of the book.

'Ballads of a Bookworm,' by Irving Browne (East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycrofters), is one of those well-known books, increasing in number, in which the tameness of the letterpress is only emphasized by the beauty of the handmade illustrations. In this case, even our confidence in the high standard of the Roycroft Press is impaired when, on the very first page, we find "nonpareil" twice spelled "nonpariel." In 'Folk-Songs from the Spanish,' by Helen Huntington (Putnams), one finds more that is attractive in the prose descriptions of the preface than in the text of the book. 'Day Dreams,' by Ida Eckert Lawrence (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.), is one of those books of local celebrity described by the neighboring newspapers as charming and soulful, and sold largely, as we are assured, before the day of publication—a fact which compels the conscientious critic to be silent and pass on.

The Pacific Coast, which seems to be the especial place, just now, for poetic experiments, sends a singular volume, ranging from beauty to nonsense, called 'Omega et Alpha, and Other Poems,' by Greville d'Arville (San Francisco: Elder). The poet, with unwonted consideration, says to his critics on the first page:

"I fain would ask of thee,
  As critics true and brave,
If I a poet be,
  And not a rhyming knave?

"For if I fail in rhyme,
  With mind intent on high,
The lofty heights to climb,
  Forgive me then—I die."

There are occasional French phrases, and other lapses of English grammar such as above and as when he writes—

"Honest tillers of the soil,
  Thy life with gold is gilded."

But it is difficult to say what to make of an author who begins his poem "The Two Lovers" (p. 74) thus:

"Patter, patter,
  On the roof.
Clatter, clatter,
  Horses' hoof.

Matter, matter,
All enough;
Hatter, Hatter,
Sniffs his snuff.
Hannah, Hannah;
All a-fluff;
Ana, Ana;
Sleeves a-puff;
Dana, Dana,
Stern and gruff."

However, the book shows some patriotic feeling—though it is not quite clear towards what country this is exercised—and ends with the modest appeal, "Spero Meliora."

The stately volume, 'Moods, and Other Verses,' by Edward Robeson Taylor (San Francisco: Elder & Shepard), will have an interest for those who recall the volume of translations from Hérédia, by the same author, to which we called attention at the time of publication; and which had the merit, rare in such work, of being revised and improved with each successive edition. Part of the present volume is also occupied by translations, and though the author has wasted some effort in retranslating poems already familiar—for instance, Goethe's "Angler"—yet he gives us some versions so fine and rich that they seem almost original. The chief defect of the book, we should say, lies in too great facility of production and a standard not quite exacting enough. To this is to be added an occasional slovenliness of rhyme, and that same tendency to the coining of new and rather cumbrous words which was visible in the first edition of his 'Hérédia.' But from these minor defects we turn with pleasure to this strong version of Leconte de Lisle's superb poem on the condor, soaring above mountain tops and then slumbering in mid-air (p. 179):

THE CONDOR'S SLEEP.

Beyond the Cordilleras' stairs that steeply wind,
Beyond black eagle's haunts in mist-enshrouded air,
And higher than the cratered, furrowed summits, where
The boiling flood of lava rages unconfined,
His pendent pinions tinct with spots of crimson dye,
The great bird silent views, with indolent, dull stare,
America and space outreaching boundless there,
And that now sombre sun which dies in his cold eye.
Night rolls from out the East, where savage pampas lie
Beneath the tier on tier of peaks in endless line;
It Chili lulls, the shores, the cities' roar and cry,
The grand Pacific Sea, and horizon all divine;
The silent continent its close embraces hide;
On sands and hills, in gorges, on declivities,
And on the heights, now swell, in widening vortices,
The heavy flood and flow of its high-rolling tide.
Upon a lofty peak, alone, like spectre grim,
Bathed in a light that spills its life-blood on the snow,
He waits this direful sea that threats him as a foe:
It comes, it breaks in foam, and dashes over him.
In the unfathomed depths the Southern Cross doth loom
Upon the sky's vast shore, a pharos-shining light.
His rattling throat speaks joy, he proudly shakes his plume,
His muscular, peeled neck he lifts and stretches tight;
To raise himself he gives the hard snow lashing stings;
Then with a raucous cry he mounts where no winds are,
And from the dark globe far, far from the living star,
In the icy air he sleeps on grand, outspreading wings.

In Dwarf Land and Cannibal Country: A Record of Travel and Discovery in Central Africa. By A. B. Lloyd. 146 illustrations and maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. Pp. xxiv, 385. 8vo.

A more interesting account of life in Central Africa than this simple record of a missionary's experiences and impressions, it would be hard to find. The description of the journey across German East Africa, with which it begins, bears striking testimony to the inestimable benefit of the railway to the country in supplanting the necessary but "fearful practice of human porterage." Such were the hardships and dangers of the way in 1894 that of five hundred porters with which the missionary party of six Englishmen started from Zanzibar, only twenty-five reached the Victoria Nyanza. "Many had deserted, and many, alas! had died," from pure exhaustion, disease, and the attacks of hostile natives and wild beasts. In view of this experience of a caravan well cared for, it is easy to credit the statement that every tusk of ivory the Arabs bring down with their slaves to the coast from the interior costs at least two human lives. After fifteen months spent in Uganda, Mr. Lloyd was sent to Toro, a native kingdom on the eastern slopes of Mt. Ruwenzori, into which Christianity had been introduced by native teachers. He went on the invitation of the King, who had become a Christian while in exile in Uganda, and, on being restored to his kingdom, desired white missionaries to instruct his people and aid him in establishing Christian rule. The sincerity of his convictions was shown by the announcement, made soon after Mr. Lloyd's arrival, "that if there were any slaves in the country who wished to obtain their freedom, they were at liberty at once to apply for it. Some fifty Waganda women slaves immediately came forward and were released and returned to Uganda under proper escort." The author's work among this people was interrupted by the Sudanese mutiny, and teaching and exploration were given up for a time in order to care for the sick and wounded. Being invalided home on account of fever in 1898, he determined to cross the continent to the west coast. The King of Toro remonstrated with him on account of the dangers from the pygmies and cannibals. "But when I told him that I had made up my mind most thoroughly to go, in spite of all, he simply said, '*Ofude*' (You are dead)." Mr. Lloyd's singular power of attaching the natives to him and their devotion are shown in the reply of a lad of seventeen, who with two others offered to go with him, to a question about wages: "'What!' said Elisa, 'are we *slaves* that you should pay us for helping you? We will have no wage; you are our father, we love you and trust you; we need nothing but our clothes to wear; we will accompany you as friends.'" Among those who came to bid him good-by was a little princess of twelve, who "drew off a little native-made bracelet from her wrist, and sobbingly handed it to me and said, 'Take this bracelet, and when you look at it you will think of me, and when you think of me you will think of all my people, and you will long to come back to us again.'"

The most interesting incidents of Mr. Lloyd's journey through the great forest, the first made by a white man without an armed escort, were his encounters with the pygmies. On the sixth day after entering it, being in want of food, he was on the point of shooting what appeared to be a large monkey in a tree when his boy suddenly pulled his arm and said, "Don't fire—it's a man!" while the pygmy, seeing that he was discovered, "ran along the branch on which he stood, and, jumping from tree to tree, soon disappeared." That same night, while sitting at his tent door, he became, he says, "aware of a number of little faces peering at me through the thicket. Just in front of me was the trunk of a huge tree, and around one side of it there peeped a tiny figure." On his saluting them in the Toro tongue one little man returned the greeting, and shyly came forward, followed by others. "Broad-chested, with muscles finely developed, short, thick neck, and small bullet head, the lower limbs were massive and strong to a degree. The chest was covered with black, curly hair, and most of the men wore thick, black beards. Each carried either bow and quiver of arrows, or short throwing-spears. Round their arms they wore iron rings, and some of them had these round their necks also." The spokesman proved to be the chief, and, using the Toro language, he answered Mr. Lloyd's questions about his people and the forest "with marvellous intelligence, speaking in a rapid, sing-song way." There is little, however, that is new in the thirty pages devoted to this interesting race, unless it be the brief reference to their religion, evidences of which the author believes that he found in bundles of food and pots of honey placed at the foot of large trees, and "some little temples," of which he gives a picture, but no description or reason for his conjecture that they were religious in their object.

Our chief criticism of Mr. Lloyd is that the title of his book is misleading, and arouses expectations which are not realized, in regard to both the pygmies and the cannibals. The latter were encountered immediately on leaving the forest, and proved to be a "splendid race of people, . . . upright as a dart, with heads erect, and bright, intelligent faces." Their principal industry is smelting the iron ore found in the forest, and forging it into excellent spears, knives, and ornaments. They also practise a kind of wireless telegraphy by means of drums hollowed from a tree trunk, which gives two distinct notes. A message, such as "The European is coming!" can be sent a distance of over a hundred miles in less than two hours. Their cannibalism is not simply the result of a superstition, but "is no doubt a depraved appetite," and defended by them on the ground that, as man is the noblest of animals, his flesh must be the most nourishing. They proved harmless, however, largely, no doubt, on account of Mr. Lloyd's tactful treatment, shown on one occasion by his putting his bicycle together and riding into one of their villages—first to their terror and then amusement at seeing the "white man on a snake." In a little over a month after leaving Toro he reached the navigable waters of the Congo.

Among the suggestive passages are those in which Mr. Lloyd contrasts the treatment of the African by the different European nationalities. The German rule is strictly military, and does little for the improvement of the country. The Belgian, in too many instances, simply uses his official position to get rubber and ivory, if necessary by forcible means. In Uganda, on the other hand, "each chief has become a man of much more importance since the occupation by the British than he ever was before. He is respected by the British officers, and trusted to do his duty, and, until he proves himself incapable of controlling the district allotted to him by the King, he retains his chief-

tainship." Mr. Lloyd has numerous stories to tell of exciting encounters with snakes, leopards, elephants, and lions—these last especially dangerous in Toro, entering villages in the daytime and carrying off their victims. It should be added that Mr. Lloyd, a lay missionary, tells little of his work, and his book is singularly free from the religious expressions and reflections generally to be found in missionary narratives. The pictures are interesting and well chosen, and add much to the attractiveness of the volume. Its chief value, however, is in demonstrating the truth of his conviction, arising from his interest in and fair and trustful treatment of the natives, that "I and my little dog Sally might walk across Africa alone in perfect safety."

The World and the Individual: Gifford Lectures delivered before the University of Aberdeen. First Series: The Four Historical Conceptions of Being. By Josiah Royce. Macmillan. 1900. 8vo, pp. 588.

We can do no more than explain in untechnical language what this important book is about. Its purpose is to say what it is that we aim at when we make any inquiry or investigation—not what our ulterior purpose may be, nor yet what our special effort is in any particular case, but what the direct and common aim of all search for knowledge is. This is a question of fact. Prof. Royce has clothed the matter in such academical guise that a reader untrained in philosophy might suppose it was a mere dispute about a definition, and therefore a profitless discussion; but, stripping off technicalities, we find this question of fact beneath them.

The only opinion on this subject generally held at this day that Prof. Royce considers to be essentially different from his own, is one which may be attributed to Bishop Berkeley more justly than to any other individual. It is the opinion of Possible Experience. Though this has taken slightly different shapes with different thinkers, it will suffice, in order to explain the purport of Prof. Royce's book, to state it in one of its forms. The answer, then, generally given, or virtually given, to the question what any inquiry is instituted for, is approximately that it is intended to settle doubt on the subject. Did Sir Philip Francis write the Junius letters? I can imagine, as the handwriting experts say, that he did. I can imagine, as most of the recent inquirers say, that he did not. I feel no compulsion to attach either idea to my mental representation of the historic world. There are some images which I am forced, whether I would or no, to attach to mental objects—such as a dark skin and jealousy to Othello. The course of life has developed certain compulsions of thought which we speak of collectively as Experience. Moreover, the inquirer more or less vaguely identifies himself in sentiment with a Community of which he is a member, and which includes, for example, besides his momentary self, his self of ten years hence; and he speaks of the resultant cognitive compulsions of the course of life of that community as Our Experience. He says "we" find that terrestrial bodies have a component acceleration towards the earth of 980 centimetres per second, though neither he nor many of his acquaintances have ever made the experiment.

Now, such being his state of mind, two hopes motive his inquiry: the first is, that the course of "our" experience may ultimately compel the attachment of a settled idea to the mental subject of the inquiry; and the second is, that the inquiry itself may compel him to think that he anticipates what that destined ultimate idea is to be.

Such, approximately, is the ordinary opinion of Possible Experience, in one of its modes of statement. According to it every inquiry is directed toward the resultant of certain compulsions; and, therefore, so far as a sense of compulsion is an immediate knowledge of something outside of self, exerting a brute force on self, this opinion is that every inquiry relates to a brute something without the mind. It was substantially on this ground that Kant opposed the anti-materialism of Berkeley. But, regarded from another side, this opinion is that the only object to which inquiry seeks to make our opinion conform is itself something of the nature of thought; namely, it is the predestined ultimate idea, which is independent of what you, I, or any number of men may persist, for however long, in thinking, yet which remains thought, after all. The whole course of life within which the experiential compulsions appear is a purely psychical development. For the gist of the opinion is that the flow of time consists in a continual assimilation into "our" inwardness, the Past, of a non-ego that is nothing but the ego that is to be—the Future. The Past acts upon the Future intelligibly, logically. But those blind compulsions are glimpses of an unknown object. Now, the unknown, according to this theory, is nothing but what is bound, as our hope is, to emerge in the future. Those blind compulsions, then, can be regarded as actions of the future on the past. From that point of view, it is seen that they can but be brute and blind, and, further, that in the course of time they must be seen to rationalize themselves and fall into place as the cognition develops.

To Prof. Royce's thinking, this opinion is unsatisfactory. He finds four faults with it, and sets them before us with his own argumentative lucidity and admirable mastery of the subject. Of the nature of three of them—that the opinion under examination makes the object of knowledge to be no more than a "would-be"; that its "experience" is no experience for an inquirer; that it seats an abstraction on a throne of reality—we can here find room for no clearer hint than those phrases may convey. Whatever solid skeleton the three objections may clothe is pretty much the same as that of the fourth and strongest, that if the non-ego to which the inquirer seeks to make his ideas conform is merely an idea in the future, that future idea must have for its object an idea future to it, and so on *ad infinitum*. There is no escaping the admission that the ultimate end of inquiry—the essential, not ulterior end—the mould to which we endeavor to shape our opinions, cannot itself be of the nature of an opinion. Could it be realized, it would rather be like an insistent image, not referring to anything else, and in that sense concrete. Passing from the consideration of a single inquiry to that of the aggregate of all possible inquiries, the phantom ultimate issue of them all would be the real universe. To be that, however, it must include the mental world as well as the physical, and must set forth to itself all laws and modes of conception. It must, above all, exhibit to itself the whole course of time, with that process of complete rationalization of ideas upon the assumption of which the very hypothesis of a fated ultimate destination of opinion is based. It must, therefore, be conceived as a perfect rational consciousness. In short, it is such a conception of Deity (necessarily a one-sided one) as considerations limited to the Theory of Cognition could reasonably be expected to yield.

This inevitable outcome of the doctrine of Possible Experience is the very same goal, roughly speaking, to which Prof. Royce's explorations have brought him, too, by a path nearly parallel to that for which we have set up a sign-post for whoever may care to follow it out, though the hedgerows of thought may prevent the traveller over the one from being aware how close he is to the other. Prof. Royce reaches his conclusion by analyzing the nature of the purpose of an idea. Now this same conception of the purpose of an idea ought equally to be seized as the guiding thread to the doctrine of Possible Experience, although Prof. Royce believes his position to be quite foreign, even hostile, to that. One divergence is, that where another thinker might speak of a hope, as we have done above, Prof. Royce would substitute a *reductio ad absurdum* of the contrary opinion—a diminution of man's natural sublime attitude to a sorry "A is A." Fortunately the logic of those arguments is never impeccable, so that the hopes retain their matter and are not reduced to mere formulæ.

Two other views are examined. One is that of cognitive Dualism, which Professor Royce calls by the objectionable name Realism (as if the Dualists alone admitted outward realities). The other is that of Mysticism, which is less an opinion than an attitude of mind, of which Professor Royce gives an exceedingly penetrating analysis. There is a long and technical supplementary essay on the One, the Many, and the Infinite, which is very important.

The dress of the book is as charming as that of one so sure of being long and often perused ought to be.

The Practical Study of Languages: A Guide for Teachers and Learners. By Henry Sweet, M.A., Ph.D., LL.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1900.

In spite of its title, this is not primarily a pedagogical work. The author disclaims at the outset any special competence to deal with linguistic study from the standpoint of secondary instruction. Nevertheless, few school-masters are so perfect in their art as to find no profit in the perusal of this rich offering of recorded experience, original suggestion, and independent criticism. Not only in the short section entitled "Teaching Children," but on almost every one of these 280 closely printed pages, the teacher will discover an abundance of practical ideas and precepts that cannot fail to stimulate reflection, even if they do not find ready acceptance. Such sentences as the following indicate how vitally important to the pedagogue are many of the topics discussed:

"The only dead languages that children ought to have anything to do with are the earlier stages of their own language."

"If Latin is studied at all at school, it

ought not under any circumstances to be begun before the age of sixteen. Greek should be put on a level with Hebrew, Arabic, Russian, Chinese."

"No plan of study can be a sound one in which reading of the texts themselves does not take up, on an average, two-thirds of the whole time."

"The complete course may be divided into five stages: (1) the mechanical; (2) the grammatical; (3) the idiomatic and lexical (dealing with the vocabulary of the colloquial language); (4) the literary; (5) the archaic."

Especially opportune is the last chapter, which contains a critical comparison of ancient and living tongues, a discussion of the respective advantages of inflectional endings and prefixed particles, and an attempt to distinguish the effective from the superfluous differentiations of form. The following paragraph, the latter part of which certainly applies better to Latin than to Greek, summarizes the author's conclusions:

"Of course, it must not be forgotten that all languages are extremely defective if compared with an ideal standard, and that consequently the difference between them can only be one of degree; but if those languages are the most rational which express ideas most clearly, simply, and regularly, there can be no question of the superiority of the modern languages in rationality, and consequently as a means of intellectual training also. If, on the other hand, the mechanical acquisition of irrational distinctions of form, and familiarizing one's self with vague and loose expressions of thought, is the best training for the mind, then there can be no question of the superiority of ancient languages."

While intensely modern in his views, and while strongly advocating the principle that language work should begin with the study of colloquial speech, Dr. Sweet does not unquestioningly admit all the claims of the "new methods" and their apostles. Gouin, Vietor, and the rest are subjected to a searching scrutiny, and the fallacy of several pet articles of belief is ruthlessly exposed. See, for instance, the treatment of the "series method" on p. 178, of the "picture method" on p. 199, on the use of the foreign language in the class-room on p. 200, of phrase-books on p. 212, of the sequence of rule and example on p. 132. In the author's opinion, no serviceable means of acquisition should be rejected; and, beside phonetics, colloquy, and reading in the strange tongue, he finds a place—a large one—for grammar and translation. Only "composition" is discarded, or relegated to one of the latest stages.

Interesting as the volume is to the teacher, it is still more valuable to the scientific student and writer. We all, in fact, have here an opportunity to profit by the experience of one of the foremost of living philologists, who has acquired a command of many languages, who has produced some of the most original and fascinating text-books ever written, and who now tells us how to do likewise. Everything imaginable is discussed, from the proper device for getting information out of an incompetent native teacher to the best means of condensing material in a dictionary, from deciphering cuneiform inscriptions to investigating the speech of savages. The many defects of different systems of study, instruction, and composition are exemplified by extracts from a great variety of text-books; excellences of method and style are generally illustrated from the works of Dr. Sweet himself. It must be admitted that a considerable part of the volume is conceived in the spirit of "The good boy now stands before you"; but the author's favorable estimate of his performance is so well founded, and so frankly expressed, that his attitude is not at all exasperating. On the contrary, the personal note lends additional interest to a work which, from cover to cover, contains not a page that is dull or commonplace.

The Races of Man: An Outline of Anthropology and Ethnography. By J. Deniker, Sc.D. (Paris). With 176 Illustrations and two Maps. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Pp. xxiii+611.

This book deserves a place beside Brinton's 'Races and Peoples' (1890) and Keane's 'Ethnology' (1896), although less a work of philosophic insight than the former and in some respects more lacking in scientific accuracy than the latter. After a brief introduction on "Ethnic Groups and Zoölogical Species," the author passes in review "the characters (somatic, linguistic, sociological) which possess a real importance in the differentiation of races." These characters, according to Dr. Deniker, are much less numerous than is generally supposed, and "belong for the most part to the category of characters that are observed in the living subject." His treatment of these topics is generally very sane, if, here and there, a little too French; he is not, however, so dogmatic as Keane or so *risqué* as Brinton. He is fortunately without that worship of minutiæ which makes so many German anthropological works (not the books of a Von den Steinen or an Ehrenreich) of little value for the true study of man and of the races of men. For Dr. Deniker the "ancient controversy between monogenists and polygenists" is largely a scholastic one, and he contents himself with recognizing "several distinct somatological units," or "races," from the blending of which the "ethnic groups" of mankind have arisen. Both these terms ("race" and "ethnic group") are to be understood in a rather broad sense; and his much-discussed scheme of classification of races and peoples, the elaboration of which occupies a considerable portion of the present volume (pp. 280-570), does not suffer thereby. And wisely, too, he admits that ethnic groups are practically sociological units.

As is the case with every general work on ethnology so far written on the Continent of Europe, the treatment of the aboriginal races of America (pp. 507-576) is altogether the most unsatisfactory part of the book, although not so bad as might be feared; the author showing more acquaintance than does, for example, Ratzel, with the more recent labors of American ethnologists. The South American peoples do not suffer so much as the North American, and the author's errors are largely those of omission, not of commission—a remark which might be made of the book generally. In his discussion of savage and civilized peoples, Dr. Deniker calls attention to the variety and uneven character of the genius of the former, concluding that "the secret of civilization lies not so much in efforts of isolated individuals as in accumulation of these efforts, in the transmission from one generation to another of the acquired result, of a sum-total of knowledge which enables each generation to go further without beginning everything over again *ab ovo*" (p. 125). The author takes a much more favorable view of acclimatization (even of the European in warm regions) and miscegenation than is held by some recent English and American writers. He believes that "the most mixed and most civilized races are those which are soonest acclimatized," and that the tendency of races to intermingle and of civilization to develop, which goes on increasing every day in every part of the world, makes the cosmopolitanism of mankind only a question of time. One of the greatest developers of this state of things is language, and, on this point, it is interesting to note the fact, the importance of which can hardly be exaggerated, that in the Philippines "the Tagalog language is largely superseding other dialects in the Archipelago" (p. 491); the Tagals are, moreover, the culture-bearing people among all the millions of inhabitants of these islands. Tagalization of the Philippines, if the forced rule of a "higher" race were removed, would be the logical forerunner of civilization and ultimate partnership in the cosmopolitanism of mankind. And similar phenomena are to be observed in other regions of the globe. In reality, the intermixture of all sorts of a culture-favoring character that has gone on among savage and barbarous peoples has been much underestimated; the share of the American Indian, *e. g.*, in the development of the present culture-status of the Aryan peoples of the New World is greater than is commonly thought, even in North America. As to the so-called "Yankee type," which is discussed in every French and German ethnology, Dr. Deniker observes that, "if not a physical, it is at least a social type" (p. 508).

Altogether, the book is a very suggestive one, the illustrations (mostly from photographs) good, and the tables of anthropometric and other data new and useful. Being of French origin, it suffers a little from incorrect forms of proper names, as *Plata* for Platte River, Nebraska (p. 531). These, and a few misprints here and there (like *bollas*, p. 544), can easily be attended to in a second edition, which the book well deserves.

A History of the British Army. By the Hon. J. W. Fortescue. First Part: To the Close of the Seven Years' War. Macmillan Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 591, 629.

There is no lack of books treating of particular campaigns of the British army, and for a broader sketch there is Col. Cooper King's 'Story of the British Army'; yet Mr. Fortescue is able to say truly that a systematic history of the whole army has still been lacking. This is not his own first venture in military history, for his lively history of the 'Seventeenth Lancers' had been a bit of 'prentice work which proved his aptitude for the investigation demanded, his familiarity with military matters, his comprehension of strategic and tactical questions, and his command of a style well adapted to his subject. The two large volumes now published are only the first part of the general history, bringing the narrative down to 1763, and it will require about as much more space to complete the task. A reasonable degree of fulness in the treatment of such a history, so far from being an objection, is an advantage to the reader. He is interested in the development of a campaign, in its purpose and the means used to attain it, in the leaders and their prominent subordinates, in the pic-

turesque features of a battle and the telling of the way it was lost or won. Too much compression ends in dryness, and, instead of complaining of the bulk of Mr. Fortescue's volumes, one who cares to study the subject at all will find that the added space has given added interest and made the reading easy. The author's sympathy with the army about which he writes seems as ardent as any soldier's could be; and his apology, as a civilian, for undertaking such a subject, only accentuates the evident zest with which he has entered into it. It suggests to us that men of his name have so often been in the list of England's distinguished soldiers that family pride may well have stimulated his zeal.

Almost the only point one may find in the book for criticism is so eager an advocacy of the army point of view, that the statesman's is not always appreciated or allowed due weight. This is illustrated in the author's treatment of the passage of the first Mutiny Act, the year after the Revolution of 1688. Of the statute the author says:

"It made a great parade of the statement that the raising or keeping of a standing army in time of peace is against the law, but the standing army was in existence for nearly thirty years before the Mutiny Act was passed, and continued to exist, as will be seen, for two short but distinct periods between 1689 and 1701, without the help of any mutiny act whatever. If, therefore, the keeping of a standing army in time of peace is against the law, it can only be said that, during those periods, Parliament deliberately voted money for the violation of the law, as indeed it is always prepared to do when convenient to itself. . . . Nevertheless, the passing of the Mutiny Act remains always an incident of the first importance in the history of the Army, and the story of its origin is typical of the attitude of Parliament towards that long-suffering body. Every concession, nay, every commonest requirement, must be wrung from it by the pressure of fear." (Vol. i., pp. 335, 336.)

The Mutiny Act not only gave the King as Commander-in-Chief the power to enforce discipline by courts-martial instead of leaving him and his officers to the civil magistracy for the enforcement of the contract of enlistment by civil suit, but, by limiting the power to a year, made annual action of Parliament necessary to continue the army organization. Without it, there could be no valid enlistment which the civil courts could enforce, and members of courts-martial would be criminally liable for trespassing on the liberty or life of the alleged soldier.

The new policy was the direct consequence of the military dictatorship which Cromwell had used first to "purge" Parliament, and then to drive out the "Rump," which the military leaders, soon after the Protector's death, again drove out, Mr. Fortescue saying of it (*id.*, p. 275) that "it was not in the nature of things that the English generals should long submit to the junta of politicians which it [the army] had set over England." This, again, was followed by Monk's overthrow of Lambert and Desborough's dictatorship, and setting up his own to restore Charles II. The remaining time of the Stuart dynasty was not without military disturbances, and William of Orange had just been put upon the throne by another revolution. That a military historian, himself a civilian bearing a distinguished name, can now speak of Parliamentary jealousy of standing armies in the terms we have quoted, treating the history of such a time, is itself stronger justification of such jealousy than any argument that could be made. It demonstrates the inveterate tendency of military organization and discipline to antagonize representative government, and the fundamental necessity to civil freedom of strict adherence to the principle that the military must be completely subordinate to the civil power.

As we have said, however, this is almost the only stricture we have to make in regard to the book. The proper history of military events is excellently done. The maps are numerous, well engraved, printed in colors, and for the most part of single-page size interleaved with the text. A few folding ones of a more general character are found at the end of each volume. English military history is so largely the story of colonial expansion, that one brings away from its perusal a very succinct and clear view of succeeding conquests based upon the selfish greed of trading corporations, gradually changing, under the progressive enlightenment of the age, to some recognition of the rights even of conquered peoples, and of the fallacy of expecting material profit from conquest. The story of the establishment of British rule in India, particularly, is nowhere so simply and so neatly laid bare as in the military narrative of the struggle between England and France for dominion; native peoples and their rulers being the victims of each conqueror in turn.

Ways of Wood-Folk. By William J. Long. First Series. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1899. 12mo, pp. 205, illustrated.

The wood-folk here referred to are foxes, mergansers, rabbits, ducks, beaver, crows, quail, moose, chickadees, woodpeckers, owls, hornets, and bears. The notes on their ways are not very comprehensive, but are interesting throughout. They were gathered from the folk, and, being pretty well done in the gathering as in the telling, they abound in bits not seen by the many in the field. Boys as much as the older reader will delight in the book, which is a good one to place in their hands. It contains just what they might have learned under similar circumstances, if able to be still and look and listen long enough. The critical will find something here and there they would have said or done differently, as, for instance, the statement that nature gave the golden-winged woodpecker a straight, sharp, wedge-shaped bill well calculated for cutting out chips; a very long, horny-tipped tongue for thrusting into the holes he makes; a peculiar arrangement of the toes, two forward and two back, and stiff, spiny tail-feathers for supporting himself against the side of the tree as he works. This is followed by the remark that a new way of living has changed him from the other woodpeckers, has curved and put a rounded point on his bill, has moved the red spot to the back of his neck and partly covered it, has taken away some of the horny tip of the tongue, and has changed the tips of the tail-feathers. If the new way changes him thus, it may be that it was an older way that gave him the peculiarities of bill, tongue, toes, and tail-feathers, and made a woodpecker of him. The artist also may be taken up for attempts to improve on the text, as in the picture of orioles building amid wintry surroundings; or in that of the hawk said to stand on a bracket against the wall, but which is shown hanging by a string from the ceiling; or, further, in the case where the text says the author sits on an old stump, on the edge of a pine thicket, in front of an old fence struggling against the blackberry vines which grow profusely about it, while the picture has him sitting on the ground, his back against the fence, the pine thicket half a mile away, and the vines out of sight.

Municipal Government, as illustrated by the Charters, Finances, and Public Charities of New York. By Bird S. Coler, Comptroller of the City. D. Appleton & Co. 1900.

Mr. Coler has won local distinction by vigorous protests against several of the abuses of their trust by the rulers of New York, and in this volume he has collected the substance of his criticisms. He shows that under the present charter some $15,000,000 more is expended than was previously required, with practically nothing to show for it. There are too many departments, too many bureaus, too many officers, and too high salaries. The bicameral Municipal Assembly is an expensive failure. It "has developed into a mere obstructive body, with well-nigh unlimited negative power, or at least enough to defeat the best plans of any honest, competent, and progressive administration. As a lawmaking body, this branch of the government need not be considered, because it has made no laws." It costs $200,000 a year, and gives away privileges that could be sold for $500,000. The borough system is also a complete failure, and if it were abolished, and superfluous officers removed, $1,000,000 a year could be saved. The abuses that have grown up under the mantle of "charity" would be incredible were they not notorious. In various ways some $7,000,000 a year is expended by the city—a sum not approached by any other community, and with results of a most demoralizing nature.

In spite of this showing, Mr. Coler is an advocate of municipal ownership. We believe that he is responsible for the statement that it cost the city to acquire certain water rights $1,400,000, of which $900,000 went in condemnation proceedings. Until there is some reason to suppose that such robbery can be prevented, the prospect of enlarging the opportunities of the rulers of the city will not be alluring to the taxpayers. The argument that the water works have been a good investment in the past is altogether fallacious. Nor is the argument from the records of the Dock Department more conclusive. It takes no account of the exemption of city property from taxation, nor does it consider whether the rents charged for the wharves are proper. We have had a commission investigating the decline of the export trade of New York, and reporting one cause as being the port charges, in which the rent of piers must be included. In both cases the proper question is whether the business has been carried on by public officers honestly and economically. Theoretically, municipal ownership has many attractions, and it is conceivable that the community would not be worse robbed by Tammany Hall directly than it now is indirectly; but there is obvi-

ously no hope of improvement in giving such rulers as now control the government of the city more patronage.

So far as Mr. Coler's suggestions contemplate the restoration of its powers to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, they have much weight; and when the charter is revised we have no doubt that the Comptroller will furnish much useful counsel.

The Domestic Blunders of Women. By A Mere Man. Funk & Wagnalls Co.

If one is to pay "A Mere Man" the compliment of treating his book seriously, it will be suitable to state his argument, which is this:

A man's office is his business;

A man's house is his business;

Therefore they must be managed alike. From this syllogism results another:

But the house is never managed as well as the office;

Therefore women know nothing of management; and, finally,

"Any man could manage his house better than his wife, his mother, his sister, or his daughters, or a combination of any of them."

Now a house is not an office in either plan or scope, and herein, one would think, lay ample answer to the whole contention. But the author harps upon the analogy till he seems really to have persuaded himself that the home is a money-making investment—or should be; say, rather, a money-losing one—and that its failure or success is to be estimated in terms of the counting-house. Such an argument is met and overthrown by mere statement, and, like the Arab Princess, "sinks a-down, a heap of ashes pale." It remains, therefore, only to quote a few of "A Mere Man's" graceful dicta, detaching them from any alleged logical framework:

"The real remedy [for the servant trouble] is to promptly sack all your women-servants, and engage men only." "Men can teach themselves to cook in a very short time, and all the rest is child's play." "I do not depart from my original statement that the real fault of all the discomfort and extravagance of 'Home' life is due to 'the Missus,' but I hope that I have shown that my eyes are quite open to the servant's share in it." "Women suffer from the delusion that they are neat by nature." "Not only are women sublimely unreasonable in such matters, but their taste in the matter of decoration is most abominable."

And to come to his two fundamental points of doctrine. The habit, essentially feminine, according to the author, of ready payment of household bills, is destructive of the man's credit. "Do you suppose," he cries in pious rage, "that my wife's twenty years of paying the bills weekly would give us a fortnight's credit for a box of matches, or that our tradesmen would accept such a new departure as a small check on account? I say emphatically, 'No.'" The credit system and the discount system, then, are his watchwords. Housekeepers may place their own valuation on this code. A great deal of yelping about the universal mismanagement of servants and children, a certain amount of vulgarly humorous talk of chops and saucepans, in their relation to domestic happiness, and the contents of the book are indicated. Our fancy is that the verdict passed upon it by the American public, at any rate, will be, in the language of the cross-ways, "Correct Weight, One Cent."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aikin, Dr. W. A. The Voice: Its Physiology and Cultivation. Macmillan. $1.
Byron, Lord. Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. Cassells. 10c.
Coubertin, Baron P. de. France since 1814. Macmillan.
Davis, H. W. C. Charlemagne: The Hero of Two Nations. Putnams. $1.50.
Dix, E. A. Deacon Bradbury: A Novel. The Century Co. $1.50.
Edwards, E. Jack Pots: Stories of the Great American Game. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co.
Fitch, C. Barbara Frietchie: A Play in Four Acts. Life Pub. Co. 25c.
Gleason, C. W. A Term of Ovid: Ten Stories from the Metamorphoses for Boys and Girls. The American Book Co. 75c.
Harper's Guide to Paris and the Exposition of 1900. Harpers. $1.
Harris, Dr. M. H. The Chautauqua System of Jewish Education. Philadelphia: The Jewish Chautauqua Society.
Hunn, C. E., and Bailey, L. H. The Amateur's Practical Garden-Book. Macmillan. $1.
Jacoby, A. Ein Neues Evangelienfragment. Lemcke & Buechner.
Jarrold, E. Mickey Finn. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co. 50c.
Kaufmann, Dr. G. Politische Geschichte Deutschlands im Neunzehnten Jahrhundert. Berlin: Georg Bondi; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Kennedy, H. Lessons from the Desk. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society.
Lancaster, E. M. A Manual of English History for the Use of Schools. Revised ed. American Book Co. $1.
Landon, J. S. The Constitutional History and Government of the United States. (New ed.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. lxii. Williamson-Worden. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Lewis, A. H. Sandburrs. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Marchmont, A. W. The Greatest Gift. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Mathews, F. S. The Writing-Table of the Twentieth Century. Brentano.
Mathews, Frances A. The New Yorkers and Other People. New York: Godfrey A. S. Wieners. $1.50.
McAuley, A. The Rhymer. Scribners. $1.50.
Miles, A. About My Father's Business. The Mershon Co.
Mitchell, S. W. The Wager, and Other Poems. The Century Co. $1.
Orcutt, H. E. The Empire of the Invisibles. New York: The Metaphysical Pub. Co. 75c.
O'Rell, Max. Woman and Artist. Harpers.
Plummer, F. E. Gracia: A Social Tragedy. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Remington, F. Men with the Bark On. Harpers.
Rice, Prof. H. L. The Theory and Practice of Interpolation: Including Mechanical Quadrature and Other Important Problems concerned with the Tabular Values of Functions. Lynn, Mass.: Thos. P. Nichols.
Shakespeare, W. The Comedy of Errors. Cassells. 10c.
Shaw, E. R. Big People and Little People of Other Lands. American Book Co. 30c.
Slocum, Capt. J. Sailing Alone Around the World. The Century Co.
Stoddard, Prof. F. H. The Evolution of the English Novel. Macmillan. $1.50.
Supplement to Directory to the Iron and Steel Works of the United States. Philadelphia: The American Iron and Steel Association. $2.
Swett, J. American Public Schools: History and Pedagogics. American Book Co. $1.
The Prose of Edward Rowland Sill. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Valdés, A. P. The Joy of Captain Ribot. Translated by Minna C. Smith. Brentano.
Walkey, S. For the Sake of the Duchesse. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.25.

Henry Holt & Co., 29 W. 23d St., New York. 378 Wabash Ave., Chicago.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1900.

The Week.

Sufficient time has elapsed since the passage of the new currency bill by Congress to give some indication of the practical working of the bond-refunding scheme. This part of the act provides that the holders of any of the bonds maturing in or before 1908, which bear interest at 3, 4, and 5 per cent., may convert them into 2 per cent. bonds running thirty years. They may do this at any time before maturity. The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to pay a certain cash bonus to the holders of the existing bonds to compensate them for the difference in interest. At first it seemed as though all or nearly all of the outstanding bonds would be converted in this manner for the purpose of being used as the basis of national banknote issues. But the plan has not proved so attractive as was expected. It seems now not likely to result in the conversion of all of the 5s of 1904 and 4s of 1907, nor even of the 3s redeemable in 1908. Assuming that all national banks now in existence convert all their bonds, say $250,000,000, new banks will take not more than $100,000,000, and probably much less; private investors or institutions would probably not convert more than $50,000,000. So far only $25,000,000 have come in from these. It would, therefore, appear that a total of not much more than $400,000,000 of new 2s will be refunded, leaving some $440,000,000 of 5s, 4s, and 3s outstanding available for redemption or purchase for the sinking-fund of the national debt. It will be a gratifying conclusion if there shall still remain a sufficient amount of these bonds to absorb the Treasury surplus without the necessity of paying large premiums through purchases in the open market.

A dispatch from Washington to a morning paper which has been an active supporter of the ship-subsidy bill, says that that measure, and also the Nicaraguan Canal bill, will be postponed till the next session of Congress "because it is generally admitted that there is such a radical difference of opinion that a vote would not be obtained at this session." The ultimate fate of the former measure cannot be now determined, but it is quite clear that the discussion on it has told powerfully against it, and that the amendments made to it from time to time have not helped it, but have rather served to expose its badness and thus to make Congressmen suspicious of it. Thus, the latest change in the bill, known as the "cargo amendment," simply emphasized the fact that, as originally drawn, it was a bill not so much to promote the export trade of the country, as to pay large sums of money as a bonus to a passenger steamship line for carrying American tourists out of the country. The cargo amendment drew attention to this circumstance, but did not alter the real purpose of the measure. By a cunning use of words it confirmed the original intent, while seeming to make it less objectionable. All these facts will appear in due time, and it is well for the Republican party that they should not be too prominent a feature of the campaign this year.

Senator Morgan has come out so sane on the subject of the Isthmian Canal treaty that he may be forgiven a multitude of previous sins. He is reported as saying on Thursday, in the debate in executive session, that the neutrality of the canal was the thing most to be desired by the United States, and that this was absolutely guaranteed by the treaty. If it were left to be defended by the United States in time of war, then the canal and its approaches would be the scene of hostilities in time of war, and its destruction would be invited. The only thing that the treaty prohibited was fortification of the canal, and this was one of the strongest features of the treaty. The fact was developed in the course of the debate in executive session, that the amendment to the treaty reported by Senator Davis cannot command a majority of the Senate, and that the whole question will go over to the next session, in order to keep it as much as possible out of the Presidential campaign. Such postponement will kill the treaty, unless the time for ratification is extended. Probably the platform adopted by the Nebraska Democratic convention has had some influence here. This contained a resolution in favor of the "immediate construction and fortification" of the Nicaraguan Canal, which is equivalent to the repudiation of both the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. It will not commend Mr. Bryan's candidacy to the conservative voters of the country.

Judging from the amendments already made in the House to the bill for the government of Hawaii, the final state of that measure will be highly unsatisfactory to the ruling classes in the islands. They may feel disposed to agree with Senator Morgan, that it would have been better for them to keep up their own government for a hundred years, rather than to take such a system as Congress has devised. Not only are future contracts for compulsory labor prohibited, but all contracts of this kind executed since August 12, 1898, are declared void, and no laws enforcing them are to be passed. No corporation shall hereafter own more than 1,000 acres of land, existing rights being respected. The Prohibitionists may be placated by the provision forbidding the Hawaiian Legislature to license liquor saloons, but this can hardly be regarded as settling the liquor problem. Such matters ought surely to be considered by the local Government, and not taken in charge by Congress. A change of much importance was made by giving the appointment of judges to the President instead of to the Governor. The dominant element in Hawaii preferred to have these offices in the control of the Governor, whom they expect to be of their number, and they will protest against the dispensation of such patronage at Washington; not without reason. Almost the only means left them of maintaining their supremacy is the requirement that no one shall vote who has not paid a poll-tax. With this requirement, and with the restriction of the suffrage to persons familiar either with the Hawaiian or the English language, it may not be impracticable for the present rulers to maintain their ascendancy.

Senator Foraker explained in advance, in the *North American Review*, the peculiar merit of the Porto Rican bill which passed the Senate on Tuesday of last week. He said it was very cleverly designed to "give rise" to "questions of unusual, far-reaching, and world-wide importance." What he meant was, of course, that the Supreme Court will at once have to take up the tangle and cut the knots, deciding whether such legislation is Constitutional. Mr. Foraker admitted that, as a general principle, it was not wise to "legislate for the purpose of raising questions," but in this particular case he thought that it was well to make an omnibus of the bill, and bundle as many and as bewildering legal questions into it as possible. Senator Foraker attempted in the debate an explanation of the President's "plain duty" flourish and retreat. Mr. McKinley did not mean plain duty "now," but at any time convenient; and what he urged was only "free access to our markets," which the bill substantially gives the Porto Ricans at once, and will entirely in two years. But the plain tale of the President's message puts Mr. Foraker down. Mr. McKinley told Congress in December that the "time is ripe"—which means now—for legislating for Porto Rico, and as one of the items of the pressing legislation, he said, "Our plain duty is to abolish *all* customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico." Those

words, as Senator Proctor said, the American people have learned by heart, and no Senatorial sophistication can make them forget. Nor will they stoop, with Senator Spooner, to the pettifogging excuse that Gen. Miles's promise of full citizenship to the Porto Ricans was "not authorized." Was it ever disavowed?

The New York *Herald* has undertaken to ascertain the Constitutional status of the Porto Ricans in the most expeditious way possible. It entered into a contract with a certain Porto Rican, named Jorge Cruz, which was most carefully drawn, and beyond all question in violation of what is called the alien contract-labor law, in case the said Cruz was an alien immigrant. It admits of no doubt that he is an immigrant, in the sense of coming to this country for the purpose of carrying out his contract to labor here, and he was detained at Ellis Island, and ordered to be deported. The question to be determined was whether he was an alien or not, and his counsel applied to the Circuit Court of the United States for a writ of habeas corpus. This did not, however, suit the plans of the Administration, and Cruz was hurriedly permitted to remain in this country by the special edict of Secretary Gage. The position taken by him is that this is "an isolated case," and public interests will not be affected by allowing this particular individual to land, subject to future deportation. Moreover, this Porto Rican, Cruz, came without knowing that he was violating the law, "if he be here in violation of the law." Furthermore, he was not brought here in "good faith" as a contract laborer. Nevertheless, Secretary Gage intimates that, while the law will not be applied to Jorge Cruz, it will be applied to the New York *Herald*. Cruz was not guilty of coming here under a contract to labor, but the *Herald* was guilty of bringing him. Cruz may be an alien immigrant, Secretary Gage says, and the law is not to be applied to him, but the law against importing alien immigrants is to be applied to the *Herald*. That journal will have to defend itself as best it may against the charge of violating the law, by bringing in an alien immigrant who came in without violating the law, and who may not be an alien, after all. Meanwhile, it reports the intention of Cruz's counsel to sue the Immigration Commissioners for false imprisonment.

The labor unions will disapprove of Secretary Gage's decision to permit Porto Ricans to come to this country under contracts to perform labor. Mr. E. B. Whitney maintains, in a letter to the *Evening Post*, that aliens are persons owing allegiance to some other sovereign, while the Porto Ricans owe no allegiance except to the United States. The alien contract-labor laws do not exclude all contract laborers who are not citizens, but only those who are aliens or foreigners, which words are used synonymously. Hence Porto Rican laborers cannot be excluded, and, as all accounts agree that their country is overpopulated, we must be prepared for importation of them. The same reasoning would require the admission of the Filipinos, for it has been most earnestly maintained by the Imperialists that by our treaty with Spain we transferred their allegiance from that government to our own. The same authorities have dwelt impressively on the dangers of immigration from the Philippines as an argument against free trade with Porto Rico. Once admit that Porto Rico is a part of the United States, they said, and it will be impossible to hold that the Philippine Islands are not also, and then all the horrors of Asiatic immigration and competition will be upon us. But, under the wording of the contract-labor acts, all these horrors seem to be imminent.

One feature of the Pennsylvania Democratic platform differentiates it sharply from the one which Bryan himself caused to be adopted by the Democrats of Nebraska. The latter endorsed the Chicago deliverance of 1896 as a whole, and particularly its declaration for free coinage at 16 to 1, while the Pennsylvanian makes no reference to the platform of four years ago, and attempts a "straddle" on the silver question. "We reiterate our faith in the beneficent effects of bimetallism, gold and silver, the money of the Constitution," etc.—that is the way in which the Democratic managers of Pennsylvania would slide over the question whether they believe in the free coinage of silver, and, if so, at what ratio. Something of this sort would probably be accepted by many of the men who now run the Democratic party in New York. The more important question is whether such a sinking of the old issue will be regarded favorably in the South. The comments of the Democratic press in that section upon Bryan's Nebraska platform have shown that silver has lost much of its former hold upon the more intelligent element; but whether this change will be reflected in the attitude of Democratic State conventions remains to be seen.

The decision of the Kentucky Court of Appeals in the Governorship case will be no surprise to lawyers. All the Democratic and two of the Republican judges held that the action of the Legislature, in exercising its Constitutional prerogative of deciding contested elections, was final. As the Constitution has committed this function to the Legislature, the Goebel law, which prescribed the manner in which the function should be discharged, was intrinsically a proper statute. That law provided that a board should be chosen from the members of the Legislature to try the contested election, and to give true judgment thereon according to the evidence. The decision of this board is not final, but is to be reported to the General Assembly, "and the General Assembly shall then determine such contest." The Legislature thus clearly acted within its jurisdiction in finding, after a trial conducted according to the terms of the statute, that Goebel was elected, however informal the final stages of the proceeding may have been on account of the intervention of the soldiery. It is a general rule that the courts will not set aside acts which the Legislature performs when they are within its jurisdiction. In this case the Legislature was performing a judicial function committed to it by the Constitution, and its action could no more be reviewed than that of the Court of Appeals itself. It must happen, from time to time, that even the highest courts commit error and sanction injustice; but it is impossible to devise remedies for such evils. The wisdom of separating the legislative from the judicial functions of government is emphasized by the result in this particular instance.

The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court, supporting the Texas anti-monopoly law, may be in effect a blow to the Standard Oil Company, but it establishes no new principle concerning commerce between the States. The Waters-Pierce Oil Company, which is said to be a branch of the Standard, is a Missouri corporation, and, in accordance with the law of Texas, it secured a permit to carry on business in that State. In 1889, when the permit was obtained, an anti-Trust law had already been enacted in Texas, and the Waters-Pierce Company entered into restrictive agreements in violation of this statute. The penalty for such a disregard of law was a forfeiture of the permit to do business in the State, and the oil company appealed from this forfeiture, alleging, among other things, that its rights under the Constitution of the United States were impaired. The Supreme Court has dismissed the appeal, on the ground that a corporation is the creation of local law, and can have no legal existence beyond the limits of the sovereignty where created. The recognition of its existence in other States, and the enforcement of its contracts therein, depend purely upon the comity of those States. Hence any State may arbitrarily prohibit a foreign corporation from transacting business within its limits.

The Constitution, it is true, gives the citizens of each State the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States, but it has long since been established that corporations are not citizens,

and have not the rights which their personal members would have as citizens. The permit to this oil company was not a contract that could not be revoked, because the permit was granted subject to the act of 1889, which expressly provided for the forfeiture of the permits that it allowed. The State of Texas therefore exercised a well-established right in expelling this corporation from its limits. It is reported that independent companies will be organized to carry on the oil business in Texas, and that they will charge much higher prices for oil than those of the Standard Company. Probably they will, but it is to be presumed that the people of Texas prefer to pay higher prices for oil furnished by the owners of the Standard Oil Company as individuals, than for the same products when furnished by these men in their corporate capacity.

A fortuitous circumstance has enabled the New York Legislature to reduce the State tax rate for the ensuing year to 1.96, in place of 2.49 the previous year. This is the lowest rate since 1891, when another fortuitous circumstance reduced it to 1.38. In the latter case the Federal Government refunded to the State about $2,000,000, on account of the direct tax paid during the civil war. This sum was applied to the current expenses of that year. At the present time the fortuitous circumstance is the collateral-inheritance tax, which has received two or three windfalls (not to be expected to recur regularly), by means of which the proceeds from that source have been raised to the sum of $4,000,000, instead of $2,000,000, as in the previous year. This is very gratifying, and it will no doubt tell to the advantage of the Republican party, although that party did not cause the deaths of the rich men whose decease brought such large gains to the State treasury.

Prof. McGiffert's manly and honorable letter of withdrawal from the Presbyterian Church, rather than provoke a heresy trial by remaining and fighting for his rights, breathes the scholar's love of peace. As between a trial for heresy and quiet study, as a means of arriving at the truth, he cast his vote for the latter; and most sensible men will agree with him. His denomination is to be both congratulated and commiserated. It has got rid, for the time being, of a theological quarrel, but it also sees itself deprived of the services of one of its most learned and loyal sons. We have heard a competent authority say that Prof. McGiffert's history of the Apostolic Age, out of which all the trouble grew, was the most brilliant piece of scholarly work to be set down to the credit of an American theologian for two decades. What must be the inevitable effect on young men in Presbyterian seminaries when they see the fate of this conscientious historical investigator? Will it not be to make them think their denomination puts a premium upon either ignorance or hypocrisy? Presbyterian leaders dreaded the blow to their church involved in the threatened trial of Prof. McGiffert; his sorrowful and dignified withdrawal may prove to be a greater blow. A logical inference would be to cancel at once all the theological fellowships for the support of students in German universities; and to burn all books except the Westminster Confession, for the Turkish reason in the case of the Koran, that all books in agreement with it are superfluous, and all differing from it are wicked and dangerous. For a church traditionally boastful of its insistence upon an educated ministry thus to recoil from the real education of its ministers, is a melancholy thing. Presbyterian rejoicing over the avoidance of heresy proceedings in Prof. McGiffert's case is very like rejoicing over having poured out the baby with the bath, as the Germans say.

The popular opposition in Denmark to the sale of St. Thomas to the United States has drawn out a public statement from Georg Brandes, the well-known Danish scholar and critic. He is strongly against parting with the Danish West Indies, on the ground both of national dignity, and the good of the islanders. It would be a disgrace for Denmark, he writes, unless absolutely threatened with bankruptcy, and in desperate need of money, to sell for gold lands and people now under her rule. That the islands are an unprofitable possession is no real argument. Every nation has parts or provinces which add nothing to the general wealth; but that is a reason for cherishing and encouraging them, not for brutally turning them adrift. Brandes also took up briefly the assertion that a great nation like the United States would care for St. Thomas better than Denmark could. He drily remarked that there was no "certainty" that America would do so much more for the islanders. He was writing at the end of February. If he had been writing in the beginning of April, he might have pointed to American disregard of the wishes of Porto Rico as furnishing a "certainty" of directly the opposite sort.

Congress has deliberately adopted a body of laws and regulations concerning imports which are vexatious and burdensome. It has treated our importers as if they were smugglers, and assumed that the personal effects of every traveller were contraband. It has refused to accept the ordinary forms of invoices and valuations, and established the presumption that every importer is a perjurer. Brazil has now adopted the same policy. It has copied our consular regulations, and, when American merchants raise their voices in protest, they are quickly silenced by having their own regulations held up before them. If these regulations are to be defended at all, they must be defended through thick and thin. If they are properly adopted in this country, why are they not proper in Brazil? And if they are denounced by American merchants in Brazil as vexatious, obstructive, and onerous when established there, why do they deserve any different description when established here?

Many of the English newspapers, even the *Spectator*, are very bitter in their comments on the Delagoa Bay Railway award. The result, says the *Spectator*, is "another and a severe blow" to the "argument for arbitration." But why? Is arbitration only a less expensive way than war of making sure that you get all you think you ought to have? These grumblers have already forgotten the Venezuelan arbitration, over which they were particularly complacent only a little while ago. Venezuela thought *that* award a terrible blow to arbitration, but England laughed at her. A defeated suitor might as well go out and lament that his failure to win his cause was a severe blow to the argument for courts, and mutter vague threats about his intention to settle all disputes hereafter by private combat. Arbitration does not guarantee absolute justice. What it does guarantee is an escape from war, and that is so great a blessing as to warrant submission to a degree of injustice in the act, if injustice there be, or be fancied. As for a prejudice against England on the part of arbitrators, on the ground that she is rich and powerful, that certainly did not appear in the Venezuelan case, though it may exist. She is undeniably left richer than she would have been by war.

Absolutely no significance, of a political or international kind, can be attached to the attempt on the Prince of Wales's life in Brussels on April 2. Belgium has, of course, been bitterly anti-English all through the Boer war, and Dr. Leyds has made Brussels his headquarters. The Belgian newspapers, and the more inflammatory of the French which are read in Brussels, have said things which may have thrown the weak mind of the would-be assassin off its balance; but if such a crack-brained boy as he appears to be had not been set on by one cause, he would have been by another; so that the whole incident means little more than would the leap of a wild beast at the Prince. Royalty is now everywhere exposed to such dangers. As King Humbert nonchalantly said, at the time he himself was last fired at in the streets, "It is one of the risks of the trade."

THE DEWEY CANDIDACY.

At any time from the 1st of May, 1898, to the 3d of October, 1899, Admiral Dewey was in a position to command a nomination to the office of President of the United States by either political party; and by simply holding his peace from that time onward he might equally have commanded an election at the polls. On the first of these dates the battle of Manila was fought. On the second the Admiral had his triumphal reception in New York. There had been no hero so popular, no idol so worshipped, since Gen. Grant received the surrender of Lee's army at Appomattox. Nor was this idolatry based upon mere success in battle. It had a more respectable foundation in the belief that Dewey was a man without political ambition, but not without clear views and convictions concerning the war he was engaged in, and a high purpose to promote the best interests of his own country and of the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands. His dispatches were models of brevity, clearness, and modesty. His declaration, more than once repeated, that the Filipinos were better fitted for self-government than the Cubans, and that he spoke from knowledge of both, was hailed with joy by all who were opposed to the subjugation by arms of our late allies. In short, Admiral Dewey had exhibited those qualities of decorum, equipoise, and sterling sense in addition to those of the naval hero, which were well calculated to impress the reflecting portion of the community as well as to capture the imaginations of the unthinking. If he had not come home at all, but had pursued the even tenor of his way, a nomination for the Presidency, and perhaps more than one, would have pursued him to the other side of the globe. He was the terror of the machine politicians, and most especially of the McKinley machine, from the day of Manila until long after his return.

The first thing that opened people's eyes was the signing of the report of the Philippine Commission by Admiral Dewey just before the election of last autumn. This report was in open conflict with his previously expressed opinions as to the capacity of the Filipinos for self-government. It was accompanied by no explanation of his change of opinion. It left those who had admired his previous straightforward course, speechless with astonishment and regret. Nor has any explanation yet been offered, but the fact gradually leaked out that he signed the report without reading it, regardless of the fact that the public attached more importance to his share in it than to those of all the other members taken together. It is needless to say that the Anti-Imperialists had no further interest in Admiral Dewey when they found that he could not be depended on to stand firm for the opinions he had originally proclaimed. Until the signing of that report, he had the destiny of his country in his hands. He could have turned it, or rather have held it, true to the principles of self-government. He did not do so. What he did was not a conscious betrayal of principle: it was an act of thoughtlessness which proclaimed him unfit for grave national responsibilities.

The events of the past week have confirmed this view of his character. He has announced himself a candidate for a Presidential nomination. When asked which party he prefers and what principles he espouses, he replies that he is at the service of any party, and that it is not for the candidate to frame the party's platform, but to stand on it. The duties of the Presidential office, he thinks, are to execute the laws of Congress, and not to have a policy of his own. He recalls a President who announced that he had a policy, and who came to grief in consequence. He knows enough to avoid the example and the fate of Andrew Johnson. He ends by admitting that he is a Democrat.

The manner in which this announcement has been received by the people, has done much to reveal the true political sentiment of the country. The first feeling was that the frank, almost child-like sailor had, by the manner of his reference to the Presidency, cheapened a great office. But did he, after all, do anything more than express in words the theory of the Presidency on which Mr. McKinley has consistently acted? "It's easy enough to be President," said the naïf Admiral, after narrowly observing for some months the way in which the present Executive discharges his duties; "all you have to do, I see, is to take orders from Congress, and I have been obeying orders all my life." If Dewey cheapens the Presidency by his conception of it, he is only following the model now in the White House. It is but one more compliment to Mr. McKinley. Mr. Bryan puts the same ideal of the Presidency into his voluble promises to be nothing but the people's "hired man," if he is ever chosen President.

Our free-spoken Admiral has thus held up to the American people a sort of composite photograph of unfit candidates for the Presidency. In revealing his own inadequate estimate of the august office, he has uncovered the nakedness of the two chief competitors for it. "No sign of the decline of Prussia," wrote Seeley, when discussing the causes of her fall in 1806, "was more distinctly visible than the degeneracy of her public men." Our own peril in that regard is vividly before us in the miserable dilemma to which we seem to be shut up in the approaching Presidential election; and Admiral Dewey's sudden bursting into the field, as a new Richmond, shows us afresh into what a low estate the Presidency has fallen. The very disappointment and dejection with which his candidacy has been received suggest how joyfully the country would rise to a real leader, at this juncture; how delighted it would be to honor a man who would honor the Presidency.

We need to keep our minds clear in this matter. Dewey as a likely means of beating either Bryan or McKinley, or both, has been eagerly caught up by some excellent, but, as we think, shortsighted people. To beat Bryan or McKinley, or both, cannot be the chief end of an independent political movement. We must know whom we are getting in their stead, and what policies we are getting in the room of theirs. We cannot afford to defeat colorless and servile men by means of one even more negative and subservient than they. Jowett once said, "It is easy to get things done if you do not mind who does them." But we *must* mind who does them. For the end we have in view the instrument is all-important—the fit instrument, we may say, *is* the end. And it is because the main object just now is the restoration of the Presidency to its ancient and intended vigor and dignity; because what we want in the White House is a leader of men, not a tool of tools; because we desire not merely to beat Bryan and McKinley, but to banish their type altogether, that we cannot but regard as gratifying the coolness and regret which Admiral Dewey's aspirations have met from the country. A man is wanted more than ever—no crouching figure, stooping low to go under the bars which the politicians raise in front of men of large moral stature; but we sorrowfully perceive that the Admiral is not the man for the hour. His failure to come up to the requirements but heightens the popular eagerness to find the one who will.

What must be the qualities possessed by a man fit and able to come forward to put back the American Presidency on its old pedestal? Evidently, no mere hero will do. We are glad to believe that Americans now take their hero-worship more easily; that we shall not easily make again the mistake of supposing that a successful military commander will be a successful President. The military habit as such is a distinct handicap in the White House. No, it is civic training which the times now call for more loudly than ever in a man fitted to rescue us from our pitiful choice of evils. He must be, distinctly, an old American—not one of our heady new Americans, forgetful of the principles in which our institutions are rooted, and carried about by every wind of Imperialistic doctrine. He must be for sound money and a pure civil service. He must be a man of rugged, four-square build, able to resist the "ardor civium prava jubentium." If ex-Speaker Reed were a Presidential possibility, he would illustrate these necessary qualities. Even

now, if he had it in his mind to put himself at the head of the dissatisfied, the disgusted, the independent voters of the country, we do not doubt that he would soon display formidable strength. At any rate, he would be a candidate for whom men could vote with respect both for themselves and for the office of President; and would at least meet that longing which we are convinced is widespread throughout the land, and which Admiral Dewey's entering the lists has but served to accentuate—a longing for a full-sized man in the Presidency, to restore it to the honorable position of an elder day.

REDUCTION OF WAR TAXES.

Congress is giving us day after day items in the swelling programme of Imperial outlay. On Thursday the naval appropriation bill was reported. It carries $61,000,000—the largest ever known. Three years ago the sum was but $34,000,000. The doubling cannot be charged to the war, or to temporary necessities in the Philippines, as may be alleged in the case of the army bill. It represents the cost of a boldly avowed Imperial policy. The new empire breaks down the old economy; and the navy for defence, for police purpose, for necessary representation of the flag in foreign waters, must give way to fleets challenging the supremacy of the seas. Germany and Japan are doubling their naval burdens, because, as they charge, America has the ambition to become a dominant naval power. What they charge, we admit. An aggressive policy requires an aggressive navy, and that is what Congress is called upon to furnish.

At the same time that expenses thus go leaping up, tax-reduction is given an official veto. Great as is the outlay, the taxes have more than met it, producing sums beyond all estimates. As Sir William Harcourt said of the unexpectedly fruitful English taxes, the most skilled financier does not foresee the immense returns which may be had in prosperous years, in a country where a silent and unperceived increase in wealth goes on. Taxes that would have driven our fathers to rebellion, we endure without murmuring, because our ability to pay has increased several fold. But even we do not like to see the tax-gatherer take more than the Government needs. A surplus of $100,000,000 fairly cries out for a remission of taxes. But Hanna knows how to spend that surplus where it will do the most good; and so it is discovered that tax-reduction is now quite impossible. It would be difficult to take off one tax instead of another; there would be long discussions; the whole tariff question might be reopened; besides, Hanna needs the money.

The reason assigned by Senator Allison why there is to be no legislation in abatement of taxes is that he desires an early adjournment of Congress. Of course, Mr. Allison speaks not merely for himself, but for the Steering Committee, of which he is the Chairman; and the Steering Committee is the organ of the Republican party in the Senate. Probably the desire for an early adjournment is coupled with a desire to avoid a quarrel with the brewers, who, if the question of reducing taxes actually comes before Congress, will insist that the extra dollar per barrel which was imposed on fermented liquors as a war tax shall now be removed. Probably the advocates of the ship-subsidy bill are apprehensive that a measure to reduce taxes would block the way for them and render it more difficult to reach a vote on their bill, besides reducing the revenue out of which the subsidies are to be paid. There are sufficient reasons of a partisan nature for postponing action at this time, but such reasons are not conclusive of the subject. The question is of immediate interest and will become pressing with the passage of time.

The tax bill now in operation was passed June 13, 1898. It was necessitated by the increased expenditures incurred in the war with Spain. Some addition to the revenue was needed in any event, since nobody could tell at that time whether the Dingley tariff would realize the expectations of its framers as a revenue measure or not. The embarrassments of the Treasury under the Cleveland Administration had been relieved only by borrowing. The last loan of $100,000,000 effected by Secretary Carlisle had furnished a surplus of gold to his successor of fifty or sixty millions, but the desired equilibrium of receipts and expenses had not been gained. Although the situation of the Treasury was admittedly precarious, nobody dared to propose an internal tax bill, to better the conditions, until the war with Spain loomed up. This furnished reasons enough and more than enough for the bill. It silenced opposition throughout the country, and enabled Congress to do what it had desired but was afraid to do previously.

The bill which was passed raised the tax on beer from one dollar per barrel to two dollars. It established license taxes on bankers and brokers, theatres, circuses, museums, and concert-halls, exhibitions, bowling-alleys, billiard and pool-rooms. It increased the taxes on tobacco, snuff, and cigars, and on the dealers in the same. It imposed stamp taxes on a great variety of legal instruments and on bank checks, bills of exchange, telegrams, express or freight receipts, bills of lading, warehouse receipts, stock transfers, bonds, debentures, and certificates of indebtedness, and on sales of produce or merchandise, or agreements for sale at any public exchange or board of trade; also on proprietary medicines, perfumery, and cosmetics. Most of these taxes had been in force during the civil war and a few years later, so that it was only necessary for Congress to go back to the legislation of that period to find sources of revenue ample to meet the existing emergency.

The financial results of this measure were even greater than had been anticipated. The internal revenue rose from $173,866,819 to $273,484,573, an increase of nearly one hundred millions in a single year. Even this did not represent the entire gain. The increase in the four months of the fiscal year 1900 was $10,000,000 over the corresponding period of 1899, showing that the machinery of the law had not got in operation fully in the first year. Probably the full year 1900 will show collections of $20,000,000 over those of 1899, although the Commissioner of Internal Revenue estimates the total for the year at only $285,000,000, an increase of $120,000,000.

Now, the outlet for surplus funds by the redemption of the public debt cannot be depended upon since the passage of the refunding act, which extends for thirty years the bonds that might otherwise be paid off within the next nine years. This, in our opinion, was an improvident act; but as it is an accomplished fact, it points to the necessity of reducing the revenue in order to avoid a dangerous gorge of money in the Treasury. A few bonds (the old extended 2s) may be paid off at any time, but the amount of those outstanding is only $25,000,000. The payment of the premium on the refunded bonds will absorb a large part of the present surplus, but a new surplus will accumulate behind it. Some bonds of the new issues may be bought in the open market, but the appearance of the Government as a buyer would send up the premium to a figure which would, perhaps, render large purchases dangerous in a political sense to the party in power.

The reasons for an immediate reduction of the surplus taxes are, first, that any unnecessary burden upon the taxpayers is unjust; second, that the withdrawal of money from the channels of commerce, and locking it up in the Treasury, tend to produce a financial crisis; and, third, that the accumulation of surplus revenue tends to extravagance in legislation and to corruption in public life. These reasons will soon force themselves upon the attention of the country, and will lead to an irresistible demand for tax reduction. The Republican party may stave off the consideration of the subject for the moment, but it cannot be long deferred.

MORALS OF A SESSION.

There has been for years past a growing feeling that annual sessions of the Legislature are not necessary or desirable in New York. All the other large States in the Union and most of the

smaller ones find it both practicable and advantageous to get along with meetings of the law-makers only once in two years, and no good reason has appeared why New York should constitute an exception. Indeed, outside of the political class, sentiment in favor of introducing the biennial system has become very pronounced.

The feeling will be strengthened by the record of the session which has just closed. There were two reasons last fall for being reconciled to the idea that the Legislature must meet in January. One was in order that an immediate end might be put to the scandal of prize-fighting protected by law, and another that action might be taken which would prevent the danger that the Ramapo water job, which was checked with difficulty in 1899, might be rushed through during 1900. There were other things which it was desirable that the Legislature should do if it were to meet, but these were the only ones which made people glad that, through the maintenance of the annual system, it had to meet this year.

The character of the body which has just adjourned is best indicated by the fact that it required three months of time and the urgent pressure of public opinion to secure the passage of a bill repealing the license which had been given prize-fighting, with nearly five months more of grace before the repeal will take effect; and that all efforts to obtain the enactment of a law dealing radically with the Ramapo business have failed—the most that could be gained being the passage of a bill which will enable an honest Comptroller to veto any attempted steal. Some desirable measures on other subjects have been passed, notably a bill for the appointment of a commission to revise the charter of New York city, and a bill regarding the school system of this city which introduces much-needed reforms. Other reforms which should have been carried without opposition were defeated, particularly the bill to check that most demoralizing form of gambling among the poor known as playing policy. The great question of a thorough revision of the taxation system was taken up, only to be first muddled and then dropped. Altogether, there is little to which a candid member of the Legislature can "point with pride," and much of which he must feel ashamed.

The chief moral of the session is the demonstration of the fact that public-spirited service of the State by a man of convictions and independence has become more difficult than ever before. It is universally agreed that "the organization" of the dominant party has never been so powerful at the capitol as during the past three months, and never so open in the exercise of its control. Not only was the Speaker picked out by the Republican machine, and the committees made up for him, but Platt and his personal representative, Chairman Odell of the Republican State Committee, have not concealed the fact that they decided what bills should be passed, what amendments should be made, what measures should be defeated. The Comptroller of New York city, seeking the enactment of a much-needed law for the safeguarding of the treasury, was told that he need not bother about arguing with members of the Legislature, but should go straight to the man who owned the members, and he therefore asked Mr. Odell to put the thing through. Even the friends of projects which have no connection whatever with political interests of any sort, like the proposed State hospital for consumptives in the Adirondacks, have learned that it is Platt or his man who settles whether the necessary appropriation shall be made, and leading men of the medical profession the other day asked the Senator to say the word as dictator which would pass the bill.

A new Senate and a new Assembly are to be chosen next fall. It has just been made clear that, under existing conditions, no man need aspire to nomination as the candidate of either party who is not ready to become the slave of the organization of his party. In Indiana, in Iowa, in many other States, a man may get the nomination without owing it to any boss or machine, and he may serve out his term without any fear of being controlled by an outside power. In such States there are vigorous contests for the Speakership, and the successful candidate, in making the committee list, is no mere amanuensis. In such States, measures before the Legislature are favored and opposed by people who, in appealing to the law-makers, know that they are addressing free agents, who are weighing the force of their arguments and will be guided in their action by their decision upon these arguments. This is no longer possible in New York. Instead, there has been substituted a servitude of the Legislature to the machine which renders the position intolerable to a man of the right type. Men of that type still occasionally gain an election to the body, but they soon find that it is no place for them. There is to-day less inducement for such a man to desire membership in the Legislature than ever before in the history of the State, and the fact is one of evil omen to the commonwealth.

The most melancholy feature of the session is the fact that a Governor who was counted upon to assist in the restoration of legislative independence, has helped to rivet the shackles of the machine upon the public-spirited law-maker. Roosevelt has frankly recognized the control of the Senate and Assembly by the Republican organization; he has openly conferred with Platt and Odell when they decided what bills their creatures in the capitol should pass, and what ones they should block; he has given every young man serving his first term in either branch to understand that the system is right under which Comptroller Coler asks Odell to decide how that young man and his associates shall vote on a bill affecting the metropolis, and under which citizens interested in some public-spirited enterprise, like the hospital for consumptives, appeal to Platt to determine whether the money that is needed shall be appropriated or not. In like manner, he has proclaimed that nobody may aspire to an appointive office who does not yield allegiance to the machine, and thus closed what remained of the field for independence. This has been the greatest surprise of the session, and the most disagreeable.

IRELAND AND THE ROYAL VISIT.

DUBLIN, March 31, 1900.

The Queen's visit to Ireland has been made the occasion for many sermons by the English press addressed to Irishmen. We are reminded of the many "acts of atonement" that England has recently made for past misgovernment, and reproached for "the wild, ineradicable hatred which blinds us to the consideration that, without English good will, no further reforms are likely to be obtained." That is, we are cautioned that any display of discontent at this particular moment will be made an excuse for the refusal or postponement of legislation which is admittedly just and needful.

The one lesson Ireland has been taught by the Parliamentary and administrative record of this century is, that so-called reforms or changes have never been granted out of good will, but in answer to agitation, and only when agitation was accompanied with riot and outrage, or when the withholding of legislation became politically inconvenient. When Ireland is quiet she wants nothing; if unquiet, ungrateful, and disaffected, she deserves nothing. To describe Irish legislation during the past fifty or sixty years as an atonement for past misgovernment is absurd—most of the so-called remedial legislation has been belated and ineffective; what was given with one hand was taken away with the other, or nullified by administration.

Catholic emancipation is an illustration. Twenty years after the Catholic Relief Act, John Bright said they still

"had everything Protestant—a Protestant clique dominant; a Protestant Viceroy to distribute places and emoluments amongst that Protestant clique; Protestant judges who have polluted the seats of justice; Protestant magistrates before whom the Catholic peasant could not hope for justice; not only Protestant but exterminating landlords; and, more than that, a Protestant soldiery who, at the beck and command of a Protestant priest, have butchered and killed a Catholic peasant in the presence of his widowed mother."

Protestant "ascendancy" has not yet wholly disappeared."

The system of land tenure has been the root cause of most misery, discontent, and

disaffection. The Devon Commission in 1842 recommended some mild reforms: legislative effect was given to some of these in 1870. That Act was admittedly a failure, and in 1881 a revolutionary Land Act was passed to the principles of which the representatives both of landlords and of tenants objected. The land courts became a legal cockpit where landlords and tenants have wasted their time and substance ever since in litigation mainly due to the complications and obscurities of the Act. Over and over again we have been told that this, that, or the other Land Act was final; but since 1881 there have been about a dozen amending and extending Acts, while the Irish Land Question remains as unsettled as ever. Royal Commissions and Select Committees have recommended in vain the consolidation of this chaotic medley of laws into one consistent and intelligible Act, so that landlords and tenants might be able to discover their respective rights and duties. Atonement is still due for the evils inflicted by this intermittent, fitful, and unintelligible legislation.

Until 1885 the Irish Parliamentary franchise was different from and more restricted than in England, and it was only in 1899 that a broadened municipal franchise, promised by English statesmen for fifty years, was established, but accompanied by a Local Government Act so complex that the cost of local administration is already vastly increased. Why should Irishmen be grateful for delayed and belated reforms, for legislation which, even if it effects some improvement on the past, is not that which the great majority of the people ask for?

Administration of the law is quite as important as the laws themselves, and is entirely different from that in England. Judges and heads of departments in Ireland have been almost invariably selected for political reasons, usually by Governments hostile to the mass of the people, and are persons who, as a rule, are opposed to the principles of the newer laws they have to administer. They have drawn the fang teeth of Acts of Parliament, and shown an unusual astuteness in finding out ways to defeat the objects of the Legislature. Irish departments have no representative in Parliament, and so far are not amenable to public opinion. An English Chief Secretary, seldom long enough in office to understand his environment, answers almost all Irish questions, and is practically their sole representative, the supreme governor of the country.

Is not the most natural explanation of Irish discontent and disloyalty, not wild and ineradicable hatred of England, but the same discontent that showed itself in every English colony as long as their domestic affairs were administered from Downing Street instead of by themselves? With most Nationalists, Home Rule is but a means to an end, and that the better government of their country. "If any one ask me," said Burke, "what is a free government, I answer that for any practical purpose it is what the people think so, and that they, and not I, are the natural, lawful, and competent judges of this matter." In domestic affairs, Irish members are invariably outvoted in Parliament by British members more profoundly ignorant of Irish than they are of colonial and Indian matters.

Looking at the existing state of affairs, I cannot see why the Irish people should feel any gratitude to England. The country is poor; squalor and misery abound; towns are decaying, villages disappearing; periodically, acute distress and famine recur; the population continues to diminish in numbers and in physical vigor. Irishmen have persistently maintained that the country is overtaxed for imperial purposes. A Royal Commission, comprising some of the most eminent English financial experts, confirmed what a few Irishmen knew and most believed, putting the amount of overtaxation at £3,000,000 a year—a mere trifle as regards the imperial revenue, but a very large sum in relation to the resources of Ireland. Parliament treats this finding with contempt, and the Government says if we do take this extra amount of taxes from, we spend it on, you. But how? "To the further demoralization of Ireland," say Lords Welby and Farrer, who reported that "one sure method of redressing the inequality shown to exist would be to put upon the Irish people the duty of levying their own taxes and of providing for their own expenditure"—*i. e.*, Home Rule. "Poor Ireland," said Lord Welby, "spends proportionately upon her internal administration far more than wealthy Britain or wealthy Belgium"—*i. e.*, the British Parliament spends more. Irish taxpayers must find the money, but have no control over the spending of it. Instances of how this money is spent are—in paying the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, with 4,500,000 people, twice as much as the United States, with 60,000,000, pay their President; in spending as much on the police as Sweden spends on her army, and three times as much per head as England, with a greater proportion of crime, spends on her police.

Irish education is managed by the Imperial Parliament, and Ireland is the only civilized nation where compulsory education has not been in existence for generations. The methods and system of primary education are, according to the best authorities, the worst in Europe, out of date, and unsuited to equip the scholars with the practical knowledge necessary for the struggle of life. Protestant ascendancy destroyed or appropriated Catholic educational endowments and institutions. The spirit of ascendancy is still strong enough to prevent the creation of a university which Catholics will avail themselves of. "It is," said Matthew Arnold in 1879, "to treat Ireland still as a conquered country; there is nothing like it in Europe."

Private-bill legislation conducted at Westminster is so uncertain and costly that municipal and public improvement schemes are prevented or burdened with intolerable costs. The assessment for local taxation has remained practically unchanged for fifty years, and is unchangeable, causing grievous inequality of taxation. In the words of the Royal Commission on the housing of the working classes: "The poorest districts are said to be overtaxed, while the wealthier districts are undertaxed, and the local authorities have nothing to do with the matter."

It is not only in the larger matters that British administration in Ireland is overbearing and unsympathetic. It extends to the smallest details. Two recent occurrences will serve as illustrations: (1.) A local Board appointed as rate collector a woman who had efficiently acted as *locum tenens* during the illness of her father. The local Government Board, of which Chief Secretary Balfour is president, disallowed the appointment. Mr. T. W. Russell, a supporter of the Government, and Parliamentary Secretary of the English Local Government Board, interceded, and remonstrated with Mr. Balfour, pointing out that in England such an appointment would be permitted, and that it was the practice in England to consult and defer, if possible, to the wishes of the local rate-payers. The curt reply was, "Ireland is not England." (2.) Rural local authorities in England can establish public libraries, but cannot in Ireland. A bill for extending the Libraries Act being before the House of Lords, a Unionist peer moved a clause giving Irish rural ratepayers the same powers that exist in England. The Government refused to accept the clause, saying by their spokesman that "the classes proposed to be benefited had as great facilities in this respect as they required"—*i. e.*, none at all.

The Queen, and any member of her family, visiting Ireland as private persons would undoubtedly receive a hearty welcome. The present was announced to be a private visit at first, but it has unwisely been allowed to be made the occasion for snobbery, ascendancy, and unionism to trail their coats and challenge the mass of the people to tread on them. Every association, society, corporation, and municipal body is asked or expected to present some fulsome address, the terms of which must be approved of beforehand. Those who demur to such addresses or their terms are denounced as disloyal.

AN IRISH PROTESTANT.

PROGRESS IN THE FORUM.

ROME, March, 1900.

Since writing to you last June concerning the work of excavation then being carried on in the Forum, many more discoveries of varied interest and importance have been made. The explorations have been pushed from the church of Sant' Adriano at one end to Santa Francesca Romana at the other, and from the foot of the Palatine to, and partially over, the site of the Basilica Æmilia.

At the western end of the Forum, between the Rostra and the modern road, much dirt has been cleared away, so that the very early foundations of tufa blocks of the Temple of Concord can now be seen. Considering the softness of tufa, it is to be hoped that these foundations will not long be left exposed to the weather. The scanty remains of the so-called "House of Romulus" on the Palatine and the neighboring buildings have weathered away to such a degree since they were uncovered, some twenty or more years ago, that in a few decades they will, if left as they are now, entirely disappear. The requirements of students would be amply satisfied by photograph and accurately measured plans and elevations, and it will be a great pity if, when the work in the Forum is completed, the traces of republican Rome which Signor Boni has found are left to perish by exposure.

Besides showing the foundations of the Temple of Concord, the removal of the earth from this region has brought into prominence the curved structure behind the Rostra, and has given a new impulse to dis-

cussions concerning it. This has usually been called the "Græcostasis," but there is no solid proof of the correctness of this designation. A new hypothesis has been suggested by Mr. O'Connor, one of the students of the American Archæological School. It is that this building is the Tribunal Aurelii mentioned several times by Cicero. Modern authorities disagree as to the character and position of this structure. Mr. O'Connor's arguments are these: Cicero's words, though not clearly defining the exact position of this *tribunal*, evidently indicate that it stood in about this spot; furthermore, the curved form, with steps inside, which the recent clearing up of the site has brought to light, is such as Cicero describes, for he says it was "like a theatre"; finally, the technique of the construction is suited to the end of the Republic when the *tribunal* was erected. It is not difficult to deceive one's self in archæological matters, but this suggestion seems well worth consideration.

This monument is not far from the Comitium where, late last spring, the *lapis niger* was found. The explorers have pushed their way carefully all about this "black stone," and have laid bare the pavement of the Comitium, even up to the walls of Sant' Adriano. This was made possible by the removal of the loop of the electric car line which ran past Sant' Adriano, and over the site of the Basilica Æmilia—a removal suggested in my earlier letter to you, and which turned out a simple thing to do. On the level of the Comitium little was found. Many mediæval graves in front of the church were cleared away, and some inscriptions interesting to scholars were turned up. On the original level of the Comitium or—to be, perhaps, more accurate—on the seemingly Republican level of the Comitium, were several bases, one of them set up by Maxentius, bearing this inscription: "Marti Invicto Patri et aeternae urbis suae conditoribus Dominus Noster Imp. Maxentius P [ius] F [elix] Invictus Aug." At some later time the name of Maxentius had been partially erased and the pedestal re-used. The finding of this base (though not absolutely *in situ*) on this level, which is practically the same as that of the "black stone," has given rise to several suppositions, of which those of Prof. Hülsen are apparently well founded.

The love of Maxentius for the city of Rome is well known. He strove as best he knew to reanimate the traditions of the city's old-time glory. What the statue represented that stood on the pedestal we cannot say. There is no good reason to suppose, as has been hastily suggested, that it was the famous Wolf. But as this base is on the level of Diocletian's Curia, and as the "black stone" is on practically the same level and oriented on the same lines as Diocletian's Curia, Prof. Hülsen suggests that all this region was put in order by Maxentius, and that the "black stone" is, as we see it, a restoration of the same Emperor. Before this view can be accepted as proved, the relation of the level of the monuments below the "black stone" and of the layer of sacrificial objects to the "black stone" itself will need to be explained. For the present, however, the explanation is very plausible.

One great difficulty met by Signor Boni all over the Forum has been caused by the drains and wells, ancient and mediæval, which have to be pumped out continually. Some of the ancient drains can be made to serve their original function, and in them, as also in the wells (of which latter some twenty have been explored), many valuable fragments have been found; but in the main they have been a hindrance to the work. One curious point in regard to the ancient wells is that at the bottom of them (I believe in every case) there is a layer of river gravel in which are many objects and bones of animals. As a similar layer of gravel and objects was found under the "black stone" surrounding the inscribed *cippus*, it seems likely that it had some sacred significance. The objects found in the ancient wells (those of Republican times) are, in the main, vases of rude make, styluses, bones, astragaloi, etc. For instance, in the dome-shaped cistern of the Regia were found some seventy styluses and a small writing tablet. It has been suggested that this underground chamber is the sacrarium of *Ops Consiva*, but that sacrarium was on certain occasions entered by the Pontifex Maximus and the Vestal Virgins, and we can scarcely imagine their being let down into this dark, damp vault. But if the sacrarium of *Ops Consiva* has not been discovered, it is probable that traces of an equally important sacrarium have been, and that the circular foundations in the centre of the floor of the Regia are of the shrine where were preserved the Sacred Spears of Mars.

When the digging about the Regia began, it was hoped that bits of the Fasti Consolari would be turned up. These hopes have been but partially satisfied. One fragment of the Fasti was found; not, however, in the Regia, but cut to serve as a threshold of a door belonging to a chamber of late date in the Basilica Æmilia. The fragment consists of two columns of names. On the left, those of the Tribuni Militum of the year 374 A.U.C.; on the right, those of the consuls of the years 422 and 423—one of those of the latter year, Cn. Quinctius Capitolinus, being created dictator *clavi figendi caussa*. The occasion of this ceremony is described by Livy (viii. 18), who says that in this year 423 there was an extraordinary number of deaths in the leading families of Rome. Some said they were due to pestilence, others that poison was the cause; and, this last opinion prevailing, 170 women were condemned for the crime. This was a prodigy quite sufficient to call for the election of a dictator *clavi figendi caussa*. Originally these nails, driven into the wall of the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, had served as a calendar of the years, but with the lapse of time they were used only on very special occasions such as this of the year 423.

The results of the work on the Basilica Æmilia have been, comparatively speaking, very satisfactory. Considerable remains of the original building have been found and still more extensive traces of later reconstructions. Naturally, hardly anything of the superstructure has been left, but nothing was expected. The earlier remains consist of the foundations, and one base block of a corner pier of a colonnade running between Sant' Adriano and the Temple of Faustina; opposite the columns were solid spur walls connected with one main wall of the central space of the Basilica. These spur walls divided the space into small chambers. After the destruction of the original building, the site continued to be used; the walls were patched up, pavements of varied marbles (some of them still well preserved) were put down in the small chambers, and another colonnade erected, but in place of the large white marble shafts, much smaller, and consequently more numerous, shafts of granite were employed. It is not certain to what epoch this later construction belongs, but the style of the work suggests the time of Theodoric. This colonnade was originally (and probably in the reconstruction) matched by another on the northern side of the Basilica, which is still, however, under ground. What the two ends of the building were like is not certain.

Two results of the clearing of the Basilica are noteworthy. One of these is that the Argiletum, the street running north between the Curia and the Basilica, must have been very narrow. The other is, that, notwithstanding the well-meant attempts that continue to be made to reconcile with existing facts the well-known drawings by various Renaissance architects of Roman-Doric remains found near Sant' Adriano in the sixteenth century, the exact relation of these drawings to the buildings in this part of the Forum is by no means clear. It seems more than likely that the architects did not know enough archæology to interpret what they saw correctly, and that their drawings are more or less works of imagination.

Many sculptured and inscribed fragments were found in and about the Basilica, but only a few of them were of much interest. In the sewer which, after coming from the upper stretches of the Sacra Via, passes in front of the Basilica Æmilia, were lying, among many other pieces of architecture or sculpture, two fine slabs of the early Empire. They are about 4x2½ feet, carved with acanthus scrolls, from each centre of which springs a lion, horse, panther, or other animal. They were originally probably used to decorate some wall as similar slabs are used in the portico of the Pantheon, but whether they were part of the decoration of the Basilica or not cannot be told with certainty. One fine bit that did, with little doubt, belong to the Basilica, is a fragment of a metope decorated with a patera. The style of the cutting resembles that of the boucranion found last spring, so that it is probable that they both belong to the same epoch of the building's history. Another very beautiful bit of decorative sculpture found close to the same spot is a fragment, about six feet high, of a rectangular pillar, all four sides carved with foliate designs of which the low relief and the strong but delicate modelling point to the Augustan age. It is to the Augustan age, also, that the most interesting of the inscriptions found here belongs. It reads: "L[ucio] Caesari Augusti F[ilio] Divi N[epoti] Principi Juventutis Co[n]s[uli] desig[nato] cum esset ann[os] nat[us] XIIII Aug[uri] senatus." In the "Res Gestæ" of Augustus there is a reference to the adoption of Lucius by the Emperor and to the honors granted him, and to this event the inscription, of course, refers.

In one of the chambers of the Basilica was found a hoard of late bronze coins, but oxidized so much as to be of but little value. Another much more interesting hoard, consisting of 397 *aurii*, all but one of the fifth century, was discovered in the House of the Vestals. This find added another item to the long list of evidence showing the extremely casual manner in which the earlier excavations of the Forum were conducted. When the work reached this part of the Forum, the House of the Vestals was pro-

perly examined. This brought to light, among other things, a brick pavement in the atrium earlier than the mosaic one now visible, and two elaborate pavements of *opus sectile* in the chambers at the southeast corner of the building. In the wall of one of these chambers Signor Boni noticed the traces of an arched opening that had been blocked up. Having cleared this opening, a narrow passage was disclosed leading in the direction of the Church of S. Maria Liberatrice. In this passage were the coins. Three hundred and forty-five of them were of the reign of Anthemius (486-472), ten were of his wife Euphemia, and twenty-four of Leo I., who was from 457-474 Emperor of the Eastern Empire. As all the coins were very fresh it is not unlikely that they were hidden in the year 472, when, in July, Ricimer, with his army of northern barbarians, besieged and sacked the city.

The cleaning up of the Domus Publica has been completed, but with no result of much importance. The finding of the fine polygonal pavement of the Sacred Way in front of the Basilica of Constantine was mentioned in my last letter. Signor Boni pushed his explorations in search of this polygonal pavement still further East, past enormous foundations of the Porticus Margaritaria, and found that, where the road turned towards the Arch of Titus, there were also pavings which indicated that originally the road had run straight towards the Colosseum. Obtaining permission to dig beneath the nave of the Church of S. Francesca Romana, he found the remains of the pavement there. This shows conclusively the original line of this portion of the Sacred Way.

Signor Boni's removal of the late and poor (though broad) pavement in front of the Basilica of Constantine raised the question of the advisability of removing one archæological stratum to search for another, and it was argued with some fervor. As usual, the fervor blinded the eyes of some of the disputants to the real point at issue. The real question is: If the Forum is to be explored at all, is search to be made for the remains of the city as she grew and developed, or of the dying and degenerate city? If it is to be made for the former, this does not mean that the latter should be heedlessly disregarded, but merely that, where the two conflict, the interests of the later remains must give way to those of the earlier epoch. Furthermore, greater care than has sometimes been shown in the Forum must be taken to distinguish between a real archæological stratum and a stratum made by the workmen in the course of their labor. In the case of the road in front of Constantine's Basilica, there was no question at all as to what ought to be done. The rough, ill-laid blocks that hid the polygonal pavings were of no particular date, as was shown by the fact that the deep wheel ruts in many of them were at all angles one to another—that is, they had been again and again reset. Prof. Lanciani has questioned (in the London *Times* of February 23) the accuracy of my statement that this late road had nothing to do with the Sacred Way, and maintains that it was the Sacred Way of the time of Maxentius. If one choose, one may, of course, call this late road the Sacred Way. It is merely a matter of sentiment and historical accuracy. But it seems to be certain that Maxentius had nothing to do with it. The proofs of this are that the pavings adjoined the walls of the Basilica at a level and in a manner which show that the road was a much later construction than the Basilica; that some feet below the paving were found fragments of the porphyry columns of the south portico of the Basilica, which did not form part of the Basilica as first built; that bits of carving of the style of the ninth century were found below them; that a well containing other mediæval fragments was found, the mouth of which was covered by these pavings; and that finally a coin of one of the Della Rovere Popes was found beneath them. This road had surely never been sanctified by the tread of Maxentian feet.

The work in the Forum is by no means completed, but what remains to be done is chiefly finishing what had been already started. The most important undertaking now under way is the clearing of the site of the Church of S. Maria Liberatrice. The building has been torn down, and hopes are entertained of finding interesting remains of the earlier churches that stood on this spot, or of getting some light on the classic topography of this corner where Palatine and Forum joined. As a whole, the work has been so successful that it is to be hoped it may encourage the Government to go on in other parts of Rome and elsewhere in Italy.

RICHARD NORTON.

Correspondence.

FILIPINO CAPACITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The possibility of Filipino competition is causing many people in this country grief and alarm; some of them are endeavoring to arouse the laboring classes to a sense of their impending ruin. But when the *Nation* is found gravely quoting from ex-Governor Boutwell's speech, to the effect that, "They (the Filipinos) can manage a bank or run a laundry with a certainty of success that cannot be foretold of any other people, whether English or American or Hebrew," an ex-soldier feels tempted to rub his eyes and wonder where these commercial paladins concealed themselves during his sojourn in their midst. The army of occupation must have been "dreaming dreams," as Mr. Dooley has it; how else could they have failed to detect the business instinct of the banana-vender, the amazing thrift and industry of the Tagalo farmer, the migratory habits which lead the ambitious to compete with Asiatics in the labor markets of the world?

Under the influence of this distorting dream, many time-expired soldiers have returned to the States with the impression that the able-bodied workers, the trusted confidential clerks and bank-tellers, were Chinese; the merchants and planters Spanish, English, or German; leaving to the natives undisputed sway in the hack-driving business and similar intellectual pursuits. The Filipino orchestra at the "Alhambra" excited admiration, it is true, but rather by their agility in shinning up a perpendicular ladder to the band-stand than through the exhibition of qualities likely to cause dismay at some future date to the Kneisel Quartet. The remark of the cotton factory's superintendent in regard to the greater adaptability of Filipino operators has a familiar ring—one seems to have heard it before; home industries were duly warned of impending paralysis as a result of Japanese bicycles, of pianos constructed by coolie hands in Hong Kong, and yet our manufacturers continue to ship their pianos and bicycles to the very same markets from which they should logically be excluded.

No, the cheap-labor bugaboo will not serve—other means of terrifying the voter must be found; for any one who believes that Orientals can compete with the skilled American mechanic or artisan, working shorter hours and at vastly higher wages, is either ignorant of recent experiments or else a victim of self-deception.

ARTHUR HUGH FRAZIER,
Late of U. S. Vol. Signal Corps.

UNIVERSITY PARK, SOUTH BETHLEHEM, PA.,
April 1, 1900.

THE PARCELS POST STAMP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It might be well at this time to call attention to one of the most vexatious of the present stamp-taxes. I get rather frequently books from Germany by the new parcels post. They send me a notice from the office that a parcel is there. I go down and am sent from the stamp room up to the internal-revenue rooms. I must there sign a request for permission to purchase a stamp. If it is after four o'clock I am requested to come again the next day. So two or three days elapse often, as I am a fairly busy and hardworking person, before I can get my parcel of books. It is vexatious, very, but if Secretary Gage and the express companies will have it so, what is a poor user of books to do?

Respectfully, EDWIN W. FAY.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS, AUSTIN, TEXAS,
April 2, 1900.

THE BRIDE'S MIRROR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask you to correct two misapprehensions in the mind of the gentleman who has reviewed my edition of 'The Bride's Mirror' for your paper?

(1) I have *not* stated in my introduction, or elsewhere, that the Hindustani "ek" is derived from the Persian "yak." And (2) so far from *asserting* as a "fact" that all words must originally have begun with consonants, I have *argued* that it is a mere matter of convenience whether a consonant is pronounced with a vowel before it or after it, and have drawn attention to the large number of words which begin with pure vowels.

The one *fact* which I do insist upon in my introduction is that, whether rightly or wrongly, the Oriental notions of phonology are exactly contrary to those held in England. This may be *unfortunate*, but, as it is the fact, it is well to make the best of it.

—Believe me, yours faithfully,

G. E. WARD.

22 WARRIOR SQUARE, ST. LEONARD'S, LONDON,
March 20, 1900.

[Our criticism was based on the following statements found in Mr. Ward's introduction: "It seems probable," then, that the majority of the numerous short vowel sounds which now exist have been created out of consonants which had lost their specific *quantity*, and retained only a minimum degree of *quality*" (p. xxv.). "It is questionable whether a

pure vowel sound (or *tone*) has ever been produced by the human voice without some *noise* of the nature of a consonant, both at its commencement and its close" (p. xxi.). As to *yak* becoming *ek*, Mr. Ward cites this change (p. xxv.) as an example of "the first step in the process by which a consonant becomes a vowel," whereas, whether Persian or Hindustani (as we understood) *ek* was intended, the vowel was the original initial sound. Mr. Ward's explanation of "words which begin with pure vowels" is that every such vowel must be "pronounced with the final consonant of the preceding word" (p. xx.), which virtually denies the existence of pure initial vowels. Nor do we find that the native system thus adopted is regarded as a mere "convenience." On the contrary, it is represented as the correct view, "in spite of the rule in English grammars" (p. xx.).—Ed. Nation.]

'THE HEART OF ASIA.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was much impressed by the thoroughness, combined with sympathy, which characterizes your notice of the 'Heart of Asia.' A man of letters alone can appreciate the labor entailed by such a work, and it is indeed rare to find one who is not more anxious to display his own erudition than to do justice to his author. Your reviewer belongs to that limited class; and, though I have had no reason to complain of the reception accorded to the book by the English press, I cannot refrain from sighing—*Si sic omnes!* My collaborator, Prof. Denison Ross, is now in Spain, but I have a letter from him, in which he says truly that the notice which appeared in the *Nation* of March 1 is the most scholarly we have had. He offers at the same time some remarks on the criticisms of your reviewer.

"When referring," he writes, "to 'Omar Khayyām, Nizām-ul-Mulk, and the Old Man of the Mountain as schoolfellows, I had no wish to embark on a controversy. Mine was a mere *obiter dictum*, a passing reference to a very familiar tale. I am about to publish a life of 'Omar Khayyām from original sources, in which the legend is entirely discarded." On the rendering of *hijra*, he adds: "I have no authority for my translation of this word beyond the meaning of the root *hajar*—(1) *se separavit ab aliquo amicitiam abrumpens*, (2) *reliquit, deseruit rem.* Hence *hijra—alienatio, discessus, migratio.* The rendering given by me is, at least, not Persian."

The other technical corrections are accepted by Prof. Ross with gratitude, and will be acknowledged in a second edition, should one be undertaken.

Now a few words as to the criticisms of that portion of the 'Heart of Asia' for which I am directly responsible. The syllogism deduced from my remarks that all powerful republics embark on a career of conquest, and that the process is an anachronism in the case of a highly civilized community, is ingenious, but scarcely fair. The "judgments," as logicians would say, are entirely unconnected. The general truth of each, considered separately, can hardly be disputed, but logic is one thing and politics quite another. Nations are impelled to fulfil their destiny by the inexorable force of circumstances, and calm reason has as much to do with their evolution as it has with the genesis of earthquakes.

The first sentence on p. 388, writes your reviewer, is unintelligible. In point of fact it sums up my Indian experience, passed among an agricultural people. I there observed that the constant growth of a population glued to the soil led to the latter's productive powers being overtaxed. The land had no rest, and, as the cattle were half starved in the absence of grazing-grounds, efficient manuring was impossible. Hence crop results are progressively poorer in areas unreached by the life-giving silt of the great rivers; prices are ever on the upward grade, and the spectre of famine is ever present. I remarked a couple of years ago, in an article in *Harper's Magazine*, called "Side Lights on Indian Politics," that India was destined to give the world an object-lesson as to the truth of the famous theory of Malthus on a scale undreamt of by that amiable philosopher. It might be added that the same peril will dog the footsteps of your own great country in her efforts to civilize Cuba and the Philippines. A kindred process is at work in Central Asia. It looms huge enough on the map, and the population is comparatively insignificant; but then it is habitable only in the very limited tracts where irrigation is available.

I trust that you will find room for these remarks, and, thanking you in the names of my absent colleague and myself for your generous appreciation, I am, sir, your most obedient servant, Francis H. Skrine.

19 The Grove, Boltons, London, S. W.,
March 26, 1900.

THE DECLINE IN TEACHING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The central thought expressed in your editorial on the "Decline of Teaching" is of special interest to every college teacher. That specialization and the book-making craze, so common in colleges, have in many cases a deteriorating effect upon teaching power (as manifested in Mark Hopkins and others) the careful observer will readily admit. But the evil lies, not so much in specialization, as in the selfish nature of the man. In too many cases, his own needs and interests are made paramount to everything else; studies and instruction are regulated according to the problems to be solved, and not the needs of the pupil. To determine whether college teaching, on the whole, has declined, one must consider many changes and balance the gain with the loss. What were the conditions under which Plato, Abelard, Hopkins, and others made for themselves a school of followers? Pupils are coming to rely more and more upon the resources of libraries and individual study.

But it is the statement in Mr. Whitton's letter that "the decline of teaching is found in elementary schools" which should not pass unchallenged. However much we may urge reform and criticise certain tendencies in our elementary schools, every careful student of our common schools must confess that they are accomplishing more in every possible line than ever before. Let any one study the school work of a great city and compare it, point by point, with what was accomplished ten or fifteen years ago, and he will find that the present is almost immeasurably superior to the past. A few weeks ago hundreds of superintendents saw in Chicago results, not only in all the various lines of intellectual work, but also in government and discipline, that less than ten years ago would have been considered impossible. The careful observer of modern developments realizes the almost inestimable value of our recent progress in teaching music and drawing, and it is no exaggeration to say that child-study has been a great factor in producing changes in the latter, as well as in numerous other lines of substantial improvement. In technical knowledge, in professional skill, in loftiness of aim, in devotion to work, our primary teachers were never so well equipped. They have not lost sight of the fundamentals. In its development any science must deal with details; but it is chiefly the developer of the science who reckons with these—the average teacher carries nothing of the kind into the school-room. In Denver, the "mechanics of teaching" was never at a lower ebb than to-day. Talent is constantly increasing in two much-needed fields of education, superintendency and elementary teaching.

It is rather strange that Mr. Whitton attributes the decline of elementary teaching to professional studies, and yet holds up German schools as a model. No country in the world requires such a professional preparation for teaching. A study of the schools of four large cities convinces me that to maintain that elementary teaching has declined and is declining, is simply unjustified pessimism.

D. E. Phillips.

University of Denver.

HE, SHE, IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was struck by the recent letter in the *Nation* commenting on the inconvenience of having no third personal pronoun singular of common gender. In the part of the world where I was brought up, it is customary for all except grammatical purists to use "they," with its cases "their" and "them," in this sense. "They" is preferable to "it" because 'it' implies the negation of personality.—Yours truly, H. W. B. M.

ON TO OR ONTO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Concerning the age of this expression, as likewise concerning the extent of its currency, very little is to be learned from the dictionaries. And not only so, but, here and there, the treatment of it by their compilers betokens something like sheer illiterature. As a specimen, Mr. John S. Farmer, in his *Americanisms*, published in 1889, while considering it as entitled to a place in his work, pronounces it to be "obsolete in England." On the contrary, it is everywhere in use there, and scarcely, if at all, less among the educated than among the uneducated.

Six centuries ago, if not considerably earlier, *u*, initial or otherwise, began to be corrupted into *o;* and numerous instances of this corruption are seen at a later period, especially in the Kentish and East Anglican dialects. In the part of England where I write, to go no farther, we find, already in the days of Henry VI., instead of *unto, onto*, which, when a preposition, had, among its

senses, the one here adverted to. Evidence of this is afforded by the following passages from Capgrave, the last of them being of uncertain date:

"Than felle he down *onto* the erde, and reverently worchipid that site." *Chronicle of England* (about 1460), p. 58 (1858).

"And that cuntre is passing ful of drye sand; and the Saracenes went up *onto* a hille, and reised the sand, for to blynde the Cristen men." *Ibid.*, p. 160.

"He sangh the aungelles hough thei hir body bere Fer up *onto* Synay, and leyde it down there." *Life of Saint Katharine*, *ibid.*, p 347.

That *onto* seldom appears in literature between the fifteenth century and the nineteenth is by no means to be inferred from the paucity of the authorites for it, in that interval, about to be adduced. My notes on words, upwards of a million, are many more than I have had time to arrange alphabetically, or in any way. Other researchers, however, will doubtless discover materials for bridging over the yawning gaps observable in the annexed series of quotations:

"I haue stept *on to* the stage amongst the reste contented to plaie a part." Barnabe Riche, *Farewell to Militarie Profession* (1581), p. 7 (ed. 1846).

"I'll make you come on the publick-stage (now that I have got you *on to* my own ground) as often as I list." Rev. Edmund Hickeringill (about 1681), *Works* (1716), vol. i., p. 367.

"Sir Edmund then took it [his coat] and threw it *on to* the Window." Sir Roger L'Estrange, *Brief History of the Times*, Part iii. (1688), p. 302.

"He has stuck himself *on to* a Man of Sense." Sarah Fielding, *Adventures of David Simple* (1744, 2nd ed.), vol. i., p. 160.

"Mr. Suard tumbled *on to* the sopha directly, Mr. Thrale *on to* a chair." Charlotte Anne Burney (1777 or 1778), in *Frances Burney's Early Diary* (1889), vol. ii., p. 287.

"It was a library, opening, through a greenhouse, *on to* a lawn." *Lusignan* (1801), vol. iii., p. 155.

"He furiously burst open the door, and issued *on to* the platform." *Edwin* (1803), vol. ii., p. 224. Also vol. ii., p. 144, and vol. iii., p. 21.

"He darted through the casement *on to* the roof." Trans. of La Marteliere's *Three Gil Blas* (1804), vol. ii., p. 56.

"I will . . . tie you *on to* my own finger, rather than the like should ever come again." *Ora and Juliet* (1811), vol. i., p. 195.

"How would England not be benefited, were he compelled to sit in Mr. Newman's shop, and sew fur *on to* satin!" Shelley, *Letter* (1812), in *Nation*, vol. xlviii., p. 465.

"By putting *on to* vice the mask of virtue." Letitia M. Hawkins, *Memoirs*, etc. (1824), vol. ii., p. 22.

"The creature . . . leapt, as if by choice, *on to* the estrade of the altar." William Taylor, *Historic Survey of German Poetry* (1830), vol. i., p. 63.

"Rather than lose her legacy, she hung him *on to* the window-bar." Joseph Jekyll (1830), *Correspondence* (1894), p. 256.

"He is represented as on the point of pushing his lordship *on to* the frail covering." *Westminster Review* (1833), vol. xviii., p. 221.

"Our first step off the Bible is *on to* Popery." Rev. G. S. Faber (1840), *Provincial Letters* (1844). vol. i., Preface, p. viii. Also *ibid.*, vol. i., p. 257,

"Martin mounted *on to* the roof of the building that was in peril." Cardinal Newman, *Ecclesiastical Miracles* (1842), p. 34 (ed. 1843).

"The hold he had acquired over them led to their following him *on to* sacred ground." *Id.* (1874), *Letters* (1891), vol. i., p. 153.

"He took my arm, and walked with me *on to* the stage." Charles Whitehead, *Richard Savage* (1842), vol. ii., p. 286 (ed. 1845).

"Your guilt . . . is folded, and fastened *on to* the pack-saddle." A. W. Kinglake, *Eothen* (1844), p. 246 (ed. 1849).

"Our merchant princes . . . hitch themselves *on to* the peerage." Matthew J. Higgins (1845), *Essays* (1875), p. 5.

"With trifling exception, the Israelitish nation was shut up *on to* the Continent." F. W. Newman, *History of the Hebrew Monarchy* (1847), p. 3.

"I appeared suddenly lifted *on to* higher ground." *Id.*, *Text of the Iguvine Inscriptions* (1864), Preface, p. xii.

"The army of Charles Albert has been forced back *on to* the mountains of Biela." Lord Malmesbury (1849), *Memoirs of an ex-Minister* (1884), vol. i., p. 243.

"The door . . . was . . . open *on to* it." Rev. S. G. Osborne, *Gleanings in the West of Ireland* (1850), p. 51.

"I jumped *on to* a half-broken-down wall." Laurence Oliphant, *Journey to Katmandu* (1852), p. 157.

"This would lay the ship broadside *on to* the sea, and swamp her." T. L. Peacock (1852), *Works* (1875), vol. iii., p. 361.

"The man . . . rolled the Bear *on to* the sledge." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), p. 300.

"Everything cast by the sea *on to* the shore must be burned." Lady Shelley, *Shelley Memorials* (1859), p. 201. Also pp. 191, 203.

"*On to* Ararat." Charles Reade, *Eighth Commandment* 1860), p. 70.

"Dropping *on to* the deck." Rev. James Pycroft, *Agony Point* (1861), p. 319 (ed. 1862).

"She jumped *on to* the beach." George Eliot, *Romola* (1863), ch. 68.

"Public opinion has long and steadily demanded that smoking-carriages should be put *on to* every train." John Morley, *Modern Characteristics* (1866), p. 242.

"I had no need to go *on to* the balcony, or to open my window." Bp. Connop Thirlwall (1867), *Letters to a Friend* (1881), vol. ii., p 95.

"If laid on its back, it struggles *on to* its legs again." Dr. Henry Maudsley, *Body and Mind* (1870), p. 13.

"Dropping *on to* your knees on an ice staircase means simply dropping off the steps." Leslie Stephen, *Playground of Europe* (1871), p. 309.

"A good hold upon current commonplaces, and facility in applying them to practical purposes, will enable a man to climb *on to* his neighbours' shoulders, and direct them this way or that." Sir J. F. Stephen, *Liberty, Equality, Fraternity* (1873), p. 240.

"You can lay hold *on to* the branches of the tree of life with your tails." John Ruskin (1875), *Fors Clavigera*, vol. v., p. 336.

"Mr. Gladstone bounded *on to* the floor." Sir G. O. Trevelyan, *Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay* (1876), p. 580 (ed. 1889).

"The nave stuck *on to* the Norman tower." E. A. Freeman (1878), in *Life and Letters* (1895), vol. ii., p. 167.

"He was first stunned by a blow on the head, and thrown *on to* the straw." Rev. Dr. F. G. Lee, *The Church under Queen Elizabeth* (1880), vol. ii., p. 292. Also vol. i., p. 40.

On to is employed very freely by Sir G. W. Dasent, George Eliot, Charles Reade, John Morley, Leslie Stephen, and Dr. H. Maudsley, and freely by F. W. Newman and Laurence Oliphant. Other authorities for it, not named above, are Bentham, De Quincey, Dickens, Thackeray, Henry Crabb Robinson, Carlyle, Bishop Samuel Wilberforce, etc.; but my references to them are too vague to be helpful. John Pickering, in his *Vocabulary*, cites William Marshall, a writer of the last century, for both *on to* and *onto*.

Prof. Adams S. Hill, in his *Foundations of Rhetoric*, lays it down that "good use [usage], at any rate, does not support either *on to* or *onto*." It must be manifest, however, from what has now been set forth, that no one is warranted in regarding it as an expression to be carefully shunned. Without doubt it will belong to the standard English of the future.

Coleridge, in his *Friend*—vol. iii., p. 231, ed. 1818—has: "The periods, too, *join on to* each other." Here, as in "he *went on to* New York," *to* goes with the verb preceding it. Again, the Rev. Prof. John Earle—in his *Philology of the English Tongue*, 1871, p. 316—has: "They have *added* the -en plural-form *on to* an elder plural." In this sentence, also, I take it, there is no compound preposition, any more than there is in "a shed was *added on to* the barn," but an adverbial complement, with a preposition subjoined.

In the *Paston Letters* we find, in place of *unto, on to;* in Capgrave, well nigh in every other page, *onto* or *on to*, but generally the first; and, in the *Ludus Coventriae*, *onto*. All these works are of the fifteenth century. In America, it looks as if *onto* were gaining favor gradually; it is certainly preferable, on grounds of analogy, to *on to*. Moreover, as *up on*, if put for *upon*, would be misleading; so may be *on to* for *onto*. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 16, 1900.

P. S.—Some cases where *on to* is not prepositional are given below:

"The women will . . . *hang on to* the steps of the Sheriff's car." Rev. and Hon. S. G. Osborne, *Gleanings in the West of Ireland* (1850), p. 27.

"We see his principles fitted *on to* his own experience." Rev. R. W. Church, in *Oxford Essays* (1857), p. 253.

"He pats him on the back . . . for hanging *on to* blocks of ice." *Saturday Review* (1858), vol. vi., p. 612.

"It bores him to have to untie that wonderful piece of patchwork to fit it *on to* yours." Bernard Cracroft, *Essays*, etc. (1868), vol. i., p. 269.

Notes.

The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, have in preparation a complete and uniform reissue of the works of James Whitcomb Riley, to be known as "The Greenfield Edition"; an entirely new edition of Shakspere, edited by Edward Dowden, beginning with "Hamlet"; and 'American Fungi,' by Charles McIlvaine, copiously illustrated in color and in pen-and-ink.

The exact title of Prof. W. H. Crawshaw's work forthcoming from Macmillan Co. is 'Literary Interpretation of Life.' The same firm will publish immediately 'Doctrine and Doctrinal Disruption,' by W. H. Mallock.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, will bring out at once twelve new volumes in their "Court Memoir Series," completing the set of twenty. Mme. Campan's 'Memoirs of Marie Antoinette,' in two volumes, heads the new list.

Ten years ago we noticed in these columns Mr. George Edward Woodberry's 'Studies in Letters and Life,' and called attention to the rare quality and permanent value of his work. In the volume just issued by the Macmillan Co., entitled 'Makers of Literature,' these earlier essays are reprinted with the omission of that "On the Promise of Keats" and the remarks on Italian Renaissance Literature which closed the "Illustrations of Idealism." The new volume comprises, in addition to this earlier nucleus, with its mention of Landor, Crabbe, Shelley, Byron, and Browning, more recent papers on Matthew Arnold, Coleridge, Lamb, Aubrey de Vere, Whittier, Lowell; and two new sketches discussing aspects of Shelley's life and genius. This roll almost completes the list of the great figures in English literature of the passing century. The special work of each and its relative value are here analyzed and weighed by the sure hand of a master in his craft. There are so

many amateurs in criticism—so many called and so few chosen—that it is a service to students of the best in literature to commend to them the ideas and the guidance of these remarkable appreciations. They are examples of the broad and diverse range of equipment which the true critic must possess—the natural gift, the wide and delicate sympathy, the knowledge of literatures and systems of thought, the firm grasp of definite and fundamental principles, vivified and illumined, if possible, by the poet's insight and his divination of the heart of man. These gifts and acquirements, together with the graces of a finished style, Mr. Woodberry does certainly display. It is not too much to say that as a critic he is, on our side of the ocean, the legitimate heir of James Russell Lowell—to all appearance, in fact, his sole inheritor at the present day.

'Harper's Guide to Paris and the Exposition of 1900' is of a very practical cast, embracing a Paris Dictionary, occasional phrases for conversation, and other useful features in addition to a description of the Exposition itself. The illustrations, though mostly familiar, partly relate to the great show, as in the case of the new Alexander III. bridge. A sufficient folded map of the city is attached to the cover. The compact volume slips readily into the pocket.

In 'A Russian Province of the North,' by Alexander Platonovitch Engelhardt, Governor of the Province of Archangel, translated by H. Cooke (Lippincott), we get rather an interesting glimpse of life and conditions in a region seldom visited by the ordinary traveller. One hardly thinks of the huge district of Archangel (a good deal larger than Texas), with its barren soil and long winters, as a particularly attractive dwelling-place. Mr. Engelhardt does not attempt to make it out a paradise, but he does describe the rich resources of his northern realm, he tells what is being done and what remains to be done, writing of the country and people in a simple, unaffected way that almost makes one share his kindly enthusiasm. After all, life even so far north can afford plenty of interest for those who have their homes there, for their energetic Governor, and also for those who read his book.

Miss Wormeley's translation of Balzac's 'Lettres à l'Étrangère' forms an interesting addition to Messrs. Hardy, Pratt & Co.'s now well-known series, and serves in many passages as a suggestive commentary for the study of the development of the "Comédie Humaine." From the purely biographical point of view, this volume naturally rouses curiosity as to the ante-conjugal relations of the great novelist and Mme. de Hanska, concerning which, however, the translator admits no manner of doubt. Assuming *a priori* that these were strictly unexceptionable, she disposes of a group of somewhat compromising letters by declaring them to have been unscrupulously garbled in order to satisfy an unholy taste for scandal. We need hardly remark that until the originals are produced, all inferences as to spuriousness, based on tone and style, remain entirely conjectural. But charges implying that any liberties have been taken with the text of Balzac might well be kept *in petto* by editors and publishers who collaborate in a collection which, as the prospectus declares, "can be placed in the library and read by the whole family."

The late Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr. Benson, left an unfinished 'Study of the Apocalypse' which has now been published by his daughter in a volume that, in its external appearance, forms a fitting memorial of the author (Macmillan). Its contents are remarkable, since they are modest in tone, sane in interpretation, and strongly individual, rather than churchly, in application.

For the comparative study of the Gospels a valuable help is furnished by an edition of 'The Gospel according to St. Luke,' issued by the Vice-President of Queen's College, Cambridge, the Rev. Arthur Wright (Macmillan). It is not designed for purposes of textual criticism, nor does it include any comments; the arrangement is solely for what is legitimately termed "the higher criticism" of the Synoptic Gospels. Hence the parallel matter is printed with the text of Luke.

We are glad to receive the evidence that the French "Poole" has got upon a solid footing in the second issue, for 1898 ('Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises'), still edited by D. Jordell, and published in Paris by the Librairie Nilsson (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). We noticed the original issue in November, 1898. The present is larger by some seventy pages, and no wonder, in view of the increase in the number of periodicals indexed, whose titles fill five and a quarter pages, as against three. (We observe a corresponding increase in the list of periodicals founded in 1898—15 as against 9 in 1897.) The same system is observed as in the beginning, first a subject-index, followed by an author-index; and the only innovation, a most excellent one, is a repetition (in a detachable appendix on colored paper) of the periodicals indexed, with addition of editor's name and address, frequency of issue, price per number and to subscribers.

What would seem to be a favorable prognostic of a future "bridging of the social chasm" in Germany is the successful operation of common schools for children from all the different strata of society. To be sure, the custom is as yet far from universal, and it is more common in the south than in the north of the fatherland. The city of Augsburg, for instance, is proud of its genuine folk school, on whose benches the children, boys and girls, of the nobility, the highest state officials and army officers, and of rich manufacturers and merchants, sit side by side with those of the plain mechanic and poor laborer; and a city councillor, quoted by the *Pädagogische Zeitung*, asserts that any attempt to change the existing conditions would be thwarted by the sound common sense of the Augsburg citizens. This growing tendency of making class distinctions less marked in the earlier school life of the youth of Germany may reasonably be expected to produce, in the course of time, a salutary conciliating effect.

The *Annales de Géographie* for March contains an historical and statistical account of the production of silk throughout the world. The total annual value of the crop is estimated at $160,000,000; those of China and Japan being respectively sixty and fifty millions. Should the increase of the last forty years continue, Japan will soon be the largest silk-producing country in the world. An Augustine missionary introduced the industry into the Philippines at the end of the last century. One species of mulberry proved to be so adapted to the soil and climate that it was called the Philippine mulberry, but, after a brief period of success, the industry ceased, mainly because the Tagals found no market for their cocoons. Unsuccessful attempts were made to grow silk in this country sixty years ago, the failure being attributed to the lack of laborers sufficiently "patient, attentive, and careful." A map of the world, with insets of the principal silk-producing regions, accompanies the article. Topographical descriptions are given of the Tian Shan district of Russian Turkestan, the Algerian oasis of Wargla, and the Ivory Coast.

Consular Reports for March contains a review of commercial and industrial affairs in eastern Siberia, including a notice of an exposition at Khabarovsk, the first ever held in the Amur region; of the progress of the Mantchurian Railway (the line is completed from Mukden to Port Arthur), and the opening of the Institute of Eastern Languages, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, at Vladivostok. The professor of English is an American citizen, Mr. Lugobil. The Russian migration to eastern Siberia in the seventeen years ending with 1898 was in round numbers 1,150,000. An encouraging report is given of the public improvements in Siam. Thirty-five years ago there were no streets in Bangkok, traffic being carried on wholly by boat; to-day there are over forty-seven miles of paved streets, while "the king himself builds one steel bridge each year out of his private funds, as a gift to the city, and this is opened to the public with some ceremony on his birthday." A large tract of land which ten years ago was swamp and jungle, the haunt of elephants and other wild animals, has been irrigated, and is now "occupied by over 70,000 people, and its product furnishes one of the richest revenues of the country." Encouraged by this success, the king is considering an extensive canal programme for the development of the thousands of miles of rich land, now waste, and, it is said, has sent to Holland for expert engineers. We remark finally a description of the Mutual Aid Societies for French schoolchildren. Two cents are deposited each week, one going to a sickness fund, the other to the pension for old age. "For every child who contributes during an entire year the state adds one franc to the common fund. It also gives a sum equal to one-fourth of the entire amount deposited by the children." The limit of the old-age pension is $69.48 annually.

"The Freshwater Tertiary Formations of the Rocky Mountain Region" is the title of a paper by W. M. Davis, professor of physical geography at Harvard University, published in a late number of the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The lacustrine origin of these formations has been so generally accepted that it has held a place in the geological history of the Rocky Mountain region as an established doctrine, and the tertiary lakes of this district have become stock subjects of geological teaching. Their existence has been asserted without qualification by Dana, Leconte, Geikie, and others, and students have been led to imagine vast sheets of water, scores or hundreds of miles across, well deserving the name of "seas" often given to them in various reports. A study of

recorded observations has led Prof. Davis to consider the probability that a large share of the so-called lacustrine formations may really be of fluviatile or other subaerial origin. He points out that, while river deposits and lake deposits are similar in many respects, the marginal parts of a fluviatile deposit may be characterized by variations of texture and structure, and occasionally by filled channels and lateral unconformities. The author, however, states that the object of his paper is to promote discussion rather than to announce conclusions, and he does not undertake to decide the points mooted.

Under authority from the Director of the Marine Biological Laboratory, Dr. C. O. Whitman, the Association for Maintaining the American Women's Table at the Zoological Station at Naples offers for the summer of 1900 the free use of an investigator's table at the Wood's Holl Laboratory to any applicant who is eligible for the Naples table, and who may desire to secure the benefit of preliminary work at Wood's Holl before making her application for the Naples Station. Applications for the Wood's Holl table, as well as for the Naples table, should be made before May 1 to the Secretary of the association, Miss Florence M. Cushing, No. 8 Walnut Street, Boston, Mass., by whom circulars will be sent on application.

The Justin Winsor prize of $100, offered by the American Historical Association for the encouragement of less well-known writers, will be awarded for the year 1900 to the best unpublished monographic work based upon original investigation in American history that shall be submitted to the committee of award on or before October 1, 1900. If not typewritten, the work must be written legibly upon only one side of the sheet, and must be in form ready for publication. In making the award, the committee will take into consideration, not only research and originality, but also clearness of expression, logical arrangement, and literary form. The prize will not be awarded unless the work submitted shall be of a high degree of excellence. The successful essay will be published by the American Historical Association. Prof. Charles M. Andrews of Bryn Mawr is chairman of the committee.

It is proposed to found at the University of Pennsylvania a memorial chair associated with the name of the late Dr. Daniel Garrison Brinton, whose valuable library was given by him to the University shortly before his death. The sum of fifty thousand dollars is sought from private sources, as will be explained on application to the Brinton Memorial Committee, No. 44 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.

Count Angelo De Gubernatis completed on April 7 his sixtieth year, and, having rounded out also forty years of literary productivity from his first youthful output, the drama "Werner," a jubilee commemoration took place, participated in by scholars and by women of the peninsula. Albums, gold and bronze medals, an anthology, are some of the forms in which the movement found expression. It is announced that De Gubernatis's final labor (and a vast one) will be a 'Biblioteca letteraria femminile italiana,' or a biographical and bibliographical account of the activity of Italian female writers from the earliest period to the present day.

—The opening article in *Harper's* for April is on municipal art by Charles H. Caffin, with illustrations by L. A. Shafer. Mr. Caffin traces the present development of municipal-art societies to "a principle of much earlier inception," of which he finds the germ in the "Laurel Hill Association" founded in 1853 in Stockbridge, Mass. "Consciously or unconsciously," the establishment of the Fairmount Park Art Association of Philadelphia in 1871 was "an extension of the same principle to the wider scope of a city." Now we have the Municipal Art Society of New York, founded in 1893, and the Municipal Art Society of Cincinnati, organized in 1894. Strangely enough, however, "the greatest progress has been made in Boston," where no association exists at all. This is because Boston not only is naturally æsthetic, but has a considerable fund of what is now called "civism" to draw on; hence the finest park system in the world, the Public Library, reaching the highest "artistic standard," the restoration of the Bulfinch State House, and the promised mural paintings; hence, too, the Shaw memorial, and the salvation of Copley Square from a sky-scraper. In New York—but we forbear. Mr. Caffin would have municipal control exercised in limiting the height of buildings; would have arcades here and there; and would encourage the planting of trees, and make everything beautiful, including newspaper-stalls. He very justly observes that it is not, for the present, to be expected or desired that the work of beautification should be undertaken, with us, by the municipal authorities. We would not intrust it even to the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court. Mr. Poultney Bigelow, in "A Successful Colonial Experiment," gives an account of Hong Kong, with illustrations by R. Caton Woodville. Mr. Bigelow thinks that "the problem which Great Britain has solved at Hong Kong has much in common with what confronts us in Manila"; but we are certainly not employing the same means in the Philippines. Hong Kong was made a great free port and Chinese commercial paradise by means of free trade and a good consular and administrative system. Mr. Bigelow makes no mention of an army of 50,000 men, or tramp consuls, ever having been tried. " A sailor ashore" is proverbially in great danger of going astray; this reflection is suggested by Capt. Mahan's extraordinary "Problem of Asia," which is evidently to appear soon in the form of a book. We can make nothing of it, except that Russia has a centre and two flanks, many thousands of miles apart, and that it is best to make a flank rather than a frontal attack upon her—in which we cordially agree; but Napoleon found this out long ago.

—The *Atlantic* has an interesting paper on "The Consular Service of the United States," by George F. Parker. Mr. Parker calls attention, among other things, to "something which threatens to become an intolerable nuisance"—the monthly issue of *Consular Reports*. The painful fact about the information contained in these reports as to trade and industry, he says, is that no one goes to them for information about the matters to which they relate. There are better sources; then why keep them up? Mainly, it would appear, to provide Government literature for the back districts. Mr. Parker says that in the twenty-two years during which these reports have been accumulating "it would be difficult to recall one report of really undoubted economic value." Nor will there be any as long as consuls are mainly trained in the art of "holding on to a job." Indeed, we are inclined to think that, even with a reformed consular service, these reports would be of little value so long as a consul is, as with us, a mere official clerk, instead of being, as he is in the case of many other countries, a man of business, and consequently skilled in business questions. Mr. Parker points out incidentally that many of our most distinguished consuls abroad have done some excellent writing, but that neither Howells, nor Hawthorne, nor Burritt, nor Bret Harte—to mention a few of the most conspicuous—ever made or attempted to make a reputation as economical statisticians. The old-fashioned American mercantile consul is as extinct as the Dodo. "One of the Guild," who writes on "The Perplexities of a College President," has no doubt good reasons for concealing his identity. We regret the suppression of it. His main idea seems to be that a university should be managed as nearly like a railroad as possible, strangely overlooking the fact that one of the crying evils of the day is the production of college presidents who subordinate the interests of learning to those merely material. The article is conceived in the spirit and couched in the style of the educational drummer—already too much with us. Henry James has a fantastic story called "Maud-Evelyn," and John Buchan contributes a paper (with the strange title, "A Comic Chesterfield") on the Earl of Buchan. If Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson has a foible it is that of knowing too much about the future. His article on "The Political Horizon" is of that anticipatory character which is so apt to look prophetic until "you know." The political horizon has already changed since he wrote this article.

—In *Scribner's* the most solid article is a short review of Ruskin by W. C. Brownell, who thinks that "to the preponderance of his emotional over his intellectual side" are attributable "the two great defects which imperil his position as an English classic, namely, the lack of substance in his matter and the lack of form in his style." Ruskin, like Carlyle, is unfortunate in having outlived his period. Not only are they dead themselves, but most of those who knew what it was to derive inspiration from them are dead, too. To Mr. Brownell, who in this is representative of the modern turn of thought, Ruskin is evidently antipathetic—an emotionalist, a sentimentalist, in an age in which the "higher reaches" are "unsatisfactory if they are pervaded merely or chiefly by emotion." It is an almost inevitable consequence of this view that Ruskin did not really either know or like art, and that he was a sort of emotional and dithyrambic oracle of nature. He ought, that is, to have been a poet, and he ought never to have undertaken æsthetic criticism at all. Mr. H. J. Whigham's account of the extraordinary battle of Magersfontein is interesting, especially as he confirms the worst that has been said to the discredit of the generalship on the English side. "As for the night assault at Magersfontein, one can hardly now

speak of it with calmness." After describing the nature of the position attacked, he says: "Against such a position on such a night, one can only say that the idea of a night attack was the outcome of one of those strange mental aberrations which do at times assail even our best generals." And again: "The hardest part of all is, that the brigade was committed to the assault against the better judgment of Gen. Wauchope, who would never willingly have embarked on so rash a venture. His death, with a word of protest on his lips, was the most tragic feature of a tragic day."

—The importance attached in the magazines to studies of animal life seems to be on the increase. The *Century's* leading article is called "The Dulce-Piji Family—A Study of Marmosets," by Justine Ingersoll. It has pictures from life by Charles R. Knight. The writer admits that acquaintances to whom she relates what she knows of marmosets accuse her of drawing on her imagination for her facts. There is in this paper an account of an unselfish marmoset aunt (by adoption) which imputes to her all the best qualities of the aunt of the human species. "Fashionable Paris" gives Mr. Richard Whiteing an opportunity of saying several clever things about a little-known world. He insists that fashionable Paris must not be confounded with aristocratic Paris. "The two things are separate and distinct. Fashion has outgrown its old bounds of the old families; and aristocracy, as a governing force, has become a mere survival of habit. The two aristocracies, the old and the new, the Legitimist and the Bonapartist—not to speak of the Orleanist, as shoddy as the last—are mutually destructive. As they cannot agree to revere one another, they have helped the crowd to despise them all." Of country-house life he says: "The country-house life is highly developed, only less so than in England; and there is everything but liberty." In Dr. Barry O'Meara's resurrected record of "Talks with Napoleon," "General Bonaparte" has his revenge, after many years, on Sir Hudson Lowe, in a way that might please the soul of the deposed Emperor even in the shades. Forsyth, in his defence of the English Governor of St. Helena, written after O'Meara's death, noticed a remarkable passage in the latter's book, 'A Voice from St. Helena,' and interpreted it as meaning that Sir Hudson invited Dr. O'Meara to make him a false report to the effect that Napoleon's health was giving way, in order to prepare the world for his death, which should then be insured by proper medical treatment. Now we have the original entry, which bears out the interpretation. According to the editor of the *Century*, the entry was made when O'Meara was still on good terms with the Governor. It can hardly be said that the original entry corroborates the subsequently published passage in the book, for the latter was copied from the former; but the implication is that it is of higher value as a contemporaneous entry made by an impartial chronicler. "The Industrial Revolution of the Power Tool" is the rather misleading title of an article by Charles Barnard on the transmission of power (pneumatic, hydraulic, or electric), which enables the modern tool to be applied to its work in place. This, the writer thinks, will lead to great results, not merely industrial, but social. In a modern machine-shop, for instance, when electric motors are attached directly to each tool, shaftings, dust, smoke, and bad odors all disappear, and the working-place becomes a fine, light, clean, wholesome hall, in which, if the workman is not content, it is his own fault.

—The Bibliographical Society of London has already done much good work in a quiet way. Its publications do not often reach the general public, but that is because they are the sort of publications in which the general public takes no interest whatever; the reason, indeed, why there is need of a society to undertake them. The last volume, just issued to members, is 'A List of English Plays Written before 1643 and Printed before 1700,' by Mr. Walter Wilson Greg. Its chief interest is, of course, bibliographical, but it is also an astounding proof of the Englishman's love of the theatre during the days of the Tudors and Stuarts—a love which the Puritans only suppressed, but could not destroy. The list is so full, such an invaluable aid to any student of the drama, that it is almost to be regretted its compiler could not have included all the "reprints of plays by the more popular authors, Shakespeare, Beaumont and Fletcher, and Ben Jonson," even had his doing so necessitated a second volume. They "became so numerous towards the end of the century," he explains, "and are at the same time so unimportant, that it would merely have been waste of space to have included them." But by this saving of space the Bibliography has lost something in value. However, there is no question that Mr. Greg has done what he undertook to do as thoroughly as possible. If he has left out also works which remained in MS. after the end of the seventeenth century, and all the masques and performances of the kind that were so immensely in vogue before the Civil Wars, it is because with these, he announces, he intends to deal separately. But the list, so far as it goes, is the result of scholarly and exhaustive study and research. The British Museum press-marks are given, as the greater number of editions are in that library. An Index of Authors and an Index of Plays are added. Nothing could be more complete. Any account of the theatre of this period must recall Pepys so vividly, with his struggles not to go to the play-house, his vows to stay away, and his shuffling evasion of them, that it is amusing to find in the Addenda a special entry of Heywood's "Play of Love," of which Mr. Greg says he had just discovered a perfect copy of an unrecorded edition among the books Pepys left to Magdalene College. The full title alone would have recommended the play to Pepys: "A Play of Love, a newe and mery interlude concerning pleasure and payne in love." No man, according to his own account, was merrier than Pepys, and we have a graphic enough record of his pleasure and pain as a lover. Bibliographies may be dry reading, but there is plenty of romance and of comedy, too, between the lines.

—The announcement, conveyed in a telegram from New Zealand, that Borchgrevink, the Antarctic explorer and leader of the expedition organized by Sir George Newnes for the attainment of the "farthest south," had been successful in relocating the south magnetic pole and attaining the position, by sledge journey, of 78° 50′ south latitude, opens up a new chapter in the exploration of the south polar regions. The exploit is, in fact, the "record" in Antarctic work, since it surpasses by nearly fifty miles the goal reached by Sir James Clark Ross in 1842 (78° 10′), to which no nearer approach than 300 miles has been made during nearly sixty years. Weddell, southwards from South Georgia, penetrated in 1823 to 74° 15′ S. Ross's remarkable achievement is the more impressive when it is recalled that the vessels at his service were sailing craft, and not the best of their kind; yet with these he succeeded in thrice breaking through the great Antarctic pack, and forcing a passage where few adventurous navigators would feel disposed to follow to-day. Borchgrevink's success stands out prominently beside the work of the Belgian expedition of 1897-'98, under command of Lieut. Gerlache, which, beyond rectifying some not very important coast-lines and passing a dreary winter beyond the Antarctic circle, appears to have accomplished little. By misdirection its course was deflected southwestward along the coast of Alexander Island (Land), instead of continuing southward in the path of Weddell, east of Graham Land (Island). The farthest point attained by it was 71° 36′ S., hardly half a degree nearer to the pole than was reached by Capt. Cook, in nearly the same spot, a century and a quarter earlier. The details of Borchgrevink's explorations will be awaited with much interest, since they pertain to a region which, as stated by Sir John Murray, is "by far the largest absolutely unknown area now remaining on the earth." This area has been roughly computed to measure nearly 4,000,000 square miles, or a third more than the area of Australia.

BOOKS ON THE ANGLO-BOER CONFLICT.

The Transvaal from Within: A Private Record of Public Affairs. By J. P. Fitzpatrick. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1899.

The War in South Africa: Its Causes and Effects. By J. A. Hobson. Macmillan Co. 1900.

The Anglo-Boer Conflict: Its History and Causes. By Alleyne Ireland. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1900.

The Story of the Boers, Narrated by Their Own Leaders. Prepared under the authority of the South African Republics by C. W. Van der Hoogt. Preceded by The Policy of Mediation, by Montagu White. Harper & Brothers. 1900.

The Africanders: A Century of Dutch-English Feud in South Africa. By LeRoy Hooker. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 1900.

From Cape Town to Ladysmith: An Unfinished Record of the South-African War. By G. W. Steevens. Edited by Vernon Blackburn. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

Mr. Fitzpatrick, who was a member of the Johannesburg "Reform Committee" of 1896, and who lay for some time after the Raid in that particularly filthy jail at Pretoria, is as well qualified as any one to state the Uitlanders' cause. He does so at length, fortifying his charges with correspondence, documents, and reports, printed *in extenso;* but his English is lively, and his narrative is neither tiresome nor superficial. He makes out his case temperately, courteous-

ly, and, so far as his statement of it goes, convincingly. The partisan on either side, nevertheless, sees the same picture differently. To Mr. Fitzpatrick, the execution of the burghers at Slagter's Nek and the harsh treatment of Bezuidenhout are only deplorable affairs. That is, he estimates them coolly, as isolated human transactions. By the Boers, on the contrary, these wrongs, committed by individuals upon other individuals—neither of great account in the world's history—have been accepted as national grievances. The victims of Slagter's Nek are to them what the dead of the Boston Massacre were to us; and no history can justly ignore it. On the other hand, the murder of Capt. Elliot by the Boers while under safe-conduct is equally charged by the British to the discredit of the Transvaal, while the Boers doubtless dismiss it as a "regrettable incident."

In his account of the Raid, which he justifies in its conception as an aid to a Johannesburg uprising, Mr. Fitzpatrick is manifestly the partisan—not suppressing Cecil Rhodes's financial connection with it, but omitting any substantial relation of its more sordid features. For instance, he airily dismisses the dispatch-box of Major Robert White, whose contents so humiliated England, as "a veritable conjurer's hat, from which Mr. Krüger produced to an admiring and astonished world the political equivalents of eggs and goldfish, pigeons and white mice." These citations are fair instances of the party historian's faults of vision. The last is a good example of his lively style.

His narrative begins with the Great Trek of 1837, the northward emigration of the Boers, occasioned in part by the abolition of slavery at the Cape, the virtual confiscation of slave-property, the harsh administration of the law; and, in part, by the blundering of British colonial administrators. From this epoch he skips to the year 1877, when the South African Republic was bankrupt within and threatened by the Zulus from without. "I had rather," said President Burgers to the Raad, "be a policeman under a strong government than the President of such a state," as "degenerate" as Turkey, and, like her, calling for outside intervention. With the approval of the President and on the petition of many burghers, the British Commissioner, Shepstone, annexed the Republic. At first the act was not only acquiesced in but popular.

"The real mistakes of the British Government began *after* annexation. The failure to fulfil promises; the deviations from old ways of government; the appointment of unsuitable officials who did not understand the people or their language; the neglect to convene the Volksraad or to hold fresh elections, as definitely promised; the establishment of military rule by military men, who treated the Boers with harshness and contempt, and would make no allowance for their simple, old-fashioned ways, their deep-seated prejudices, and, if you like, their stupid opposition to modern ideas. . . . With the revival of trade and the removal of responsibilities and burdens, came time to think and talk. . . . The eaten bread was forgotten, . . . and so the men who had remained passive and recorded formal protests when they should have resisted, . . . began their Repeal agitation. All the benefits which the Boers hoped from the annexation had been reaped. Their debts had been paid; their trade and credit restored; their enemies were being dealt with. Repeal would rob them of none of these; they would, in fact, eat their cake and still have it" (pp. 24-5).

The war that ensued closed with the mortifying defeat of the British at Majuba Hill, and their withdrawal from the Transvaal, except as their authority was maintained by the disputed "suzerainty" provisions of the Pretoria and London conventions. A very intelligent comparison of the arguments on both sides of this question, given in Mr. Alleyne Ireland's book, would seem to favor the English theory that the admitted reservation to England of the right to veto all treaties made by the South African Republic, deprived it of the chief attribute of a sovereign state.

Mr. Gladstone's action in 1881 was characteristic of his tendency to turn to the right-about, when moved by strong impulse. In this instance, he abandoned the English loyalists in the Transvaal, whom he had lately assured of his support, saying that, whether or not the annexation was wrong, "that would not warrant us in doing fresh, distinct, and separate wrong by a disregard of the obligation which that annexation entailed." His action was greeted with scorn by the English and contempt by the Cape Dutch, who regarded it as a concession to force; and, by encouraging the latter to persist in local misgovernment and maltreatment of the former, kept alive the grudge that is now being bloodily settled.

On the erection of the South African Republic, after the separation, in 1882, Mr. Stephanus Johannes Paulus Krüger was elected President, and has since held this office continuously. The political history of his country could not be much more absorbed in his own were he the Grand Monarque. As Mr. Fitzpatrick draws his portrait, it is not attractive. He is a sort of vulgar Bismarck—or (to speak more aptly) Mark Hanna—of the veldt, with a taint of personal corruption about him that never clung to the German, and a physical courage and blunt wit not commonly attributed to the Ohioan; a statesman *manqué*, perhaps, but an uncommonly shrewd and forceful Boss. In his youth he was a raider into the Orange Free State after the manner of Jameson; in middle life, a civil servant under British rule, whom a refusal of increased salary drove into the opposition (*fide* Mr. Fitzpatrick). In his old age he has become a furious chauvinist, seeking to maintain a Dutch oligarchy within his so-called Republic; aggrandizing it at the expense of neighboring tribes; and, long prior to the Raid, in the British belief, arming and plotting for the overthrow of their supremacy in South Africa.

The discovery of the Witwatersrand gold fields in 1886 at once made the supremacy worth contending for and gave him funds to work with. In 1885 the revenues of the Republic were £177,877. In 1895, just before the Raid, they had risen to £3,912,095. For the year 1898 they were £4,087,852. The expenditures kept equal pace with the revenues; and, as very little went for education, sanitation, or public works, it may be guessed how the Cruesot guns lately about Ladysmith were acquired. With the opening of the gold fields came the influx of the Uitlanders, and with them the recrudescence of race trouble. Something like this we might have had ourselves had the immigrant been to us never anything else but an "alien," outnumbering us in the land; possessing most of the wealth, by superior industry; paying most of the taxes—but having no voice in the government. The Uitlanders, according to Mr. Fitzpatrick, whose story differs little from Prof. Ramsay's, Mr. Hammond's, and others', found a sort of Dutch Tammany in the land, who kept the franchise in their own hands, partly by law, and partly by what we should call "tinkering with the charter" and "fixing" the registration of voters. By this means, railway transportation was limited to lines charging exorbitant rates for the benefit of the "ring." The manufacture and importation of dynamite was its monopoly, and it fattened on an illicit liquor trade with the natives, unlawful preëmptions of land, fraudulent contracts, sinecures, and other corruption, even going beyond the common cheats known to our baser politics by unseating just judges and enacting retroactive laws. Incidentally the civil government was everywhere inefficient, antiquated, and unbearable; and petitions, mass-meetings, and remonstrances went for nothing.

This was a bad state of affairs. The error of the Uitlanders lay in trying to cure it by violence. The wrongs they were suffering were mostly against property. The shooting of the man Edgar is an almost solitary offence against personal liberty; and even in his case the facts are disputed. Had the Uitlanders persisted in peaceful agitation they would ultimately, perhaps, many years hence, have succeeded. They tried to hasten nature, and they are now suffering more from the convulsion they have brought on than they did from the ague they sought to cure. Had the Johannesburgers risen in unaided and successful revolution, they would have met with almost universal approval. By their bringing in Jameson and his troops they brought on themselves equally general condemnation, and, moreover, by this outrage on the Transvaal, gave the Boers a retrospective sanction for all their long abuse of power. It is the Jameson Raid that still hampers British policy, through the cleavage it made in British public opinion.

Yet Krüger and his government of oppression and corruption existed before the Raid; and after it they were worse than before. Nothing could have exceeded the duplicity and rapacity with which he chaffered over the lives of the Raiders and the Reformers, while his suppression of inconvenient courts of justice would have done credit to James II. As did that unfortunate ruler, when his enemies presented him with the game, he threw it away. His rôle after the Raid should have been dignity, simplicity, magnanimity. Instead, he became violent of speech, treacherous of word, harsh of action. The immense party in England that would have saved him, he chilled, alienated, and finally scattered by his declaration of war, the madness that precedes destruction. "'If a crisis should occur,'" he asked an American deputation who were seeking reforms of him, "'on which side shall I find the Americans?' The answer was, 'On the side of liberty and good government.' The President replied, 'You are all alike, tarred with the same brush: you are British in your hearts'" (p. 135).

We have taken Mr. Fitzpatrick's book as our leading text because it is the most quoted recent work on the subject, and traces the development of the present troubles over many years. Mr. Hobson's 'War in South Africa,' an even better written book, should be read in connection with it, however, as its most effective answer. This book, which has won the unstinted praise

of Mr. Bryce, presents strong arguments touching the needlessness and destructiveness of the war. According to Mr. Hobson, there was no "Dutch conspiracy," and the conceded corruption and inefficiency of the Transvaal Government worked no sufficient hardships upon the Outlanders to make a *casus belli*. Moreover, there was no unanimity against reform among the burghers, but Joubert's liberal party nearly came to civil war with the Krügerites about it before the Raid compelled the two parties to act together. Krüger our author finds lacking in "a nice sense of honor," but more of a naïf, seventeenth-century, covenanting zealot than a crafty conspirator. Of his conduct in securing the arrest and conviction of the reformers, he says nothing, nor is there a word on the amazing induction of Judge Gregorowski from the Free State to preside at their trial, nor the subsequent degradation of the Bench and the passing of retroactive laws. So we may put Mr. Hobson's book, also, down as partisan, though its tone is not unfair. He does not like the worldly and vicious city of Johannesburg nor its mongrel population, its greedy ambitions, its lying and venal newspapers. He puts Rhodes, Chamberlain, and Milner in the category of the Beits and Barnatos. The war was forced on the Boers, he thinks, and may bring the awful catastrophe of a black invasion on the country as a sequel. In his sketch of the Afrikander Bond and its part in Cape politics, Mr. Hobson adds much that Mr. Fitzpatrick does not advert to.

Mr. Ireland's book is a companion to the little synopsis of the Dreyfus case published during its progress by the same house. Easy to slip in the pocket and to read quickly, it will no doubt be in much demand on the part of those who wish a brief digest of the matters in dispute. In the main, it follows Mr. Fitzpatrick very closely, the condensation of his bulky book being well done. It contains a bibliographical appendix.

The 'Story of the Boers,' published by authority of the South African Republics, is argumentative, rhetorical, and emotional. It states their contentions at the present writing, and their reasons for American mediation, so that they can be quickly understood, but the statement is necessarily one-sided. It is, frankly, a campaign document, and of rather exceptional power.

'The Afrikanders' is the least profound, and, in point of chronological relation, the most extended, of any of these books. The history of South Africa for the past century is told in an elementary way, also with considerable ability. This, like the foregoing, is a pro-Boer work, the Raid and the executions at Slagter's Nek being well in the foreground of the picture. Both of these two books are illustrated, but lack indexes; Mr. Hooker's has a map.

The late Mr. Steevens's last letters from the front have been collected and printed, together with his portrait and an appreciation of him by Mr. Vernon Blackburn. His youth and his talent make his untimely end a source of great regret. On the English side, perhaps no life so full of real possibilities has been lost in this war, in spite of his having chosen a style at once brilliant and bad, calculated to produce a flashlight picture on the mind, all high lights and deep shadows. Some passages in this fragmentary book are of uncommon merit—far finer than his Dreyfus story, where he was out of his element; and when the man can be seen through what he writes, he appears as a humane, impartial, and intrepid inquirer even in the face of death.

MRS. HOWE'S REMINISCENCES.

Reminiscences. 1819-1899. By Julia Ward Howe. With portraits and other illustrations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

We have found Mrs. Howe's Reminiscences more interesting as read here continuously than when we were taking our pleasure serially in the *Atlantic Monthly*, in which they first appeared. It is a very interesting picture that she makes of her early life in New York, and the more valuable because our annalists and autobiographers have so much oftener been of Boston than of New York extraction. As a growing girl, she had many educational advantages foreshadowing the culture and capacity of her maturer years. Her father was essentially a Puritan, and the daughter's life between her mother's death and his was one of stern repression; so much so that she often felt herself a prisoner, though her jailer was intent upon her good. It is hard to realize that her early home was upon Bowling Green, then a fashionable quarter, and that later her father lived quite out of town—upon the Bond Street of our time! It is evident that, after her father's death and the conventional period of mourning, the natural gayety of her disposition found such expression as was delightful to her soul, and it may not be amiss to say that there are traditions of that gayety in comparison with which Mrs. Howe's casual recollections are a painted flame. Similarly, her account of her oldest brother, Samuel Ward, the "Sam Ward" of the Washington congressional lobby, is but the faintest adumbration of the vicissitudes of his remarkable career. It is a great pity that he did not turn his literary gift to account in a veracious story of his life. So doing he might once more have rehabilitated his shattered fortunes after their last mishap.

A chapter on "Literary New York" is of such brevity as the material required. Bryant is made the founder of the *Evening Post*, which had been established for many years when he became an assistant editor. Of mistakes of this kind there are a good many in the book. Irving does not sustain his part very well as the leading actor in the literary drama, what with his inability to make the shortest speech and his ten-minute naps over his public dinners. Mrs. Howe seems less than usually perspicacious when she writes down Major Downing's Latin "E pluribus unum, sine qua non" as pure absurdity. Barring some mixing of the genders, was it not an amusing variant of Webster's "Liberty and Union, now and for ever, one and inseparable"? Dr. John Wakefield Francis, one of the worthies of his time, was an uncle of Mrs. Howe. She relates that one morning, about four o'clock, he found his wife wrapped in shawls reading 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' by the light of a candle. Presumably she was not given to such exercises, for he at once concluded that the book which so engrossed her must be the greatest book of the age. It was through Mrs. Howe's brother Samuel, who, after extensive travel in Europe, had returned and married a daughter of William B. Astor, that she became acquainted with Profs. Longfellow and Felton, Charles Sumner and Dr. Howe. Longfellow's friendship with her brilliant and erratic brother ended only with the poet's life.

In 1841, Sumner and Longfellow accompanied Mrs. Howe on her first visit to the Perkins Institute for the Blind, where she met Dr. Howe, who made upon her an impression of uncommon force and reserve. He was her senior by nearly twenty years. Their marriage took place in 1843, and shortly after the wedding they went to Europe, accompanied by Horace Mann, Dr. Howe's best friend, and his young wife. They saw all the famous people, from Fanny Elssler to Carlyle, who characterized Sumner as "a vera dull man." Mann, whose sense of humor was defective, found the visit to Carlyle very disappointing, but Mrs. Howe was satisfied. A story is told of Dickens, with whom the Howes dined in Forster's chambers, which leaves us to determine for ourselves whether he was considerably ill-mannered or a little irresponsible. Mrs. Howe was so indiscreet as to call her husband "darling." "Thereupon Dickens slid down to the floor, and, lying on his back, held up one of his small feet, quivering with pretended emotion. 'Did she call him "darling" '? he cried." The grave of Sir Walter Scott is fixed at Abbotsford, a slip of topographical association. A visit to Miss Edgeworth proved a pleasant one, but that to Wordsworth was one of the deadest failures imaginable. Wordsworth had lost heavily in American securities, and the conversation was rigidly confined to this subject, the whole family engaging. In Rome they met George Combe, the phrenologist, and it is inexpressibly funny to read of him and Dr. Howe, who was one of Combe's perverts, going round the great sculpture hall of the Vatican testing the heads by their theories, and finding that of the colossal Zeus quite orthodox in its proportions. Florence Nightingale is represented as getting her initiative in hospital philanthropy from Dr. Howe. There is a story current, we believe, which gives the honor to another person; but several may have contributed each a separate impulse to the making of her choice.

The transition is a delightful one from Mrs. Howe's European experiences, social and æsthetic, to her "First Years in Boston." We cannot but believe that she exaggerates the influence of Germany in the production of New England Transcendentalism. Largely indigenous, its ingrafted stocks were English (Coleridge), Scotch (Carlyle), and French (Cousin and Jouffroy) to a much greater extent than they were German. Particularly interesting are Mrs. Howe's impressions of Theodore Parker. They are a distinct addition to what has been published heretofore, and are confirmatory of the best that has been written in Theodore Parker's praise. Mrs. Howe honors herself unconsciously in so honoring the great heresiarch with her warm appreciation. It took courage for a woman in good society to go and hear him preach. One saint asked another what Mrs. Howe was expecting to get from him. "Atheism," was the answer. "Not atheism but a theism," commented Mrs. Howe. At one of Parker's Sunday evenings she met Garrison. She had an ill opinion of him, but "found him gentle and unassuming in manner, with a pleasant voice, a benevolent countenance, and a sort of glory of sin-

cerity in his ways and words." Her husband was equally surprised and pleased to find her singing from the same hymn-book with Garrison before the company broke up. She makes the common mistake about Phillips's Lovejoy speech in Faneuil Hall—that it was his first anti-slavery speech.

Mrs. Howe met Parker in Rome in 1844, and an intimate acquaintance only increased her admiration. Her first child was born in Rome, and Parker baptized her with the usual formula. It was probably one of his last offices of this kind. In 1852 she heard his great sermon upon Daniel Webster, and lost her omnibus for South Boston, the sermon was so long. Replying to the family impatience, she said, "Let no one find fault! I have heard the greatest thing that I shall ever hear!" Of Parker's public prayer she writes that "no rite of public worship, not even the splendid Easter service in St. Peter's, Rome," impressed her so deeply.

A second visit to Europe resulted in experiences very similar to those enjoyed upon the first. Returning to Boston in 1851, she found that Sumner had been elected to the United States Senate, displacing "a popular idol." The epithet seems too strong for Winthrop, and in its connection makes us wonder if Mrs. Howe was thinking of Webster as Sumner's competitor. Moreover, she applies the same epithet directly to Webster in another place, where she is speaking of Sumner's election. Of the latter she writes with genuine admiration, but with a keen sense of his lack of humor and some other limitations. His "fiery utterances" contrasted "strongly with the usual mildness of his disposition."

There are delightful pages about the astonishing Count Gurowski, one of the most trying of all the exiles who made large demands upon the patience and the generosity of the Boston philanthropists. In 1859, Dr. and Mrs. Howe accompanied Parker on that voyage to the West Indies from which he never returned. It is a striking situation when we find Dr. Howe, on his way back, visiting Charleston, S. C., and vicinity, as the guest of the Hamptons, Gen. Wade Hampton among them. This was certainly a ticklish business, considering that Dr. Howe was at this time one of a committee of six engaging with John Brown in his enterprise for the invasion of Virginia. One would hardly gather from Mrs. Howe's account of John Brown that her husband's relation to him was so intimate.

Mrs. Howe's recollections of Gov. Andrew, James Freeman Clarke, and many others, will be found very interesting. It was Dr. Clarke who instigated her to write the "Battle Hymn of the Republic." A facsimile of the first draft of this poem is given, with many excellent portrait illustrations. In the account of Thomas Gold Appleton there is nothing that justifies his reputation for wit and humor; but there is one brutal retort of his on Samuel Longfellow which is suggestive of the truth that your thorough-paced man of the world is almost always sound in his conventional piety.

At this point the 'Reminiscences' broke off in the *Atlantic*. Here there are 170 additional pages, over which, with their recollections of "A Woman's Peace Crusade," "The Woman Suffrage Movement," "Certain Clubs," and other matters, we would gladly linger, but must not. What is certain is that Mrs. Howe has written a very pleasant book, and one that will add to the multitude of her friends wherever it is read.

Russia on the Pacific, and the Siberian Railway. By Vladimir. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. 1899.

The history of Russian expansion in Asia certainly deserves study now that the rich possibilities of Siberia are beginning to obtain recognition. We therefore welcome the work before us. It well repays reading, even if we might have been spared most of the first and fourth chapters, as there are plenty of short sketches of Russian history already. Comparison is at once suggested with Krausse's 'Russia in Asia,' which appeared at about the same time. In spite of the fact that Vladimir's work is much the slighter, being based on far fewer authorities and being less comprehensive (it does not cover the Caucasus or Central Asia), besides having fewer maps and fewer documents in the appendix, it is still much the better of the two. Krausse's bulky volume is stuffed with declamation and worn-out Russophobe phrases. Every step is ascribed to Muscovite wiles and insatiable lust for dominion. Vladimir, on the other hand, though erring a little in the opposite direction of forgiving unscrupulousness when accompanied by daring, offers a clear, interesting narrative of Russian progress, which has in the main been due to perfectly simple causes. When we remember that Siberia is a huge region whose geographical features make it the natural continuation of European Russia, and that it was inhabited only by a sparse population of barbaric tribes without strength or cohesion, we can see that, from the day the Cossacks crossed the Urals (a barrier less formidable than the Alleghanies), Russian expansion to the Pacific was as obvious and inevitable as was our own from an opposite direction. The only real difficulties to be encountered were those of climate, wilderness, and huge distances. In overcoming these, the Russian pioneers showed a splendid courage and endurance that compare well with the history of exploration anywhere. When, however, we come to their dealings with China, the ethics of the case are not so clear, although not worse than our own in regard to Mexico.

Beginning with the story of the famous expedition of Yermak in 1581, the destruction of the Tartar kingdom of Sibir and the foundation of Tobolsk, we have a story of rapid advance. In little over half a century the whole continent was traversed and the Pacific reached; twelve years later, Bering Sea was discovered by Dezhneff; in 1651 Irkutsk was founded; in 1697 Kamtchatka was conquered by Atlassoff with some seventy Cossacks; then followed the occupation of Alaska, with an attempt in 1807 to found a settlement at the north of the Columbia River; in 1812 we find a colony of Russian trappers not far from San Francisco.

In the meanwhile, further to the south, more serious obstacles had been met with. When the Russian pioneers reached the Amur, they soon came into contact, then collision, with the Chinese Empire, in the vigorous early days of the present dynasty. After some thirty years of intermittent hostilities, whose most famous episode was the heroic, though unsuccessful, defence of Albasin by four hundred and fifty men against an army of 15,000 Mantchus and Chinese with numerous artillery, the peace of Nertchinsk in 1689 checked Russian progress in this direction for more than a century and a half. The forward movement did not begin again until the appearance on the scene of Muravieff in 1847. Undeterred by the smallness of his resources and by the narrow-minded jealousy and timidity of some of his superiors, he profited boldly by the weakness of China, whose actual authority in these regions had become a mere shadow. Not only did he occupy the whole right bank of the Amur to its mouth, but also, after only six days of negotiation, he gained by the treaty of Aigun in 1858 the whole maritime province west of the Ussuri, with the harbor where Vladivostock was founded two years later. It was a wonderful if unscrupulous diplomatic triumph, though we can hardly agree to Vladimir's statement that "the terms exacted by Muravieff were very moderate." Only the existence of the Tai-ping rebellion, together with the troubles with England and France and the imbecility of the Chinese authorities, can explain such a result.

The ensuing pause lasted until the war between China and Japan. Meanwhile Russian America was sold to the United States, and the Trans-Siberian Railway was begun in 1891. Vladimir gives only a slight sketch of recent events, such as the occupation of Port Arthur and Russian predominance in Mantchuria. His chapter on the Siberian railway is interesting, even if it does not contain much that cannot be found elsewhere. The last chapter of all, or "Conclusion," is a trifle dithyrambic. Its burden is, "England above any other country in the world . . . should welcome the progress of Russia." If so, so be it.

Letters of Benjamin Jowett, M.A., Master of Balliol College, Oxford. Arranged and edited by Evelyn Abbott, M.A., LL.D., and Lewis Campbell, M.A., LL.D. With portrait. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1899.

This is the volume of Jowett's letters promised by the editors when they published the late Master's life. Such letters of general interest as could not there find a place are here published in groups determined by the main topics which successively or simultaneously engrossed Jowett's thoughts, such as Church Reform and the Abolition of Tests, various educational plans and reforms, European Politics, and the needs of India and Indian administration. To these groups is added one of letters on miscellaneous topics, and the volume closes with forty-odd pages of Notes and Sayings—not the least interesting of its features. The portrait, by Laugée, here reproduced, represents Jowett at the age of fifty-four, just after he became Master at Balliol, and is in many respects a better permanent record of him than either of the two given in his Life.

It is a result of the workmanlike fashion in which Messrs. Abbott and Campbell have dealt with Jowett's correspondence that the interest of the present letters is not biographical. We read these pages in order to get a clearly defined picture of Jowett's views on certain leading subjects of great and permanent importance. Perhaps the letters, first printed here, on the general topic of Church Reform and the Abolition of Tests come nearest to having an interest connected with his personal career. At all

events, it is of great interest to read Jowett's categorical statement of opinion that any one may sign the Thirty-nine Articles whose opinions agree "with any of the recognized parties in the Church, whom Bishops have been in the habit of ordaining from time immemorial," and to hear from him that the same principle which ordinarily leads men to refuse to sign the Articles, would, "if carried out, destroy all common action" and "make a Church Establishment or even public worship impossible." Is a man to be deterred, he asks, from doing "what in a doubtful case seems on the whole to be right because it is to his interest"? And then he adds that "if all good men refused to sign the Articles, the Church of England would probably go on with bad ones." But his final conclusion upon this matter is that the considerations which justify the position of a liberal clergyman or Fellow of a College are not of a kind to tell with the public, and lead away from the main purposes of life into polemics and recriminations. Therefore, though the position may be tenable, "the sooner it is altered the better." Few things concerning Jowett are more characteristic or more telling than his evidence on the subject of University Tests given before the Committee of the House of Lords, and admirably summarized here on pp. 19-42.

Characteristic, no doubt, but not equally important, are Jowett's views on European Politics. As to America he was more clear-sighted, and shows, indeed, a rare perspicacity when he writes in 1865 that "the coming event of the American War is likely to produce a great change of opinion in England, something like that of the War of Independence ninety years ago." He speaks (in 1873) of England's loss of prestige over the *Alabama* claims, but declares that the country is not dissatisfied. Again, he shows a gift of prophecy when, in 1877, he writes to Sir Robert Morier: "I want you to consider the annexation of Egypt in one other point of view—its bearing on the future of Africa. Must not that 'greater India' be one day ours, and is not the colonization improvement of it a great national concern of ours? But, if so, can we afford to give up Egypt?" Jowett wished to see the higher civilization of Europe combining against the lower, whether Czar or Pope, and offering "something like paternal government to Egypt and the East." He expresses doubt whether the semi-civilized world can be much ameliorated without a good deal of bloodshed, and yet categorically foresees that "war in Africa or India may be promoted by the worst motives—greed of colonists, desire of promotion, the imperious or timorous character of the dominant race." Finally, he was struck by the responsibility incurred by civilized nations for the atrocities which they allowed to go on in countries like China and Turkey, and yet he signalizes, as one of the dangerous symptoms in English life, "the foolish half-sympathy of Liberals not looking forward to the consequences."

These views are of course ill presented by means of short extracts, and should be read *in extenso*, but it is easy to see that what is most likely to prove both interesting and profitable to Americans in this volume is the section devoted to India. There we are enabled to follow, often in some detail, the discussions, the experiments, and the half-successes which finally led to the present admirable system of selection for the Indian civil service. No quotations can be at all adequate here. Jowett's letters on India cover less than 50 pages, and well deserve the most careful reading.

Among the miscellaneous letters we glean that Tennyson reproached Jowett with not reading Dante in the original, and are glad to note what is written to Morier about the translation of Plato. "My Plato is only a translation," says Jowett, "but I have satisfaction in feeling that it may influence the English and American world in the right direction long after I am gone." With these words, which come home to every one of us more or less forcibly, and remind us of what Jowett strove to do for us, we may lay down the present volume, but not without the expectation of taking it up from time to time, and gathering from the notes and sayings of Jowett some inspiration and encouragement in the doing of whatever our task may be. He was a great admirer of Dr. Johnson, and in many of these sayings there is a Johnsonian strain, as where he says: "There is enough time to read all the books worth reading, if you can only get the *mind* for it."

Notes on Sport and Travel. By George Henry Kingsley, M.D., F.L.S., etc. With a Memoir by his daughter, Mary H. Kingsley. Macmillan. 1900.

Rather unfortunately for the reader, the Memoir occupies nearly half this book, though it is greatly mitigated by frequent quotations from the journals and some of the published works of Dr. Kingsley. George Henry Kingsley was one of the three brothers of Charles (Canon) Kingsley. Another was Henry, the author of those two good novels, 'Geoffrey Hamlyn' and 'Ravenshoe'; and it is not too much to say, from the glimpse we have of him as a writer in this book, that the Doctor was quite the equal of either of his distinguished kinsmen in felicity and power of literary expression. Very possibly he might have failed in continuous narrative, but nothing can be more charming than his letters and journals kept during his various wanderings, for most of his mature life was passed in travel, and his last voyage was one around the world for his health shortly before his death in 1892. At the age of thirty, with the Earl of Pembroke, he started on a long cruising expedition in the South Pacific, which occupied about two years, and in the course of it he visited many almost unknown island groups and savage peoples. The letters in chapters three and four devoted to these experiences are charming in novelty and in appreciative interest, *e. g.*, page 83:

"Then we went to Samoa in the Navigator Islands, where the off-shore wind was positively laden with sweet odours—whether of the orange or of some kind of Cape jessamine, I know not, but it was most rarely sweet. We were not quite so well received here, owing to the people being at war, but we drank real Kava chewed by a beautiful princess, a figure of brown loveliness, who shimmered in the rays of the setting sun like a yellow bronze statue. She was dressed solely in a most lovely mat wound with exquisite grace around her hips, the fringe below hardly hiding her dainty little feet. She wore a glorious wreath of crimson hibiscus flowers, and round her neck a double row of great crimson berries," etc.

There are stirring adventures with great fish and with cannibals in these chapters; and the indolent and easy lives of the islanders, except before meals, is described with a master hand. The transition to Canada and the Western States, where Dr. Kingsley went with the distinguished yachtsman Lord Dunraven, shows under changed conditions the same adaptability, powers of description, and love of nature. This love of nature, however, was not proof against the tendency to kill animals that could not be used, which has made some British sportsmen so obnoxious in the West. On p. 125 Dr. Kingsley says: "This elk-running is perfectly magnificent. We ride among the wild sandhills until we find a herd, and then gallop after them like maniacs until we get in the midst of them, when we shoot all we can." He states that the troopers of the American Army were "most of them Germans and Irish, but with a few deserters from our own army," but makes them talk in the dialect supposed, in England only, to be that of the American native. The Doctor's antipathy to things American in general is not at all concealed, and its expression sometimes seems rather childish, though it does not materially detract from the charm of the chapter on this country.

There are half-a-dozen republished articles from various magazines in the latter half of the book, and all are most entertaining and instructive. In "Certain Delusions of the North Britons," Dr. Kingsley shows that the philabeg or short kilt was introduced into the Highlands by an Englishman, one Thomas Rawlinson, an iron smelter, about 1728. Other popular theories as to bagpipes and broadswords are also shattered. "The Last Salmon before Close Time," "A German First of September," and "Chamois Hunting," are of interest alike to the sportsman, the naturalist, and to those who love delightful narrative and description.

Wages in the United Kingdom in the Nineteenth Century. By A. L. Bowley. Macmillan.

The modest sub-title of this work, "Notes for the Use of Students of Social and Economic Questions," is by no means an adequate description of its contents. Mr. Bowley has here brought together all the more general statistical results of the several investigations made by governments and individuals during the course of the present century, accompanying them by a careful estimate of their scientific value and significance; so that his book will serve the double purpose of a manual of statistical method and of a convenient repertory of valuable information. It is the more assured of a welcome since it refrains altogether from any attempt to deal with cause and effect. It limits its range to the purely arithmetical question as to the amount of wages actually paid to the several classes of workmen in the different trades at various periods. Before these figures can be interpreted in terms of comfort, several other inquiries need to be answered; most fundamental, of course, that of the purchasing power of money. But the amount of money wages is certainly the most important single element in the problem, and it is a necessary preliminary to single it out for exclusive attention.

Mr. Bowley distinguishes between two methods of handling wage statistics, which he designates respectively "statical" and "kinetic." We may, perhaps, express our

regret, in passing, at this prevalent habit of importing into economic discussion the technical language of the physical sciences. By the former term, however, Mr. Bowley means the formation of comprehensive estimates of wages paid for particular years and the comparison of their results; by the latter, the discovery of the rate of change in wages and the comparison of these rates period by period. He points out that the latter method is often possible where the former is not; he does not point out, what is equally true, that figures of the latter kind are of very little significance to the student of real life unless he has some sort of notion of the amount actually paid. Moreover, we do not find here any explanation of the difficult mathematical problem how to combine the rates of increase of industries big and small so as to obtain a general rate. Still, Mr. Bowley is better than his programme—which was, to follow the "kinetic" method—and he gives us great masses of figures of actual wages as well as percentages. His general conclusion so far (for this is but a preliminary survey of the field) is, that "money wages in Great Britain in the nineties were 10 per cent. above those in the eighties, and 30 per cent. above those of the sixties." This confirms and supplements the conclusions already reached by Sir Robert Giffen and Mr. Sidney Webb.

Historic Side Lights. By Howard Payson Arnold. Illustrated with portraits, diagrams, and facsimiles. Harper & Bros. 1899. 8vo, pp. 331.

It is with shame that we avow our ignorance of the personality of Mr. Arnold. Even the latest biographical list fails to record him, and the tone of his book affords no certainty that his name is genuine or his work well-intended. There is an ill-bred flippancy about the whole performance which is not encouraging, a desperate attempt everywhere to be witty according to some juvenile standard, and a persistent imitation of Tristram Shandy and Diedrich Knickerbocker which warrants the inquiry why the book was written. Apparently the author wished to tell something about the origin of the coat-of-arms and the motto of the United States; but, having very little to say and an overpowering desire to make a book, he has ambled and rambled along, letting one word lead to another, till the reader is lost in wonder. It is evident that he is no friend of Benjamin Franklin or John Adams, and that he is especially inimical to Lord Shaftesbury, but all the jibes and jeers which he elaborately flings against them seem unnecessary and stale. The efforts at wit and repartee are feeble, and at times beneath contempt. Let us, for example, cite on p. 202 his reference to the late David Sears of Boston, whose only crime was the gratuitous distribution of a religious essay, and from p. 205 let us copy the following outrageous note:

"A prominent tailor of Boston bequeathed a large part of his fortune for the purpose of giving excursions to the descendants of those who had been impoverished by his enormous bills, in the hope that sails down the harbor and a sight of Deer Island, and trips to Mount Auburn and other popular resorts in the vicinity of the city, might enable his beneficiaries to forget for a few brief moments the wrongs they had indirectly suffered at his hands."

As the late Mr. Randidge was distinctly a fashionable tailor, and as the objects of his modest and kindly bequest were to be specifically the poor waifs of the city to whom a trip down the harbor had been an unattainable luxury, the utter stupidity of Mr. Arnold's comment is apparent. We have selected this specimen because it is typical. Mr. Arnold writes laboriously and methodically, with a phrase-book at hand and an eye upon Sheridan's artificial epigrams, but he has not succeeded in uttering a spontaneous witticism.

We find nothing in these pages to justify the space taken by the "side lights." The subjects are trivial and have been discussed elsewhere. Every one knows that Franklin and Jefferson selected the coat-of-arms prepared by the French artist, and the motto "E pluribus unum" fell into place without much consideration or meaning. As to Lord Shaftesbury and Hercules, the information here set forth may be new, but it is trivial and not even amusing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Baptist Year-Book for 1900. Philadelphia: The American Baptist Pub. Society. 25c.
Brown, Caroline. Knights in Fustian: A War-Time Story of Indiana. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Carmen Sylva. Aus Meinem Königreich. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Davis, M. E. M. The Queen's Garden. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Eaton, J. S. Railroad Operations: How to Know Them from a Study of the Accounts and Statistics. New York: The Railroad Gazette. $2.
Fitchett, W. H. How England Saved Europe: The Story of the Great War, 1793-1815. Scribners. Vol. IV. $2.
Gautier, Th. Jettatura. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Halleck, R. P. History of English Literature. American Book Co. $1.25.
Hime, Lieut.-Col. H. W. L. Lucian the Syrian Satirist. Longmans, Green & Co.
Jordell, D. Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises pour l'Année 1898. Lemcke & Buechner.
Lockyer, Sir N. Inorganic Evolution as Studied by Spectrum Analysis. Macmillan. 4s.
McCunn, Prof. J. The Making of Character: Some Educational Aspects of Ethics. Macmillan. $1.25
Milton, J. Paradise Lost. Macmillan. 25c.
Rodkinson, M. L. New Edition of the Babylonian Talmud. New York: New Talmud Publishing Co. Vol. I.
Shakespeare, W. King Richard III. Cassells. 10c.
Shakespeare, W. The Taming of the Shrew. [Players' Edition.] With Introduction by Ada Rehan. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Thorburn, S. S. Transgression. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Vols. LXIII. and LXIV. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co.
Valdés, A. P. José. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80c.
Warner, Anna B. Fresh Air. American Tract Soc. 75c.
Wells, D. A. The Theory and Practice of Taxation. Appletons. $2.
Westbrook, Rev. R. B. Man, Whence and Whither? New York: Peter Eckler. 50c.

Henry Holt & Co., 29 W. 23d St., New York.

Recent and Shortly Forthcoming Historical Works.

Seignobos's Political History of Europe Since 1814.

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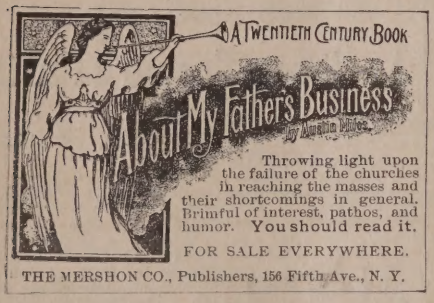
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1900.

The Week.

Only four months ago, in his annual report of December 5, Secretary Gage computed for the fiscal year ending with next June a surplus revenue of $40,000,000. He now marks up this estimate to $70,000,000, the difference being mainly chargeable to an increase of eight millions in estimates of customs revenue, and of twelve millions in forecasts of other public receipts. This rather wide misjudgment recalls the still more striking error, in the opposite direction, in the estimates of Mr. Gage's predecessor. In December, 1893, Secretary Carlisle officially predicted a deficit, for the pending fiscal year, of $28,000,000. In fact, the resultant deficit was $69,803,260. In Mr. Carlisle's case, as in Secretary Gage's case, the trouble arose chiefly from faulty judgment of revenue probabilities. Customs alone yielded in 1894 forty-three millions less than the Secretary had predicted; internal taxes produced eighteen millions less than the estimate; so that even a cut in expenditure below official forecasts hardly helped the Treasury. The underestimate of last December will occasion no such mischief as did the overestimate of December, 1893, when plans for revenue legislation were unfortunately affected by the Treasury's mistake.

The Senate has passed a bill appropriating $3,000,000 for the construction by the Navy Department of a submarine cable from San Francisco to Honolulu. A vigorous attempt was made to have the cable laid by a private company, the Government to pay a fixed sum yearly for its messages; but the sentiment in favor of Government ownership prevailed. The Navy Department, however, is authorized, in case its own forces are not available, to have the whole work done by contract. All the materials used shall be of American manufacture, provided their cost is not more than 12 per cent. above what they can be procured for in foreign markets. This provision called forth a vigorous protest from Senator Pettus of Alabama, who wished to know why the Government should be taxed for the benefit of manufacturers. Senator Tillman said that the provision might be of benefit to the iron-manufacturers of Alabama, but Senator Pettus indignantly repudiated the suggestion. He stated that the iron-manufacturers of Alabama were not struggling for existence, but were masters of the situation, and maintained that the bounty offered by the bill was not only unnecessary but wrong. There can be no question as to the correctness of his position.

The ship-subsidy bill provides for two independent subsidies: the first is for compensation to American vessels, both sail and steam, and without regard to speed or tonnage; the second, an additional compensation to steamers, which is graded according to speed and tonnage. For the larger steamers this additional speed subsidy is by far the more lucrative of the two, and the rate goes up to two and three-tenths cents per gross ton on the largest and fastest steamers. This will enable the four large vessels of the American Line (the only American ships which can earn the maximum subsidy) to collect about $25,000 for each voyage to Southampton. In view of the value of this speed subsidy, it is of the greatest importance for the Treasury Department to have an accurate statement of the speed of the vessel. The ship's log must, of course, show the distance sailed, and this is at the hand of the officers of the Treasury Department, so that, by the simplest and most obvious method, the Government can inform itself as to the amount of speed subsidy earned. But, instead of this simple and accurate method, the bill goes out of its way to provide for a speed test which opens the door to the most serious impositions on the Government, viz., "*six hours*' continuous steaming at sea in ordinary weather in water of sufficient depth to make the test a fair and just one."

The criticisms of this method of compensation, based on a forced test, have been loud and deep, but nothing in the history of ship-builders' premiums for naval vessels can be compared with the effect of the test proposed by this act. The rate of compensation which is to be fixed by this forced speed-test is, first, multiplied by the number of hundred miles sailed; the product thus produced is, second, multiplied by the tonnage of the vessel; the product thus produced is, third, multiplied by the number of voyages in each year; and the product so produced is, fourth, multiplied by the twenty years during which the subsidy continues. When it is remembered that the average round voyage across the Atlantic will be upwards of six thousand miles, and across the Pacific upwards of ten thousand miles, and that the bill tends to encourage the building of vessels of more than ten thousand tons register, some idea may be gained of the figures with which this forced speed rate is to be successively multiplied, and of the resulting bill against the Government. More than this, the bill contains no guarantee that, after a vessel has received a registered speed based on this six-hour test, she will not thereafter work at a much lower speed, and yet collect for full speed.

That was an overwhelming majority which the House of Representatives gave last week in favor of amending the Constitution so as to provide for the election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people—240 yeas to only 15 nays. Two-fifths of the opposition came from the two New England States of Maine and Connecticut, and in the latter case a partisan motive strongly reinforces any objections on other grounds which may be entertained by the three Republican Representatives recorded in the negative. The Democrats of Connecticut have had a plurality of the popular vote in a good share of the elections during the last thirty years, but they have carried the Legislature only three or four times. The consequence has been that Republicans have occupied both of the seats in the Senate for long periods when they would have been awarded to Democrats if the question had been decided by a plurality vote at the polls, and more than once when the requirement of a majority vote, as for Governor, would not have prevented the success of the Democratic candidate for Senator. The fear that the smaller States may ultimately suffer some attack upon their representation in Congress, if the Constitution should once be amended in this matter, may, perhaps, influence some votes in the House. However, opposition of all sorts in the lower branch is not worth regarding. It is the Senate which will block the project again, as it has done before, and will continue to do, until two-thirds of the upper branch shall consist of men who are committed to the change before their election. Meanwhile, the question goes unanswered: Is the decadence of the State Legislatures (the real evil) hopeless and final; or is there virtue enough left to restore the Constitutional substance to the form of legislative election? If so, we can well afford to wait.

The determination of the Republican managers to push through the Porto Rican tariff scheme has had little effect upon the attitude of the party press towards it. The Chicago *Tribune* and the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, which at first opposed the bill, and finally were persuaded to accept it, are the only newspapers of any consequence which have changed their ground. The Cleveland *Leader* in Ohio, the Indianapolis *Journal* in Indiana, the Chicago *Times-Herald* and *Inter-Ocean* in Illinois, the Milwaukee *Sentinel* in Wisconsin, and a host of less promi-

nent party organs, maintain their original position. The *Leader*, for example, insists that "the course followed has been unwise and bad, both in politics and public morals"; the *Journal* declares that it "sees no reason to change its opinion," that "the act is likely to make the Porto Ricans distrustful of the United States," and that no sufficient ground for passing such a law has been offered; while the *Sentinel* pronounces the performance "something incomprehensible," adding that "the leaders of the party in Congress may have had good reasons for their course, but it is plain that not one of them has seen fit publicly to give these reasons in an intelligent manner." Altogether, the course of the Republican press throughout this controversy has been most creditable, and it marks a great advance over what would have happened under a similar test of independence a generation ago.

It was an event of much more than local significance when the Republicans of the Second Maine Congressional District the other day renominated, not only without the faintest opposition, but with the greatest enthusiasm, a Representative who has won national distinction during the past four months by his vigorous opposition to his own party on the only two questions which have been made party issues in the House. Mr. Littlefield early in the winter stood almost alone on the Republican side of the chamber in arguing against the party proposition to keep Roberts, who had been elected Representative from Utah, out of his seat; holding that he ought to be admitted as a matter of right, and then expelled if he deserved expulsion. Later in the winter Mr. Littlefield did his best to thwart the attempt of his party leaders in the House, with the active cooperation of the McKinley Administration, to force a tariff upon the Porto Ricans, and he maintained this attitude to the end of the long struggle, which culminated in the vote the day after the convention met at Lewiston. Yet his constituents declared that "we regard with a justifiable pride the position of national prominence early achieved by the Hon. Charles E. Littlefield, our Representative in Congress; we reaffirm our profound confidence in his wisdom, ability, and patriotism, *and fully endorse the action taken by him upon the great questions that have been and are now pending in Congress*, and we cordially commend him to the Republican voters of the district, as well as to all others who believe in electing to Congress men of strength, capacity, and unswerving honor." This would be noteworthy if it were an isolated exhibition of independence by representatives of the "regular" organization of a party. But it has been made plain that the same spirit which is manifested in New England prevails in that belt of States in the interior which is coming to be the dominating force in the government of the nation.

One aspect of Admiral Dewey's candidacy is evidently troubling the Republican magnates not a little. They see that they are robbed of a taking answer to all objections to Mr. McKinley's Philippine policy. They had expected to be able to give one loud yell of "Dewey" all over the land, and thereby silence every opponent. Did he assert that McKinley had blundered? "Hurrah for Dewey!" Was it charged that the war with the Filipinos might have been avoided? "George Dewey!" Dared any man say that a wiser, firmer President could have prevented the wretched dragging on of a wretched war? "Dewey's guns!" But that beautiful political logic is now destroyed by the Admiral's own act in announcing his opposition to McKinley's reëlection. Even that formidable argument, "the flag," is endangered. How can it be said that every one opposed to McKinley is disloyal to the flag when there is the honored Admiral himself in opposition? With one form of claptrap after another thus rendered unavailable, it begins to look as if Republican orators would have to pay some respect to fact and logic. This horrible outlook is enough to account for their obvious depression of spirits.

Mr. Cleveland's Princeton lectures on the independence of the American Chief Executive have the excellent grace of coming from a preacher who, at any rate, lived up to his own doctrine. His own victory over Senatorial usurpers has been frittered away by his successor in office, so that the fight will have to be made over again when we once more get a firm and fearless President. It is not necessary to suspect an ulterior intention in Mr. Cleveland's choice of such a theme just at this time. He could not desire a more perfect foil than has been furnished by McKinley. People might have thought Mr. Cleveland too virile and unbending for a successful President, had they not so swiftly had the illustration of what happens when Congress becomes supreme, and gets into the habit of rushing to the White House with a stop-watch to give the President just so many minutes in which to go on his knees. If "tact" and suavity, and a happy knack at conciliation, and especial skill in word-swallowing, seemed for a time to promise to win a President more honor than downright sincerity and a will like steel, in the long run we see the popular judgment righting itself. Mr. McKinley could never arouse the bitter hatred of which Mr. Cleveland was the object; but, on the other hand, Mr. Cleveland never could have been spoken of, even by his most malignant enemies, with the quiet contempt with which even his friends refer to Mr. McKinley. Ferocious invective was the favorite form of attack on Mr. Cleveland. It was a tribute to his strength. His successor's amiable weakness admits only of the milder flagellation of satire.

There is an ominous movement on the part of the labor unions of the Pacific Coast States against the immigration of Japanese. The California labor unions have demanded that Congress pass a law excluding the Japanese from the country, and the leaders of these unions on Puget Sound are preparing to support such a measure. Within two years the number of Japanese laborers brought into that region has been very large, and it is said that ten thousand of them are now employed on the railroads, displacing the whites. While the labor movement to Alaska continues, there may be no trouble, but should that cease, it is to be feared that the Japanese will be badly treated. It will be remembered that the Union and Central Pacific Railroads were constructed largely by Chinese laborers, and when their completion compelled these laborers to seek other employment. the race feud began. After we had used the Chinese we abused them, and we have not altered our policy. So far as the principle of Chinese exclusion goes, it applies in the case of the Japanese, and it will be hard to make any distinction between the two races, should the movement against the Japanese become serious. That it will become serious is highly probable. The demand for laborers in the Pacific States is large and growing, while the facilities for immigration are constantly increasing. Unless Congress passes some law excluding the Japanese, we must be prepared to see them come here in very large numbers. But we can hardly expect the Japanese Government to submit to exclusion laws with the patience displayed by the Chinese, and the situation cannot be regarded without uneasiness.

The building contractors of Chicago have published a dignified statement of their attitude towards laborers and labor unions. They say that they have accepted the scale of wages demanded by the unions, which is the highest in the world. They accept the eight-hour day, and pay one-half wages additional for over-time, and double wages for work on Sundays and holidays. But they insist, as a business necessity, on the right to have their operations directed by their own foremen and not by "walking delegates," and on the complementary right to employ and discharge workmen according to their own judgment. These rights they cannot surrender, nor is their existence something to be settled by arbitration. They have ceased to expect protection against violence through the civil authorities, and have fortified a building and provisioned it against a

siege, in order that the lives of men who wish to work for them may be secure. But, as it is impossible for their work to go on without some relations with the external world, they make a final demand on Mayor Harrison for the arrest of rioters who commit unprovoked assaults on men who venture to leave or to enter the contractor's stronghold. They ask only that such criminals shall be treated as others guilty of assault are treated. It is a melancholy state of affairs when appeals of this description fail to arouse universal indignation, but the political power of the unions in Chicago is thought to be so great as to control the action of the Mayor. It used to be said that an Englishman's house was his castle; but the maxim has a new meaning in Chicago.

The decision of the United States Supreme Court on the question of the payment of the stamp tax on receipts given by express companies will occasion little surprise. The War-Revenue Act provided that every express company must issue to the person from whom goods were accepted for transportation a bill of lading, or receipt, and ordained that "there shall be duly attached and cancelled, . . . to each of said bills of lading," a stamp of the value of one cent. It was further provided that "any failure to issue such bill of lading" should subject the express company to a penalty of fifty dollars. The duty of the express company to issue a receipt is plain enough, but it was contended that Congress meant to require it also to pay for the stamp. When the act was first passed, it was said that the express companies would pay the stamp tax, but when they computed the number of receipts which they would have to issue they found that the expense would be ruinous. It would have amounted to one-quarter, if not one-half, of their dividends. They therefore insisted that shippers should pay for the stamp as a condition of receiving their bills of lading. Some of the shippers contested this position, and in Michigan they obtained a mandamus compelling the companies to issue stamped receipts without additional charge. The Supreme Court of Michigan upheld this mandamus, on the ground that it was the intent of the statute to tax transportation companies and not shippers, and it is this decision which is now reversed.

It appears, however, from the opinion of Justice White, that the question who should furnish the stamp was immaterial. He said that it was unnecessary to consider whether the law forbids the express companies to require the shipper to furnish the stamp. It might even be conceded that the law imposed on the companies the duty of paying for the stamp. The vital question was whether the statute forbade the companies to shift this payment to the shipper by increasing their charges for transportation. As to this question Justice White pointed out that there is nothing in the law which "by the widest conjecture" can be construed as expressly forbidding the person upon whom the taxes are cast to shift the same by contract or other lawful means. Otherwise the statute must be construed as not merely levying taxes, but as determining that their burden "must irrevocably continue to rest on the one on whom it is primarily placed." All contracts shifting the burden would thus be void, and "to add by implication such a provision to a tax would be contrary to its intent, and be in conflict with the general object which a law levying taxes is naturally presumed to effectuate." It is impossible to resist the force of this reasoning.

A letter from Mr. Phelps Whitmarsh, the correspondent of the *Outlook*, dated March 5, presents a very gloomy view of the situation in the Philippine Islands. The pacification of the country and the establishment of civil government are reported to be not progressing in a very satisfactory manner, less being now accomplished than three months ago. The provinces which were supposed to be pacified are again in a disturbed and dangerous state. The civil authorities appointed by the American Government and professing allegiance to it are known to be in sympathy with the insurgents. Gen. Otis states that the Hong-Kong and Manila Juntas were never more active, and the insurgents are everywhere reorganizing. Mr. Whitmarsh declares that, with the exception of a mere handful, every Filipino in his heart is an "insurrecto," and wishes to drive the Americans from the islands. The same old hatred prevails, the same hope and belief in ultimate independence. Outside of Manila, white men cannot travel without military escort, and the lives of Americans are being lost daily. Let those who think the war is over, writes Mr. Whitmarsh, visit the islands and judge for themselves. Unless more stringent measures are taken at once, he concludes, it will be not months, but years, before peaceful conditions prevail. The reasons assigned by Mr. Whitmarsh for this deplorable condition of affairs are altogether inadequate to explain it. He assigns as the first cause the gentleness of the military government. When an insurgent is captured, "he is patted on the back and told to go home and be good." To a man with a conscience and a heart, Mr. Whitmarsh says, such treatment might perhaps be efficacious; but to deal with a Filipino in this way is worse than folly." The second cause is the delay of Congress in deciding on our policy; the third is the utterances of men like Senator Hoar.

Dr. Parkhurst has added his vigorous rhetoric to the many denunciations of the Presbyterian creed, heard from Presbyterian clergymen in these parts since Prof. McGiffert's withdrawal. It is a new illustration of the futility of hoping that the removal of a troublesome personality like the accused Professor's will remove the trouble. Instead of settling down to delightful peace and unity, the church seems in more danger than ever of being torn with controversy. Already there is talk of bringing other heretics to book. It is certain that if Dr. Parkhurst were a member of Chicago Presbytery, he would be called as sharply to account for his bold utterances as was Dr. Hillis for his. Pascal observed that two degrees of latitude were enough to reverse the moral law; and it is well known that Presbyterian orthodoxy is a matter of latitude (no pun intended) and longitude. Eastern protests against an outworn creed are very like Eastern protests against Bryanism. They do not count, as long as the machine—and there is an ecclesiastical as well as a political machine—of the West and South controls the situation. The West and South like their doctrine, as they like their politics, tough. If there were no hell, they would certainly invent one.

Emperor William is having a hard time getting the Reichstag to accept the bill to double the German navy. To the surprise of the official press, there has been a distinct cooling towards the project since the kind of "combine" necessary to pass it has become evident. The Government has had to offer to the Clericals, as the price of their support, the "lex Heinze," regulating exhibitions of art, against which all artistic and literary Germany is up in arms. The Agrarians demand, in return for their votes, a so-called "meat-inspection" law, designed really to shut out importations. Over this the shipping and commercial interests are greatly excited. Their wrath naturally passes over in some degree to the naval bill itself, without which the offensive measures now linked to it would not have been heard of. It is a curious instance of the way in which the exaltation of war-power naturally draws other forms of barbarism along with it. But Von Bülow points solemnly to the new Imperialistic navy of the United States as a conclusive reason why Germany must have more battle-ships. We, on our part, point to Germany's ambitious naval plans and to England's great armament; England points to France and Russia; Russia to Japan, and so on around the circle. Some day the taxpayers will break into this absurd accusatory and apologetic circle of the nations, and say, "Cut down your naval expenses all around, and your relative strength will be the same, while we shall be millions in pocket."

THE PORTO RICAN BILL.

The bill to provide a civil government for Porto Rico that passed the House on Wednesday of last week, is a measure of far-reaching importance, aside from the tariff feature, which has hitherto engaged the greater share of public attention. Indeed, the tariff feature is so far overshadowed by other things that it may be regarded as of little consequence *per se*.

The history of the bill ought not to be overlooked. It was introduced by the Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee as a substitute for his own bill, which provided for free trade with Porto Rico. It led to an immediate and dangerous revolt in the Republican party and press, but it was forced through the House by a narrow majority. The Senate overlaid it with the Foraker bill, thus transforming its character from a mere fiscal or revenue measure to a system of governing our new insular possessions. It puts in force at one stroke the proconsular idea of government. It presents in clear-cut fashion the difference, hitherto scarcely noticed by the masses, between Expansion and Imperialism. It is quite consistent with the principle of the Porto Rican tariff bill of the House, but it goes much further in that direction. So far does it go that Mr. Cooper, the Chairman of the House Committee on Insular Affairs, protested vehemently against it. It took the whole question of Expansion vs. Imperialism out of the hands of that committee, and settled it without debate on the Imperialistic basis—and Mr. Cooper himself voted for it when the pinch came.

"A marciful Providunce fashioned us holler
O' purpose thet we might our princerples swaller."

Though, politically, the Democrats had more to gain by the passage of the Porto Rican bill than by its defeat, they stood up in opposition to it more unitedly than on the occasion of its first coming before the House. They will now be able to affirm their own consistency, at the same time that they will have at their disposal a large and varied assortment of deadly political ammunition furnished wholly by good Republicans. It was no Democrat, but a leading Republican Senator, Mr. Davis, who said that the bill was one which "taxed flour and left rum free." It was no free-trader, but that stalwart protectionist, Senator Proctor, who asserted that the bill was changed into a protective measure at the behest of interested parties. From no Mugwump doctrinaire, but from a good Republican Representative from Illinois, Mr. Lorimer, came the declaration that the form of government imposed upon Porto Rico was not such "as free men should give to those who come under their control by conquest or otherwise." Finally, the Democrats have for their campaign that veritable lyddite shell—President McKinley's unctuous assertion of "plain duty," so soon transformed by him, under due pressure, into plain cowardice, plain double-dealing, plain official and personal recreancy.

The plan of civil government proposed by the bill as finally passed provides that the political entity created by it shall be known, not as a State, or as a Territory, of the United States, but as "the People of Porto Rico." The inhabiants are declared to be citizens of Porto Rico, not of the United States of America, but they are declared to be under the protection of the United States, which may possibly mean that we shall not allow anybody else to tax them without giving them representation.

The Governor of the island is to be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and he is to have all the powers of a Governor of a Territory of the United States. The legislative power of "the People of Porto Rico" is to consist of an Executive Council of eleven members, and a House of Delegates of thirty-five members, but the Council is to be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. This is the true kernel of the Foraker bill. No measure can pass the Porto Rican Legislature without receiving the sanction of a body of which we appoint the whole, though five must be natives of Porto Rico. This is Imperialism without disguise. When Spain offered what she called self-government to the Cubans she retained the right of appointing a majority of the upper house of the Legislature. We then said that such a system was a mockery of self-government, and ought not to be accepted by the Cubans. It was not accepted, and we went to war with Spain on that issue in part. Lest any bill that we do not like should slip through this Executive Council and escape the Governor's veto, it is provided that any bill passed by the legislative branch may be annulled by Congress. In other words, self-government is expressly denied to "the People of Porto Rico."

Why is it denied? A little farther on we read that all grants of franchises, rights, and privileges, or concessions of a public or quasi-public nature shall be made by the Executive Council with the approval of the Governor; but all franchises so granted shall be reported to Congress, which reserves the power to amend or annul the same. Thus, in the granting of charters for railways, gas or electric-light companies, banks or other corporations, "the People of Porto Rico" are to have no voice. It will be said that Congress can disapprove of any grants of franchises that are unwise or unjust; but will Congress do so? Congress has not time to attend to its own proper duties now. Who is to guarantee protection to the people of Porto Rico against corporate oppression and spoliation when they have not even a delegate in Congress to lift a voice for them or to point out their grievances?

Among the other intricacies and novelties of the measure stands the question of citizenship of Porto Ricans, and of Spaniards remaining in the territories ceded or renounced by Spain. The Senate bill at first declared the inhabitants of Porto Rico to be "citizens of the United States." This looked too much like an intention to deal justly by them, and so the bill was amended to read, "citizens of Porto Rico, and as such entitled to the protection of the United States." This is nonsense, from the point of view of international law. Porto Rico is not a sovereign power. It can have no citizenship as such. Before the war, Porto Ricans were Spanish subjects, now they are American subjects. This is what an international lawyer would say. Senator Spooner tried a solemn fetch, when the case was put to him in the Senate. He had affirmed that the Porto Ricans were not American citizens. Then were they aliens? No. What then? They were "colonists." The Senator must have grinned inwardly. "Colonist" means nothing in fixing a man's status. English colonists are subjects of the English crown—British citizens, professing allegiance to English sovereignty. Suppose one of our Porto Rican "colonists" took up arms against the Government. He would be a rebel. He would be guilty of treason. Why? Because he would be an American citizen false to his allegiance. Suppose he were impressed by a foreign navy, or illegally arrested in Hayti or St. Thomas. His release would instantly be demanded by our Government. On what ground? That he was an American citizen.

Congress, so far as a form of words can go, has deprived the Porto Ricans of one citizenship without giving them another. They are made 900,000 people without a country. But we may be sure that the Supreme Court will put an end to this solemn fooling. International law knows nothing of such estrays, such derelicts of citizenship. The "wisdom of Congress" may elect to leave the Porto Ricans floating between heaven and earth, but judges will be compelled to rescue them from the interlunar cave where it has been attempted to deposit them. They must be either one thing or the other, either Spaniards or Americans. Neither our own statutes nor the laws of nations will recognize such wandering nondescripts as they are asserted to be.

A similar novelty in citizenship is presented in Cuba. Under the Treaty of Paris, "Spanish subjects, natives of the Peninsula," were given a year within which to declare their wish to retain their Spanish allegiance. That year expired on April 11. It is estimated that from 60,000 to 70,000 Spaniards made due declaration of their intention to remain

subjects of Spain. But can it be held that the remaining Peninsulars in Cuba—perhaps 100,000—have lost their nationality, even if the Paris Treaty says they have? We think the matter open to grave doubt, legally. We understand that many Spaniards in Cuba who have not registered as such, have taken advice of able counsel, and they scout the idea that the rights of Spanish citizenship can be forfeited or renounced in any such way. Both Spain and this country have their laws respecting citizenship and naturalization, and if the Treaty of Paris ran counter to them and caused a man to suffer in person or property, he would have redress in the courts. For example, a leading citizen of Cuba, who always supposed he was a Spaniard, the Marquis of Apezteguia, wished to declare his intention to retain his Spanish allegiance. He was not allowed to, on the ground that, having been born in Cuba, he did not come under the terms of the treaty. But the Marquis vows that it is rank injustice to make a man renounce his citizenship against his will, and intends to contest the matter in the courts. He was undoubtedly a Spanish citizen. What is he now? A citizen of Cuba? But Cuba is not a sovereign power. Is he an American subject? But he neither wishes to be, nor has he taken the steps laid down in our laws to become one. It is easy to see what a legal tangle there is here.

Practically, we admit, no great harm is likely to result to any individual, pending a decision by the Supreme Court. Whether aliens or citizens, or unclassified "colonists," Porto Ricans and Cubans are subject to the same laws, and entitled to the same protection. Discrimination against aliens as such has now practically disappeared among civilized nations. Foreigners, like citizens, are protected in person and property. But we see in the fine confusion of notions and of the law respecting citizenship, involved in our first legislation for our new possessions, how they have already turned our legal traditions, as they have our standards of humanity and liberty, upside down.

MONEY AND SENATORSHIPS.

The unanimous decision of the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections to declare vacant the seat now occupied by Mr. Clark of Montana, on the ground of bribery, is cause for general satisfaction. The fact that all the members of this committee, Republican, Democratic, and Populist, agree that a free choice of Senator was prevented by the great expenditures which Mr. Clark himself admitted were made, is more than was expected; the minority report on every question that may arise being taken as almost a matter of course. Everything indicates that the judgment of the Senate will be overwhelmingly with the Committee if the issue shall ever come to a vote.

Nearly thirty years ago another Senator resigned his place rather than risk expulsion for the same cause. Alexander Caldwell had been elected from Kansas for the term ending in 1877, but he had not been long in Washington before evidence was presented that he had secured his seat by bribery. The charge was so thoroughly established that the committee of investigation reported in favor of turning him out. This would require a two-thirds vote, whereas a seat can be declared vacant by a mere majority, but so few of his colleagues seemed ready to stand by him that Caldwell resigned rather than suffer the disgrace of expulsion.

The closest analogy that we have had to Caldwell's virtually open purchase of a seat, from his time to Clark's, is the attempt, repeatedly made but thus far each time defeated, of Addicks to buy a Senatorship in Delaware. Caldwell, Addicks, and Clark are three of a kind—all of them men who have become so much accustomed to purchasing what they want that, when they think of a seat in the Senate as a very desirable thing, they naturally think also that a good deal of money will have to be put out to get it. To no one of the three does it seem to have occurred that there is any more moral wrong in buying a Senatorship than in purchasing a fast horse or ordering a steam yacht.

Open and gross bribery of this sort, on the wholesale scale practised by Addicks in Delaware, and, even more flagrantly, by Clark in Montana, is so offensive to the public that no man who practises it is likely long to retain a seat if he once gets it. The real peril from the use of money to obtain Senatorships comes in less obvious and scandalous ways. The Committee on Privileges and Elections propose to declare Mr. Clark's seat vacant on the general ground that his extraordinary political expenditures before election prevented a free choice by the Montana Legislature of the United States Senator. If Mr. Clark shall not resign, the Committee's motion will be sustained by not a few Senators who have themselves made extraordinary political expenditures before their election which equally prevented a free choice by the Legislature.

The rich man who has more delicacy of feeling and a clearer perception of popular sentiment than either Addicks or Clark keeps the process of bargain and sale from the public eye. He does not send out agents openly to hand over hundreds of thousands of dollars to an individual member for his vote. He begins buying his Senatorship years before the seat is to fall vacant. He makes large contributions to the party campaign fund in every contest, and always responds to any call for funds which the managers make in a sudden emergency. If his State be one in which a third of the State Senate is chosen each year, he will "take an interest" in the nomination of candidates for the first third and the second third of the body that will elect a Senator, two years and one year before the general public has begun to think about the matter. These candidates will receive from him generous checks toward their campaign expenses. A year before the Legislature which elects is actually chosen, if it be a State where the lower branch is elected annually, he will look out with equal care for the nomination of members who are likely to be re-elected a twelvemonth later, and they also will find their campaign expenses provided for. The result of all this, supplemented by special efforts when the Legislature which elects is finally made up, will be that the ablest man in the State will stand no chance in the party caucus beside this rich man, even though the latter be of very inferior ability. There has been no bribery in the usual sense of the word, but the seat in the Senate has really been bought.

It is through such use of money by business men of good standing that freedom of choice when a Senatorship is at stake is most restricted in States like Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Michigan. What we need in public life is the man of character and ability and independence—such a man as Representative Littlefield of Maine, for example, who was renominated by acclamation and with enthusiasm last week. But such a man would stand no chance of securing a Senatorship in a State where the votes of legislators are virtually mortgaged to a rich man before their election. Fortunately, notwithstanding the rise of the machine to unquestioned power in some States, and the illegitimate use of money in others, there are still many commonwealths where a poor man with a mind of his own may carry the day. In New England, Rhode Island is an exception to the rule, with almost every Senator from the rest of that section a poor man. A year ago last winter Indiana elected a young man without any money. Illinois has never known the sale of a seat, nor Iowa; indeed, it has been the rare exception in all that part of the country when a man who was rich obtained his seat solely for that reason, the late ex-Senator Sawyer of Wisconsin having other qualifications than wealth.

On the whole, the outlook is rather encouraging. Kansas, for example, is not to-day a State where a Caldwell could secure an election. The great difficulty with which we now have to deal is the use of money in ways that do not challenge the public notice nor offend the public taste like the open buying of legislators, but which equally rule out the poor man of ability and merit.

ARBITRARY TAXATION.

The principle of the law taxing "special franchises" in New York is in accordance with justice. No one can dispute the fact that when a privilege, which is, commonly an exclusive privilege, to make use of the surface of the streets and public places of a city, or of space below or above that surface, is granted to private citizens, a right of property is conferred. When a city is steadily growing in area and population, such a right of property tends to increase in value, just as the value of real estate in general tends to increase. The only ground on which the grant of such a privilege can be defended is that it is for the public benefit. The use of the privilege involves the exercise of the right of eminent domain, which is properly the prerogative of the state, and the grantee of the privilege holds it as a trustee of the public. Such a grantee is justly entitled to a reasonable compensation for all that is expended in improving the grant, but not to inordinate profits. The private owner of land is lawfully entitled to all increase in its value, even if that increase is due to the industry of others more than to his own. But the holder of a special franchise has an inferior title.

These principles have received a striking illustration in the case of the Manhattan Elevated Railway. The extension of that road to the northern part of the island, some twenty years ago, caused a prodigious increase in the value of up-town lots. Harlem was built up by it, and to a considerable extent it may be maintained that the increase in the value of real estate in that quarter, although it lawfully belonged to the owners of the land, would be more equitably regarded as the property of the owners of the elevated railway in the sense that they created it. The law not only does not recognize this claim, but also allows abutting owners damages for the deterioration in the value of their lots from the operation of the railroad, and it is stated by the counsel for the road that it has paid $8,000,000 in settling such claims, while those outstanding amount to $4,500,000 more. The position of this corporation is therefore exceptional. It has paid great sums for the exercise of its franchise, and will pay much more, while the surface roads were exempted many years ago from such liabilities. They have made some payments to the city, but not to abutting owners, while the Manhattan Company has paid both.

The State Board of Tax Commissioners appears to have paid no attention to these facts, and to have assessed the Manhattan Company at a valuation of over $55,000,000 in an arbitrary manner. It fixed the valuation of the Metropolitan system at $62,000,000, an increase of $57,000,000. The gross earnings of this system are about $14,000,000. If the tax rate is 2½ per cent., the company would pay 11 per cent. of its gross earnings and 20 per cent. of its net earnings. Some of the lines in the Third Avenue system are assessed at figures which would make their operation a losing business. The same is true in the case of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit system, which operates many roads of great length, simply because they are connecting links between the centre of Brooklyn and outlying districts. The company receives no short-distance fares on these lines, and they barely pay operating expenses. If it is compelled to pay taxes on a valuation of over $30,000,000, its property will be practically confiscated.

To the injury done by their arbitrary assessments, the State Tax Commissioners added what is little less than insult. They were asked to give some information as to the principles which they followed in fixing valuations, but they took the position that the law did not require them to give this information. Technically, they may be right; but if their object were to arrive at just results, they would give this information without being asked for it. It is necessary, not only for the purpose of enabling the corporations assessed to show in what respect, if any, the principles followed are incorrect, but also that the public may be enabled to judge whether justice is being done. One of the greatest evils in taxation is inequality of assessment; and if no principles are recognized by assessors, it is impossible to point out unfair discriminations. It is uncharitably said that the Tax Commissioners refused to state what principles they followed, because they did not follow any. We need not assent to this view, but the refusal of information gives color to it. It is certainly true that it is impossible to tell from the assessments which they have made what method of valuation was adopted. Possibly, if the Commissioners would reveal the processes by which they reached their conclusions, their valuations might appear reasonable, but with such light as we have, they seem altogether unfair. They are not proportioned, either to gross earnings, or to net earnings, nor yet to intrinsic or market value.

Not the least of the evils of arbitrary assessments is the outrageous burden which they impose on individuals. It is the practice of the authorities in this city to assess personal taxes by guesswork. They apparently take the city directory and select a certain number of victims. They assess these persons at $5,000 or $10,000, or whatever sum they choose, without any reason. They argue that some of these persons will own the property attributed to them, and will pay their taxes, and that those who have no property will come up to the tax office and swear their taxes off. They calculate that it will cost at least $25 for a non-resident to employ a lawyer to have his assessment vacated, and that in many cases citizens will rather pay than fight. The result is that comparatively poor people often pay excessive taxes. Such people will generally pay a good deal rather than be involved in a lawsuit. Rich people are able to resort to the courts and obtain justice there, after a fashion, but they have to pay roundly for it. And, after all, it is very imperfect justice, for, beyond question, great numbers of people do not pay their fair share, thus making the burdens of others excessive.

It is especially important, now that this great experiment of taxing special franchises is begun, that the assessments should be universally admitted to be fair. If they do not commend themselves to the public sense of justice, the law will lack the support of public opinion. If they are not recognized by the corporations as based on some reasonable principles, and as free from partiality and discrimination, the corporations will be tempted to resort to corrupt means for protection.

SOME HISTORICAL PARALLELS.

The English people, to judge from their current periodical literature, are as deeply absorbed in the South African struggle as the people of this country were in our civil war. All other subjects are subordinated to this in the daily press, and the number of excited and enthusiastic citizens who relieve themselves by writing letters to the newspapers is countless. The last issue of the *Nineteenth Century* contains no less than seven consecutive articles dealing with various aspects of the military situation, and the other reviews are not much behind in the amount of space which they devote to the matter. But we must remember that the last war which really came close to the English heart was that of the Crimea, which ended almost forty-five years ago. The lapse of such a period means that only one person out of ten now living has experienced the deep emotion which thrills a people when a war really affecting the national fate breaks out. Those who remember our civil war know what that emotion is, and those who have never felt it can hardly understand it.

Some interesting analogies between our struggle and that in which England is now engaged are pointed out, by Major E. S. Valentine, in the April number of the *Fortnightly Review*. He begins with this quotation:

"The object of the present war differs from those in which nations are usually engaged mainly in this, that the purpose of ordinary war is to conquer a peace and make a treaty on advantageous terms. In this contest it has become necessary to crush a population sufficiently numerous, intelligent, and warlike, to constitute a na-

tion. We have not only to defeat their armed and organized forces in the field, but to display such an overwhelming strength as will convince all our antagonists of the utter impossibility of resistance. Our later reverses make this course imperative. Our foreign relations also imperatively demand that the military action of the Government should be prompt and irresistible."

These words sound as if they were spoken yesterday in the British Parliament. In fact, however, they were written on the 4th of August, 1861, by Gen. McClellan to President Lincoln. When the rebellion broke out, many people in the North supposed that it would be quickly suppressed. Secretary Seward put the time necessary at ninety days, and Horace Greeley gave the rebels "six weeks to capitulate." "On to Richmond" was the cry, until the Bull Run disaster sobered the Northern people. They realized that their task was to be more difficult than they had supposed, that they had begun it without sufficient preparation, and they learned at the same time that their defeat had been heard of with pleasure by the European states. Our Government had not made itself beloved abroad. It was looked upon as an ambitious and grasping Power, and its humiliation was regarded as a proper punishment for its haughty spirit. This experience has been repeated in current history, and England has found that she has underrated her enemy and overrated her own preparation, while the other peoples of Europe openly rejoice in her discomfiture.

In many other respects, Major Valentine shows that the task of our generals resembled that which is now before those of England. The Confederate soldiers were like the Boers, horsemen and riflemen by natural training. They were used to poor and scanty food, and could subsist without pay. They were fighting on their own ground, in country which they knew without the aid of maps, and where the inhabitants of their own race sympathized and aided them, while the subject blacks were generally disposed to assist the invaders. They were less intelligent and disciplined than the Northern troops, but they were fighting by their own homes and in a climate and under conditions to which they were inured, but which were strange and noxious to their foe. As the numbers of the Confederate armies were exaggerated by the people of the North, so the English appear to have overestimated the size of the Boer armies. And as the English now confide in the 200,000 men whom they have sent to South Africa, so did the Northern people rely on the number of their recruits. Yet Gen. Sherman said that, while our paper armies were very large, at no time during the war were more than one-half of the men receiving pay engaged with the fighting army at the front, and this half was subjected to the further diminution of 33 per cent., because of sickness, furloughs, and detachments. "To this cause," according to Gen. Sherman, "may be traced some of the worst failures, when the Government and people behind pushed their officers on, supposing that figures could handle muskets and fight battles."

An English clergyman in the Cape Colony suggests another parallel, which we are unable to accept. He declares that the war against the Boers is a war for the emancipation of the blacks. He repudiates all suggestions of material gain, all intimations that the capitalists and gold-mining companies are interested in the war. The real underlying cause, he says, is the native question. To the Briton, the natives in South Africa "form a subject race bound to him by the ties of common humanity." To the Boer, the native is only a "black creature," created to be a hewer of wood and a drawer of water. "The difference between Briton and Boer in dealing with natives is irreconcilable and fundamental." To illustrate this difference Canon Wirgman tells a story of a Boer's finding a native reading a book, and dismissing him at once from his service. A British farmer, the Canon says, would not have turned off a decent laborer for knowing how to read, although he would be on his guard against any misconduct "on the part of a semi-educated native, who, if he is inclined to be bad, is more difficult to deal with than an uneducated savage, because knowledge is power." Such a difference in dealing with the natives as this suggests is hardly fundamental enough to cause a war. It reminds us of Carlyle's explanation of the issue of our war: Peter of the North quarrels with Paul of the South because Paul hires his servants for life, while Peter hires them by the year.

It is true that the civil war in this country did not begin as a war for the emancipation of the slaves. But hatred of slavery was the motive which strengthened the heart of the North, and the arrogant spirit of slaveholders brought on the conflict. We fear that the native Africans are harshly treated by the Boers. But when we read of the stockade at Kimberley in which the workers in the diamond mines are confined, of the methods by which laborers are procured for the gold mines of Johannesburg, and of the demands for compulsory labor by the natives made by the speculators at Buluwayo, we can hardly accept Canon Wirgman's view, that "the British Empire is waging a holy war for the cause of freedom and justice to the native races of South Africa."

MASSON'S NAPOLEON.

PARIS, April 6, 1900.

The indefatigable Frederick Masson continues his publications on Napoleon and his family. Notwithstanding this writer's defects as a literary man, the fatiguing profusion of the details in which he delights concerning things purely material, such as dress, furniture, costume, etc., his books have a very great success, for he deals with very interesting people. His style is not good, nor sometimes even very correct, but his materials are solid, his erudition is not borrowed, he always takes the trouble to go to the root of every subject. Though, as a whole, his work, when finished, will be a lasting monument to Napoleon, the Bonapartists are finding fault with M. Masson, and complain of his severity. He replies:

"If I am reproached with some harshness of judgment, it is not with me that certain people must find fault, but with the facts; these speak, I listen, and merely translate their language. If people find some exaggeration in the conclusions which I draw from certain events, I beg them to wait before judging me for the end of my work. If, without contesting the facts or my conclusions, they think that all truth is not made to be told, and that I have uttered too many truths, let them allow me to answer that Truth is a whole, that history is only made for her, and is rendered legitimate only by a writer's independence; that, having found a fact, discovered a thought, or even felt an impression, if I concealed a part of it and hesitated to show truth as it appeared to me, I should be, in my own eyes, only a miserable pamphleteer or a despicable courtier."

M. Masson's work began with the publication of two volumes on Napoleon and his family, between 1769 and 1802, and between 1802 and 1804. The third volume, just issued, covers the period between 1805 and 1809. It begins with the constitution of the kingdom of Italy. Napoleon proposed to establish his brother Joseph as sovereign of the new kingdom. Joseph at first accepted, but, after a discussion of the pragmatic sanction, he refused. Italy was then offered to Louis, for his son; Louis refused. Then Lucien had the offer, on condition that he would separate from his wife, as Napoleon had never recognized his marriage. Lucien would not accept this condition, and finally Prince Eugene was made Viceroy. In reality Napoleon kept all the power to himself, and the functions of the Viceroy were almost purely representative. The Italian confederacy was attached directly to the French Empire, thus paving the way for the unity of Italy. Prince Eugene and Eliza were mere delegates of the Emperor. What remained—Tuscan, Austrian, or subject to the Pope—would some day, in the Emperor's mind, be neutralized or even absorbed, and M. Masson does not hesitate to consider Napoleon as the precursor of Italian unity. "By him, by him alone, Dante's Beatrice was taken out of the sepulchre where she had lain for twelve centuries:

> 'Sopra *candido* vel cinta d' oliva
> Donna m'apparve, sotto *verde* manto,
> Vestita di color di *fiamma viva*'—

white, green, and red—and such is the Italian flag."

Caroline Bonaparte was married to Murat; he had a revenue of more than a million, and the Emperor gave them the Élysée. This palace (which is now the residence of the Presidents of the Republic) had been sold as national property, and given up to shopkeepers and let in small lodgings. The park was open to the public, and every Sunday there was dancing in it. The Murats repaired the Élysée at great expense. Eliza received from her brother the Principality of Piombino and Lucca. Pauline, familiarly called Paulette in her family, bought a magnificent hôtel in Paris, with

the help of her brother; she was a pure Parisienne, fond of dress and amusement, and did not care for distant principalities. The Emperor's mother, called officially "Her Imperial Highness, Madame, mother of the Emperor," received an immense establishment, with numerous retainers. She abandoned not without regret her home at Ajaccio; she was a true Corsican, but she consoled herself by accumulating as much money and jewelry as she could. When she was complimented by some compatriot on her grandeur, she used to say, with her Italian accent: "Pourvu que ça dure."

Jerome Bonaparte was in 1804 in America, where he married Miss Patterson, with official announcement to his family. The First Consul sent him an order to return to France, in his capacity of lieutenant in the navy, by the first ship. Minister Decrès enjoined on the French agent in Washington to make no more payments to Jerome. "What the First Consul prescribes above all is, that you forbid all captains of French ships to receive the young person to whom Citizen Jerome has united himself; his intention being that she should not enter France, and, if she arrives there, that she should not land, but should immediately be sent back to the United States" (April 20). Jerome did not immediately obey, and when the Empire was proclaimed, he was excluded from the line of heredity. By a decree rendered in the Council of State, the Emperor forbade "all officers of the *état civil* of the Empire to receive on their registers the transcription of the act of celebration of a pretended marriage contracted in foreign parts by Jerome Bonaparte." Jerome sailed from Baltimore with his wife and his brother-in-law on the brig *Erin*, belonging to Mr. Patterson, and entered the Bay of Lisbon. He asked the French Chargé d'Affaires, Serurier, for passports for himself and his wife. Serurier had his orders, and refused the passport for Miss Patterson, as he called her. Jerome sent his wife to Amsterdam and himself left for Italy, where the Emperor was staying at the time. A negotiation took place between them; meanwhile, his wife was obliged to seek refuge in England. She took a house at Camberwell, where she gave birth to a child, who was named Jerome Napoleon.

Jerome could not obtain from his brother a recognition of his marriage; he wrote to his wife long letters, trying to make her bear her fate in patience. These letters are published at length by M. Masson, for the first time. They are dated from Genoa July 20, 1805; Paris, October, 1805, October 6, 1805, and October 16, 1805. In this last letter he says:

"Be easy, my Eliza. After the war you will see your good husband again. . . . Teach our child to love and esteem his father and tell him: 'Your father will always prefer you to greatness, fortune, to all the state of high rank.' Leave you, my good wife? I never had this fatal thought; but I must behave as a man of honor, a brave and loyal soldier. I deprive myself of my wife, of my son, to go to war and defend my country; and, after having fulfilled my duty as brother of the Emperor, I will fulfil those of husband. . . . I love my country, I love glory, I have an inviolable attachment to my sovereign and my brother, but I love them as a man who, accustomed to fear nothing, will never forget that he is the father of Jerome Napoleon and the husband of Eliza."

Jerome, by Napoleon's order, asked Miss Patterson to leave England. "We imagine," she wrote from Camberwell on August 14, 1805, "that Bonaparte [Jerome] is in a measure a prisoner, and we must wait patiently to see how he will behave." She felt that there was for herself some inconvenience in leaving, but the request of her husband was formal, and she returned to Baltimore at the end of 1805. Meanwhile, Jerome had been appointed captain of a frigate, his brother having predestined him to the command of a fleet. He made a campaign on board the *Veteran*, but he did not much like the sea, and returned to France without orders. To his great astonishment, he was very well received by the Emperor. A week after his arrival in Paris, articles of marriage of Jerome with a daughter of the King of Würtemberg were signed. Curiously enough, one of the reasons given to the official of the diocese of Paris for the annulment of Jerome's former marriage was the religion of Miss Patterson, who was a Protestant; but the German Princess of Würtemberg was also a Protestant. Napoleon was satisfied. He writes to Joseph: "Jerome has landed. I have recognized him as a Prince, and I have given him the great cordon of the Legion of Honor. I have arranged his marriage with Princess Catherine, daughter of the King of Würtemberg." "I am very well satisfied with Jerome," he says to his brother Louis. He announced to Jerome that he would give him a million a year, and named his household, almoner, chamberlains, equerries. A few days afterwards, the official of the diocese gave his sentence, declaring the nullity of the marriage contracted between the minor Bonaparte and Elizabeth Patterson. The Princess to whom Jerome was affianced was two years older than he; the marriage was deferred for some time by the necessities of war.

M. Masson joins to his narrative a long appendix on the incident of Eliza Patterson, containing a series of inedited documents, which establish, he says, for the first time in a complete manner the respective parts played by the Emperor, Jerome, and Miss Patterson. The documents will undoubtedly be found interesting in America as well as in France. The relations of Miss Patterson with Turreau, the French Minister, are a curious imbroglio. A plan seems to have been formed to draw Miss Patterson and her son to England in order, says Turreau, "to make of that child afterwards and according to circumstances, if not an instrument of trouble, at least an object of disquietude for the Government of France." There was a question of marriage of Miss Patterson with the son of Sir Thomas Graves, an English Admiral, who had estates in America. Miss Patterson informs Turreau that there is nothing in that rumor, but that Sidney Smith proposed to her to come to England, where she had seen him before. Miss Patterson wrote to the Emperor, and he received her letter at Bruges. He wrote to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, charging him to give these instructions to Turreau: He would receive her child in France with pleasure, take care of him, and assure his future. "Il faut du reste," he wrote, "traiter cette affaire doucement et secrètement." In a letter addressed to Eliza Patterson from Cassel on November 22, Jerome protests against his son being placed in any other hands than his own or the mother's. "Who knows what would become of him, or would answer to me for an existence which, anywhere but among his father's or mother's people, it might be an object to terminate?" He invites her to come to Westphalia, the only country where she would be certain to be free. Eliza did not speak to Turreau of the propositions made to her by the King of Westphalia; she continued to remain through him in relations with the Emperor, and accepted a monthly pension of 5,000 francs paid to her by Turreau. Jerome reproached her for having accepted from the Emperor what she had refused from him; their correspondence ceased, and she began a suit to obtain her divorce in Maryland. After it was pronounced, she continued to call herself Eliza Bonaparte; such, at least, is the name that figures on the receipts for her pension, which was paid till September, 1814.

Correspondence.

IS IT JEFFERSON'S?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following letter is known to me only as a transcript made some fifty years ago. I do not trace it in any collection of Jefferson's letters, nor is it printed in the Life of Samuel Adams. A known letter of Jefferson to Adams dated February 26, 1800, says: "A letter from you, my respectable friend, after three and twenty years of separation, has given me a pleasure, etc."—pointing to an opening of a correspondence. The tone of the doubtful letter is one which would be used by a member of the Constitutional Convention, and yet has some traces of Jefferson's style. Perhaps its publication will lead to some account of its origin and history. Worthington C. Ford.

Boston, March 26, 1900.

The following letter from Thomas Jefferson to Samuel Adams, dated in 1799, is said to have been found among his papers. It has been circulated lately in New York, and probably a copy of it may be here. This was received yesterday:

Dear Sir

Your letter has been on my unanswered file longer than I intended,—but many causes have combined to keep it there.

The importance of your questions required reflection previous to a reply, and a careful review of the spirit of compromise which governed the convention in drafting the Constitution.—I am happy to say I can agree with you in your leading points nor will I shrink from the conclusion you intend me to arrive at.—It was at the time well understood by us, and my private opinion remains the same.

All men, without distinction of colour, ought to be free, and they will be so, gradually but surely. Provision is made for this purpose in the Constitution, which on examination it will not be difficult to discover, and you will see, at the same time, how gently and sagaciously this delicate subject is treated.—I would premise that the word Slave is no where to be found in the instrument. It could not be recorded there for we were ashamed to use it.

You have called my attention to certain extracts, some of which I here quote, with a remark or two on each.—In the first place.—In the Preamble—"We the People of the U. S. in order to secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."—By the "*People*" is understood every "*Person*" living or claiming to live within the jurisdiction of the thirteen states. The use made of the word "Person" you will see hereafter.—In Art. 1st Sect. 2d "The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the "*People*" of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications required for electors of the

most numerous branch of the state Legislatures."—"No *Person* shall be a Representative who shall not have attained the age of twenty five years," &c.—"Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons. *including those bound to labour* for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other *persons.*"—Here it is clear that "*People*" and "*Persons*" are identical,—the first including the whole mass,—the last, the individuals which compose it.—

In regard to "*Persons*" though all have some rights, yet there is an inequality in their distribution, but an inequality which has a termination. —Thus "no person shall be a Representative until he shall have attained the age of twenty five years." Here is a limitation of a right which age alone can remedy. The right of Representatives is also a limited right,—it is what the state Legislatures may choose to make it for their most numerous branch of the state Legislature. Free persons, and those bound to service for a term of years, and three fifths of other persons have it,—but Indians not taxed, and two fifths of other persons are temporarily excluded. I say excluded for a time, since any State may change it by extending its qualifications of Electors to its whole population, and because when Indians are taxed, and when the condition of certain persons is changed, if it be nothing more than being held to service for a term of years, or for life, they also have the right. —And when this last is attained, then the fundamental principle of the Constitution will be carried out.

In Sect. 9th.—The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by Congress prior to the year 1808, but a tax or duty may be imposed, etc."—This section was drafted in the very spirit of compromise. It gives a plain but delicate intimation that Congress claimed to bring *all persons* of the population of the United States within a given time under the Ægis of her rule and protection.—It is a declaration of the repugnance of the Union to the condition of certain persons, in certain states, and of a desire to have that condition altered.—Their importation after 1808 is prohibited, but no statute may for years be required to restrain their removal from one state to another. The terms *emigration* and *migration* were logically examined and weighed. The first was held to be a removal from ones native country to a foreign country, and the second a removal from one section to another of a common country, This last was therefore selected as peculiarly applicable to the case.—It has this meaning or none.—The right of Congress to prohibit such importation altogether, after a certain year, carries with it the minor right of making regulations for the benefit of persons imported prior to that year, and this fact brings us back to the 2d Sect. where an inducement is held out to the States to begin the work themselves by changing the condition of such persons to labour for a term of years, or for life, and thereby increasing their ratio of Representation.—Should Congress, at any time hereafter do this, a similar result must follow.—

In Art. 4th Sect. 2d. "The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of Citizens in the several States," and "no person held to service or labour in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour is due."—

This article was never liked, but its force and bearing were seen too late for amendment. It has always been to be feared that the Judicial Courts of other States might construe the words "held to service or labour" etc. as applying to that ameliorated condition of the slaves referred to in he 2d Sect. of Art. 1st under "persons bound to labour for a term," the whole population being thus classed in four conditions, Viz[t] 1st Free persons.—2d persons bound to labour for a term of years. 3d Indians not taxed, and 4th other persons, and might decree, that additional protection was a result, or to follow a change of condition, and applied only to the 2d class of persons into which the people were divided. Additional security to the Master, following additional privileges given to the slave.

Sect. 4 declares—"The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government."

Art. 6. That "This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, shall be the supreme law of the land."

Art. 5. of amend[t]. That "No person shall be deprived of his life, liberty or property, without due process of law."—

From the above you have selected the words—"The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges"—"The United States guarantee a republican form of Government."—"The Constitution the supreme law"—"No person shall be deprived of his liberty without due process of law" —and you have called them the four corner stones on which is hereafter to be erected the beautiful fabric of Universal Freedom.

America has proclaimed that all men are born free and equal, and the design and end of her Constitution is to make them so.—The compromise in it should be kept inviolate—and so it will be,—but 1808 must open a new era to the world. From that year slavery is abolished, and the work of emancipation begins.—Every child who after that period shall be born in the United States is an American Citizen, whether white or black, mulatto or quadrone,—and entitled to all a citizen's rights and privileges.—It is his birthright—and he cannot be deprived of it —It is inalienable.—All nations have ever agreed to this, who have agreed in nothing else. It is universal law. Every child then in 1809 & after, if born of a slave is not himself a slave, for the Constitution does not recognize slavery, but a citizen.—Being however without property, he may be held bound to labour or service, either by legislative enactment, or by contract, or by the tacit consent of his parents in order to pay for the maintenance of his helpless years, as is the case of an apprentice, and like an apprentice he comes under the class of persons bound to service for a term of years, but at the age of twenty one he must be free. And if this is true of the Africans, how can it be otherwise of the mulatto & the Quadrone? Indeed of them there can be no doubt in the mind of any one,—for where is the section in the Constitution which authorizes or allows *one drop of American blood or the blood of a white man to be held in slavery.* I know of no other construction which can guarantee a republican form of government to each of the States. Slavery of a part is utterly inconsistent with a common right to all, and man would be deprived of his right on account of the colour of his skin, without due process of law. But this is anticipating thirty years.

I have thus my friend met you on each point of your enquiry. I have given you my views concisely, but frankly and truly. I could easily have withheld them.—I trust however that they will be for your own eye, and not for the Public,—certainly not at the present moment. I would quiet your mind of all apprehension by showing you that the Constitution is sufficient for the purpose of Universal Freedom, more so, in fact, than if it had rudely pushed against an opposition, which time must weaken, and good sense and religion finally overcome. I venture to predict that before the present generation shall sleep with their Fathers, not a slave will pollute the soil of our Country.—

With the highest respect, your obedient servant and friend,

THOS. JEFFERSON.

MONTICELLO, 8 October, 1799.

SAMUEL ADAMS, Esq., Boston.

A STILL BETTER POSTAL CARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "L." asked the question, a week or more ago, "Why this splendid big nation, which gives itself every conceivable form of luxury, cannot manage to provide for its inhabitants a white postal card?" Many a man has had the same thought before, but has failed in his duty of asking the question aloud. Just such elegant white cards as your correspondent found in common use in England were to be seen there twenty-five years ago. May I add the further suggestion, that it is often important, sometimes vitally so, to have the official post-mark legible so as to show the date and place of mailing? But now the post-mark comes over the heavy letters of the printed matter, so that the date or place is often concealed. All this elaboration of words and meaningless lines is not only ugly to look upon, but quite unnecessary, for all essential words could be put where they would not interfere with the serious purposes of the card, and we could have a more practical as well as a better looking one.

J. G.

WORCESTER, MASS., April 12, 1900.

THE EPICENE PRONOUN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I vaguely remember that, somewhere about the sixties, an ingenious gentleman proposed an epicene pronoun, declined (I think) thus:

Heesh=he or she.

Hizzer=his or her.

Himmer=him or her.

Example: "The teacher told John and Mary that he would punish himmer if heesh did not learn hizzer lesson."

Perhaps some correspondent of the *Nation* can supplement the deficiencies of my memory.

WM. HAND BROWNE.

BALTIMORE, April 9, 1900.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In line with "C. L. F.'s" note in the *Nation* of 29th ult., I would direct the attention of that Vassar College professor, who is in want of a common-gender pronoun, to that on pages 1877 and 2274 of the Standard Dictionary, namely *Thon*, because of the manifest improvement it offers on the word *it* used by her.

This pronoun—Thon—is commended by Prof. March and other distinguished philologists; is used by them and by certain college text-book makers and editors of orthoepic issues; and promises to attain general public adoption.

Yours philologically,

MRS. C. CROZAT CONVERSE.

HIGHWOOD, BERGEN CO., N. J., April 10, 1900.

Notes.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will publish in the autumn 'Chess Strategetics Illustrated,' by Franklin K. Young.

Prof. P. B. Marcou and Dr. J. D. M. Ford of Harvard University are at work on a Spanish-English Dictionary to be published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. Any contributions or suggestions sent to Professor Marcou will be thankfully received.

Mr. David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., compiler of the 'Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury [Mass.], with some Related Families of Newbury, Haverhill, Ipswich, and Hampton,' a work of a high order of accuracy, brought down to the year 1700, is ready, in accordance with an expressed desire, to compile a second volume for the following century. It would partly amplify and correct the first volume. Mr. Hoyt will be governed in selection by the special in-

terest of subscribers and the existence of trustworthy genealogies dispensing him from covering the same ground. The engagement to pay will not exceed five dollars.

Dr. Judson S. Landon's 'Constitutional History and Government of the United States' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) appears in a revised edition after eleven years. It has been considerably overhauled, and brought in a measure down to date, and fits in with the current worship of the Monroe Doctrine and of its negation, Imperialism. A shorter period, of seven years, has brought around a revision of Thomas Kirkup's propagandist 'History of Socialism' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan), also accommodated to recent events.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have done well in reproducing, in handsome and convenient form, the essays and slighter prose writings of the late Edward Rowland Sill. The lightest of them is bright and agreeable reading, while some carry a weight of grave and instructive thought. Thus, in the paper entitled "Should a College Educate?" one sentence cuts right to the heart of an error too common in this country. The aim, says Mr. Sill, of the higher education, "is not merely to add something to the man from without, as convenience or equipment, but to produce a certain change in him from within, as growth and power."

The "Siddal Edition" of the verse of Dante Gabriel Rossetti (London: Ellis & Elvey) proceeds with a fourth volume, denominated simply 'Poems.' His brother William aims here and in the complementary volumes to mingle narrative and lyrical selections for "the reader's satisfaction"; and as classification is abandoned, so likewise is chronological arrangement, with the result that the present instalment exhibits samples of each of his three productive periods. But then a single poem might illustrate each period if worked over, as was the case with "The Blessed Damozel," written before the poet was nineteen. It is given here with "Dante at Verona," "Stratton Water," "Troy Town," sonnets "On the Vita Nuova" and "Dante's Tenebræ," and other pieces.

Two late additions to the Dent-Macmillan pocket "Temple Classics," a series to be desiderated as a whole, for form and substance, and as generally reproducing first editions, are Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero-Worship,' with frontispiece portrait of Cromwell and an *index* (emphasis on that); and, with the poet's effigy, Cowper's 'Task,' plus the "Epistle to Joseph Hill, Esq.," "Tirocinium," and "John Gilpin," as in the edition of 1785. Every one of these poems has furnished a "familiar quotation," and the number of those derived from "The Task" is a wholesome lesson to latter-day versifiers who would shun the prosaic themes and titles which Cowper boldly faced. There are five pages of them in Bartlett's Dictionary.

A player's edition of Shakspere's "Taming of the Shrew" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is fortified with a brief personal introduction by Miss Ada Rehan on her part of *Katharine*, and sundry photographic illustrations of herself and others in the characters of the play.

The 'Annual Literary Index' for 1899 has been issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. It consists of the customary two indexes, to periodicals and to general literature, united in an author index; of a list of Bibliographies for the year, a Necrology, and a Chronology of leading events for the year. The annual thus obviously commends itself to the student and book-lover as well as to the journalistic profession at large.

The character of the "Versailles Historical Series" (Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.) is well kept up in its concluding volume, which consists of free translations from Brantôme's 'Dames Illustres,' with alternate layers of commentary, chiefly from Sainte-Beuve. These versions, while making no attempt to reproduce the quaintness of the Abbé's French style, seem to show a greater security and precision of touch than was observable in some of the earlier volumes of the series. Altogether, the eight volumes of this handsome set are peculiarly adapted for family and popular reading.

L. Cope Cornford's 'Robert Louis Stevenson' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is distinctly the best recent estimate of Stevenson—indeed, one of the best of the many which have been written. Beginning with a compact narrative of his life and the influence upon it of his heredity and environment, the author proceeds to examine him, as a man and as a writer, in a scholarly, painstaking manner, with real appreciation, and without the extravagance that has characterized so many of Stevenson's admirers. Gay courage in the face of a constant menace of death, and faithful service to his artistic ideals, are what this critic finds most conspicuous in Stevenson. To those who admire either his generous personality, his bravery of spirit, or his finished art, we commend this reflective and judicious essay.

Miss C. A. Hutton's 'Greek Terracotta Statuettes,' which originally appeared as a number of the *Portfolio*, has been issued in bound form (Macmillan). It is notable chiefly for its luxury of page and typography, and for the number and excellence of its illustrations. It contains eight colored plates and thirty-six individual cuts or figures, all of which are good examples of "process" work, and they give a comprehensive suggestion of both the variety and the charm of what are perhaps the most human expressions of Greek art. The most interesting portions of the text are those in which Miss Hutton discusses the subject from this point of view, and shows how these statuettes illustrate and supplement the scanty knowledge we have from literature of the every-day life and sentiments of the Greek people, especially the women. This can hardly be regarded as a new field of investigation, however, nor does she contribute anything new to it. As a whole, her work suffers by comparison with Pottier's masterly little manual, 'Les Statuettes de terre cuite dans l'Antiquité,' in which the same ground has been covered by one of the first living authorities on Greek terracottas, whose style has a simplicity and attractiveness which are rare in archæological literature. Neither directly nor indirectly does Miss Hutton give evidence of acquaintance with this book, though her own might have been improved had she been willing to profit by it.

A valuable contribution to financial science is made in 'Studies in State Taxation' (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press). The volume consists of five essays prepared by students at the Johns Hopkins University on the methods of taxation prevailing in Maryland, North Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, and Kansas. The essays are edited by Prof. J. B. Hollander, and, as he says, the arrangement and presentation of essential data must precede both scientific study and practical reform. The material gathered suggests the impracticability of constructing a uniform system of taxation for communities in which such different laws have so long prevailed.

To the series "L'Art et les Artistes" (Paris: Pavillon de Hanovre) Saint-Saëns has just contributed a second volume, 'Portraits et Souvenirs.' In his preface he says: "You will find a little of everything in this book—anecdotes, souvenirs of certain great musicians whom I have known, and some general criticism." The portraits are of Berlioz, Liszt, Gounod, Victor Massé, and Anton Rubinstein; the souvenirs are poetic suggestions from the life of an artist; and under the title "Variétés" there is a defence of opéra comique, a discussion of lyric and musical drama, a short critique of modern music, and a chapter on "L'Illusion Wagnérienne." After telling of his introduction to Rubinstein and conducting eight recitals for him at his request—"all my education as *chef d'orchestre*"—he concludes: "It seems to me that the fertility, the fine character and personality, those masterly qualities which must be granted to Rubinstein, place him among the greatest musicians of our time and of all time. . . . I count it an honor to have been his friend, and to my last day I shall be grateful for the sympathy he showed me, and for the intense artistic pleasure he gave me." At the age of twelve Saint-Saëns met Gounod, who was twenty-five, afterwards becoming "the recipient of his most intimate artistic confidences." A short sketch, among the souvenirs, "Une Traversée en Bretagne," reveals the writer's poetic temperament, and his prejudices against modern conditions in France, which keep him a constant traveller in foreign countries. "When money is the first consideration," he begins, "everything ends: art becomes Philistine, science is charlatanry, commerce is roguery."

Attilio Brunialti's 'Le Colonie degli Italiani' (Turin: Unione Tipografico-Editrice) proceeds from one who cut a considerable figure in the discussions which preceded and accompanied Italy's recent disastrous colonial expansion in Africa. The volume contains a good sketch of the Venetian and Genoese trading settlements of the Middle Ages, and of the Italian navigators of the Discoveries period. As for the Red Sea colonies of modern United Italy, they were acquired as appendages and ornaments of Italy the "Great Power," and were in no considerable degree the results of a natural flow of capital and emigration. On the contrary, it was believed that such possessions would bring into being the factors which have largely determined colonial acquisition elsewhere—*i. e.*, voluntary emigration of capital and labor, a growth of the merchant-marine, and a development of national industry. Force of example also played a great rôle in infecting Italy with the colonial fever. The colonies acquired are sterile and unproductive for the most part, have been a constant drain on the treasury of an overtaxed country, and have brought about military disasters hardly paralleled in the history of colonization. Crispi is severely blamed for this national humiliation. Brunialti bewails the fact that the flourishing natural colonies of the Italians in the La

Plata region of South America have lacked encouragement of any kind; he shows by their history that they would have amply repaid such fostering care as has been productive of no good results in Eritrea. The work is incomplete only in its treatment of the colonial administrative and fiscal systems.

The twenty-fourth annual report of the trustees of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts shows increasingly the labor imposed on Mr. Edward Robinson, curator of classical antiquities. His description of the rich acquisitions of the year is as minute as it is learned, and is withal readable in no small degree. We may cite, among the inferior articles reviewed, the discussion of the use of the so-called plemochoë vase; of the Kabirion vases now first acquired; and of the amphora, probably by Andokides, notable for containing on two sides the same theme in the black-figured and again in the red-figured style—an almost unique example.

An attractive *Alaskan Magazine* has been launched at Tacoma, Washington, by Percival de Wolf Whitehead. It is in the main well written, and contains profuse illustrations of the striking scenery of the Territory and of the Klondike. The Palisades of the Skagway, Miles Cañon, have much the effect of a close-packed row of Memnoniums.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for April opens with a clear, though not wholly unbiassed, account of the Anglo-Venezuelan Boundary dispute, in which the writer regrets the absence of a written opinion setting forth the facts and principles upon which the award was reached. He believes that it was an "exceptional opportunity to expound and establish principles of international law that would be most helpful in the future." Commander H. Webster contributes a rather slight paper, with some interesting illustrations, on Korea. He calls attention to the curious fact that an examination of a great number of graves showed that, not only in their shapes, but in their disposition and arrangement, they followed the outline of the tortoise, "even the serrations of the shell and the flimsy tail possessed by the animal" being carefully wrought out. Mr. C. W. Hayes, of the Geological Survey, discusses Prof. A. Heilprin's conclusions, published recently in the *Scientific American*, in regard to the assumed inconstancy in the level of Lake Nicaragua and its serious bearing upon the permanency of the projected canal. He presents some cogent arguments, from his own observations, to show that there is no evidence of any but slight seasonal fluctuations, and that the geologic conditions are such that they afford a promise of future stability. The region is therefore favorable for the construction and maintenance of a work such as the canal.

The *Association Review* for April contains a biographical sketch, with portrait, of William Thornton, our first Superintendent of Patents, who was also the author of the earliest American publication upon "the mode of teaching the deaf, or surd, and consequently dumb, to speak." It appeared as an appendix to his prize essay entitled 'Cadmus,' published in 1793, on the project of a phonetic reformation of the English language. There is also an account of Francis Green, and an interesting story by a deaf person, Miss H. Boyd, of her university experiences, at the close of which she expresses the conviction, encouraging to her fellow-sufferers, that "it seems to me the most natural thing in the world for a deaf person with brains to succeed at a hearing university, notwithstanding the difficulties sometimes encountered."

A correspondent writes: "In the number of the *Nation* for March 22 last, page 221, you ascribe to M. Dugard a little pamphlet which is the work of a very distinguished young woman, Mlle. Dugard, professor in the Lycée Molière, in Paris. I notice that *Le Temps* has committed the same error." The poor reviewer is ever liable to be thus misled by women who insist on sinking their sex in an initial.

—'The Northwest under Three Flags,' by Mr. Charles Moore (Harpers), does not relate, as might possibly be gathered from the title, to the far Northwest, but to the region between the Ohio and the Great Lakes. It is a popular account of exploration, settlement, and struggles for control, extending altogether from 1635 to 1796. Mr. Moore follows the French pioneers down to the time of Cadillac, then turns towards the western extension of the English colonies prior to the Revolution, and concludes with the winning of the Northwest posts by the United States. The Pontiac conspiracy is one of his specialties, and by laying a good deal of stress upon the Gladwin MSS. he makes out a story which does not create an unpleasant sense of imitation of Parkman. The latter chapters form, we think, the more valuable part of the book. We say this without trying to detract from the merit of Mr. Moore's writing where it concerns Marquette, La Salle, and Cadillac. He has read, and frequently quotes, the words of the explorers themselves. But this field has been so traversed by an eminent master that the author of an epitome is put at a disadvantage. Of Putnam, St. Clair, and Wayne Mr. Moore speaks with great sympathy, and here he is at his best. He thus recapitulates the share which the "makers of the Republic" had in the upbuilding of the Northwest: "In its defence Washington first learned the art of war; Franklin realized its possibilities and interested himself in its development; Patrick Henry planned with George Rogers Clark for its conquest; John Jay and Franklin and John Adams drew about it the lines of the United States; Thomas Jefferson bestowed upon it the inestimable boon of freedom; Washington's chief of engineers led its first settlers, and Mad Anthony Wayne subdued its savage inhabitants and received the surrender of its frontier posts." We have found few serious inaccuracies in Mr. Moore's text, although in our opinion he places too much reliance on Radisson's credibility, and we should not, following the chronology of Chief Justice Marshall, give 1498 as the date of the Cabot landfall. The choice of illustrations has, on the whole, been good; but several pictures of the imagination have been used and the reproductions are not of uniform excellence.

—From the collection of Lord Gower, the Boston Public Library recently obtained some manuscripts relating to the efforts of the royal officials in Massachusetts to suppress illicit trade and the issue of paper currency in the first half of the last century. These papers have appeared in the late issues of the Library Bulletin, and constitute new and very valuable contributions to colonial history, as all the dependencies were infected with smuggling and with the desire to wipe out debts with paper promises. Five of the documents are concerned with the evasion of the trade regulations, and, written as they were by the King's officers, naturally seek to enforce existing laws by giving larger powers to the courts. Not only does Gov. Shirley urge this, but his son-in-law, William Bollan, later a prominent favorer of the colonies in their contest with the mother country, points out the inability of the law officers to condemn with the existing machinery. As advocate-general he was in a position to know; but his views were strongly supported by Robert Auchmuty, Judge of the Admiralty in New England, who gave a valuable summary of the penalties imposed by the laws, showing how they were evaded by a weakness in the civil service. For the Rhode Island Collector rented his office, and the Naval Officer held his appointment, from the Governor, who was himself popularly elected, and did not dare offend his constituency by enforcing penalties. While the methods of smuggling were somewhat different in Massachusetts, the practice was quite as common, and, in the eyes of the Governor, threatened the welfare of the English commercial interests. In fact, the smuggler was merely protesting against artificial and unwise restrictions on trade.

—A greater evil was the resort to paper money, and an important memorial on the subject is included among these papers. Although undated, internal evidence shows it to have been prepared in 1741, and the facts and turns of language point to the well-known Dr. Douglass as the author or adviser. The unfortunate experiments in land banks in Massachusetts were still fresh in memory, and some sense of decency had been imposed on that province by the losses incurred. But Rhode Island was an unrepentant offender, and, as the memorial shows, the members of the Legislature voting the issues were the greatest gainers by their use. Debtors themselves, they sought to stave off the day of payment by excessive and unsupported "banks" of paper, all of which were loaned to themselves at moderate rates, and reloaned by them at very much higher rates of interest. The larger the issues, the greater the profit, and the notes went into the neighboring colonies to demoralize all effort to maintain a fixed relation between their notes and sterling. This important paper shows the machinery of making these issues, and proves how large a part politics played in their conduct. It may almost be stated that from 1690 to 1751 the debtor had free play in New England to avoid his debts and live on those who had some property.

—One might be disposed to question the right of a version produced in 1653 to be included in a series of "Tudor Translations" (London: D. Nutt), but criticism is disarmed when the book is Sir Thomas Urquhart's astonishing version of Rabelais. Rabelais himself—whom we will not here discuss—is likely to remain an insoluble riddle and paradox. Urquhart seems to have been his predestined translator; to have been compounded of the elements with that special end in view. A born Pantagruelist, with

learning, humor, clear insight, an autocracy of language scarcely less than Rabelais's own, and more than probably a little touch of madness, he had shown his fitness for the task before he undertook it. A man who in almost his first literary attempt could brand the objects of his dislike as "pristinary lobcocks," gravitated to Rabelais as inevitably as the rivers flow to the sea. Born in Cromarty, Scotland, the descendant of an ancient family, and possessor of a pedigree in which was duly recorded every step of his descent from Adam, Urquhart, after studying at Aberdeen, undertook the grand tour then deemed indispensable to the education of a gentleman. He travelled on the Continent for years, collecting books, disputing theses, learning languages, and fighting duels, to come back at last to Scotland to find his paternal estate squandered and himself loaded with debt. His sympathies being royalist, he took the losing side in the civil wars, and between rapacious creditors and Cromwell's dragoons his precious books and manuscripts were swept away. But he bore a brave front against calamity, and, turning to his pen for solace, wrote books of the strangest kind, whose very titles make one stare and gasp. These are now forgotten; but in his Rabelais he has, as his editor says, "added an imperishable piece to the sum of English masterpieces."

—The violent protest of the most intelligent portion of the nation against the so-called Lex Heinze shows conclusively that the German people is still capable of rising in defence of its ideal possessions, that it has the courage to make its will known, and the power to check obnoxious legislation. This proposed law, which Prof. Virchow designates as "a symptom of that malignant disease, hypocrisy," would endanger free activity in art and literature, and, naturally, among the first to oppose it are the leading artists and men of letters. But all the higher vocations were represented among the thousands who met in the various cities to utter their indignation. Among the leading speakers in Berlin, Karlsruhe, Munich, Freiburg, etc., were university professors, teachers of the gymnasia and other higher institutions, members of the legal profession (several of them Government officials), and representative men of all classes. The resolutions passed were in some cases couched in such violent language that the President of the Reichstag refused to receive them on that ground—which did not lessen their effect in the country. At Munich one of the results of the agitation was the formation of a "Goethe-Bund" (with the venerable Paul Heyse as President), whose purpose is "to protect the freedom of art and science in the German Empire against attacks of every kind . . . by the use of all legal means." In that art centre 1,000 painters and sculptors signed a declaration of their own, besides joining in the vigorous protest of the people at large. It goes without saying that the legal code of the Empire is not lacking in provisions forbidding the sale, distribution, and exhibition of indecent pictures and literature; it is not the enforcement of existing laws that has aroused the people, but a proposed extension of them which would subject works of art to the censorship of an ignorant police. What the result of the passage of the measure would be is perhaps best indicated by an exhibit in a show window at Stuttgart, where the German flag waves over casts of the Venus of Milo and the Apollo Belvedere covered with black drapery.

—The study of ancient Japanese rituals, so patriotically begun and thoroughly accomplished during the eighteenth century by a noble succession of native Japanese scholars, and its substance reproduced in English, with original additions, by Mr. Ernest M. Satow (now British Minister in Japan) during the late seventies of this century, has been continued by Dr. Karl Florenz, Professor of Philology and German Literature in the University of Tokio. Dr. Florenz's paper on Ancient Japanese Rituals fills somewhat over a hundred pages in Part I., volume xxvii., of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, dated December, 1899, and just to hand. The delay in publication has been justified by the insertion in the text of illustrations, both plain and colored, which give a vivid idea of the simplicity and significance of the ceremonies still continued in the Imperial Palace and at certain Shinto shrines. These, as we can testify, are very impressive. It is very evident that, in Shinto, the idea of sin never advanced much further than that of outward ceremonial pollution. Incidentally, it is shown that in these rituals lay the germ of a system of criminal law, the quiet national development of which was obstructed by the introduction of the Chinese penal code of the Tang Dynasty, promulgated in Japan A. D. 701. Dr. Florenz also proves that this ritual system of purification, in many instances specially enacted and compulsory, was made the vehicle for a widely extended system of "squeezes" in the interest of oppressive and corrupt people, both in and out of office. The paper is very valuable as throwing light also on the various systems of witchcraft which in theory and practice are still so general among the common people, especially in the rural parts of the empire. Dr. Florenz's paper is characterized by profound insight and accuracy, joined with wide learning and mastery of the archaic as well as modern forms of the Japanese language. Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain contributes a note, with two fine illustrations, showing both the cock and the hen of the long-tailed variety of fowls in Tosa. This breed is believed to be at least one hundred years old. The body feathers, which sometimes fall off in moulting, reach the length of four feet, but the tail feathers, which do not moult, are from eight to eighteen feet in length. In Tosa, the price of a cock, with feathers under ten feet, is under ten dollars, and ranges, according to the feather's length, from fifteen to twenty-five dollars. A good hen can be bought for a dollar and a half. Kobe prices are higher.

GROSSETESTE.

Robert Grosseteste, Bishop of Lincoln. By Francis Seymour Stevenson. Macmillan Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 348.

The beauty of a little volume, entitled 'Historic Personality,' that appeared in 1893 may bring it to the recollection of some of our readers. Its author was this same Mr. Stevenson. It was a book to be confidently recommended to persons suffering from aneurism of the aorta, to whom the smallest excitement might prove instantly fatal. To our apprehension, and we actually read it, it was an examination of the efficiency of the different means which a modern reader can use in order to recover an idea of the personality—the characteristic mental flavor, if we may say so—of any historic figure. That the author devoted thought enough to that problem to write a book about it, even if it was not a remarkably vigorous production, before he actually undertook a biography, will certainly predispose his former readers to sit down to the present work with appetite; and from the Addisonian style of the earlier writing they will expect to find his pen now gliding along as smoothly as a canal-boat. In truth, it moves somewhat quicker now, without always stopping to choose a classical word. Expressions such as "Grosseteste was not popular with the King," the displacement by "state" everywhere of "assert," and the like, seem not to annoy the denizens of a humid isle whose sky is never very bright and where nerves grow rank. The pen is impelled by a purpose now, an animating one. The reader certainly cannot but become mightily impressed with the historic personality of this Robert of Lincoln, who, in the first half of the thirteenth century, when the conception of truth was but half-developed, had such a dominating sense of the reality of facts, especially of the deeper facts of human life, as to shake every man that came near him into earnestness and reverence. It is startling to come across in that age his two maxims, never to accept a sentence from an authority without taking account of its relation to the entire substance of the book from which it is quoted, and never definitively to accept any statement of natural fact without having tried the experiment to see whether it be really so. Very modern, too was his reply when accused of acting without precedent: "Every new thing that instructs and advances a man is a thing fraught with new blessing." His very style reflects his sense of truth, so weighty is it and so free from the exaggerations and flamboyancies of contemporary writing. Here is a fair specimen translated by Mr. Stevenson:

"I know that the perils of an exalted station are neither few nor inconsiderable. I know its pitfalls, how hard it is to repress pride, how rare is the sense of one's own weakness, how easy it is to feel contempt for others, how difficult to adapt oneself to the needs of the weaker brethren; it is the shadow of power, and the reality of servitude. I know also from experience, and still suffer from the knowledge, how many thorns there are in riches, how many occasions they afford for acting wrongly, how often they are misused, how true it is that they impoverish instead of enriching their possessors, and how those same possessors, who are really themselves owned by the wealth of which they are the reputed owners, find their intellects blinded and rendered torpid and dormant."

The see of Lincoln, to which he was soon after raised, was in those days one of the richest in Christendom.

In his early years, before the star of Albertus Magnus had culminated, he was acknowledged to be the greatest scholar and philosopher in Europe, pitiable as it is now to consider in what that pitch of learning consisted. He was a man of rare urbanity, refinement, and cultivation. All this must have disposed him to sympathize with the Benedictines and other monks, both as against the friars and as

against the secular clergy. The people, too, loved the monks, and he was sprung from the lowliest of the people. But, to his eye, the moral well-being of the commonalty of England was an object so immensely greater than any learning could be, whether in theology or in other science, that he seemed to the monks to be systematically persecuting them, so insistent was he that their duties to the common people should be done. He was sedulous to invite educated men to his diocese; and perhaps half-a-dozen cases might even to-day be specified in which he made allowances to young men from his private purse to enable them to take the course in theology at Oxford preparatory to receiving livings under him. The large amounts of such allowances are notable, by the way. He wished them not only to live, but to live respectably. Yet when William of Cerda replied to his invitation that he was giving a course of lectures in theology at Paris, and therefore could not come, Grosseteste, after praising his zeal for teaching, reminded him that "Our Lord said to the chief of the apostles, 'If thou lovest Me, feed My sheep,' not 'If thou lovest Me, lecture from a professor's chair to the shepherds of My sheep.' The pastoral office is of more importance than the professional." Matthew Paris hated Grosseteste with a true monkish hatred, letting slip no opportunity to tell an anecdote to his disadvantage. Yet the chronicler's reverence for the Bishop, and manifest sense of his superiority to other men, are the best possible evidence of the greatness of his personality.

Another respect in which Grosseteste was superior to his age was in not believing in the sanctity of squalor. He was a hearty friend to the mendicant orders—with the Franciscans, quite bound up from the time when they landed just as his more active life was beginning at fifty years of age. He had welcomed the Dominicans four years earlier. Nothing angered him more than to see a friar cutting a dash in fine raiment and luxury. He was well acquainted with poverty, and knew its sweet uses. But he equally knew the utility of the comforts of life. When the Franciscans built a house in Oxford, he vainly urged them to consider sanitary conditions. With all his inflexible sternness where the well-being of the people was attacked, and though he had proved himself man enough to return almost to penury from wealth upon a point of conscience that he held to be doubtful, he wished his clergy to live well, and expended the reservoirs of his tremendous energy to bring that state of things to pass. "Three things," he said to a Black Friar, "are generally necessary to salvation temporal—food, sleep, and good humor." He once borrowed the Countess of Leicester's cook, and, concluding that a good table was more important to his position than to hers, asked leave to retain the man permanently, to which she responded, like the great lady she was, that were her servants good enough she would rejoice at any opportunity of placing them all at his disposal. Having once occasion to impose penance upon an ascetic, he directed him to drink a cup of Burgundy, and told him that if he would often undergo the same mortification he would have a better ordered conscience.

His courage never found its limit. An accomplished diplomatist, he ever preferred an arrangement to a quarrel, but not always to the postponement of a quarrel. There can be little doubt, we think, contrary to Mr. Stevenson's opinion, that upon one occasion he bargained with the Pope that he, as Bishop of Lincoln, should favor and aid in the collection of an almost intolerable tax upon the English church, in return for a decision in his favor of a process before the papal court. We think there can be little doubt of this, for the reason that it is as plain now as it was then to all parties, that the decision would infallibly be rendered in favor of the one who offered the higher bribe. But the truth was that, notwithstanding the burden upon his clergy, and notwithstanding his intense disgust with a Pope and court that could comprehend no motive but cupidity, that which he agreed to do as a part of a bargain he would have felt obliged to do in any case, since the very existence of the papacy was in imminent danger from the atheist emperor, Frederic II. A little later, however, he drew up a scathing memorial setting forth, without extenuation or palliation, all the injury to the Church and the papacy worked by the iniquities of Rome. He appeared before the Pope and his chief counsellors, and caused this plain exposure to be read to their faces, leaving also copies of it on file. He well knew, of course, that he thus made a deadly enemy of every man who heard him except the Pope himself, who, though he was as bad as the rest, could easily see that his own bread was not buttered on the side of corruption. Nor was this by any means an isolated instance of his courage.

We cannot here mention other interesting traits now first brought before the general reader in this biography. Nothing at all is said about Robert's personal appearance. The author is even in doubt whether he had a large head or not, saying that a signature "Master Robert Grosseteste" seems to imply that it was a family name. He allows the insignificant fact thus inferred (if it be a fact) to obscure from his mental view the significant circumstance that two writers who had seen him many times, and one at least who may have seen him, took it for granted that Grosseteste was a personal appellation. If they were in error as to how he came by the name, their assumption all the more proves that his head was large, since they would otherwise certainly have inquired why he had been so called. It is inconceivable, for instance, that his devoted disciple, Roger Bacon, should have continued through the long residue of his master's life after first meeting him, and subsequently to his death, to style him "Robertus dictus Grosseteste"—"Grosseteste" being, in truth, merely his family name—unless there was something in his personal appearance to confirm Bacon in the erroneous impression that it was a to-name. The only other thing we learn of his person is that his body was frail. If Mr. Stevenson's reader begins by vaguely figuring him as a sort of Napoleon, he will have a rough-hewn image that, after a good deal of subsequent shaping, as acquaintance ripens, will represent pretty well his "historic personality." He was a natural master of men and an administrator with both *coup d'œil* and capacity for details. He went to the heart of every practical problem, and almost invariably managed to have his way, as far as the nature of things allowed. In his anger he struck terror into all around him, while he charmed whomsoever he wished to charm. On the other hand, he was no actor, but most intensely sincere; he was on his guard against applause, outward and inward; he accurately foresaw the natural course of events; he knew perfectly what things are desirable; and he lived to a ripe old age, which one can scarcely conceive Napoleon as doing.

Grosseteste's public career began with his elevation to the episcopate in 1235, when he was over sixty years old, and continued till his death in 1253. For this period Mr. Stevenson's narrative was compiled without much difficulty from a few books. No material doubt can hang over any part of it, and nothing of importance can well have been omitted. It is, therefore, not open to criticism, except in minutiæ. The part of Grosseteste's life before 1235 is mainly that of a scholar. It could be adequately treated only by a person critically versed in the learning of that age, after a diligent study of all the works of Grosseteste. Such treatment it still awaits. Moreover, in the present state of our information, a large proportion of the facts of this division of Grosseteste's life, including all the principal dates, must remain conjectural. We cannot think that Mr. Stevenson has used great logical power in drawing his inferences from the few data we possess.

SEVEN NOVELS.

Geber: A Tale of the Reign of Harun al Raschid, Khalif of Baghdad. By K. A. Benton. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

A Danvis Pioneer. By Rowland E. Robinson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Poor People. By I. K. Friedman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Kennedy of Glenhaugh. By David Maclure. New York: The Mershon Co.

Enoch Willoughby. By James A. Wickersham. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Deacon Bradbury. By Edwin Asa Dix. The Century Company.

The Harp of Life. By Elizabeth Godfrey. Henry Holt & Co.

There are two tragedies in the history of the Muslim world that still touch its heart to the deepest and thrill its imagination to the highest. The one is the death at Kerbela of al-Husayn, the Well-Beloved, slain in battle against hopeless odds, and now praised and mourned in a yearly passion-play. The other is the fall of the Barmecides, the horror of which has never passed from Islam or from the memory of Harun the Just. In the second, added to the horror, lies a mystery unread to this day. Harun himself said to his favorite sister, "If I thought that my shirt knew it, I would tear it in pieces." 'Geber' is Mrs. K. A. Benton's attempt to read this mystery. It is a woman's reading and may be true; it has an adequacy which none of the other suggestions approaches. We will not spoil the book by telling its secret here, for the story as a story can be well commended. It is true that the people in it "thou" one another overmuch, and have a large utterance not by any means of the early gods. But the pictures are clear and bright; the figures, if we cannot say the characters, are distinct; the Oriental color is abundant, put on with the palette-knife and rubbed in with the finger. The life of the time in the court of

Harun and on the seething streets of Baghdad stands out distinctly, and, in general, truly, in spite of many astonishing assertions and a sweeping transfer of the manners and customs of Lane's Egypt of the nineteenth century to the Mesopotamia of the eighth. On history Mrs. Benton has laid a masterful hand. Zubayda dies before Harun, and many a long year before her time; the Princess Ulayya, a royal light-o'-love with an alternate turn for poetry and devotion fitting the blood of which she came, is marvellously changed to a still more charming figure than she was. Geber himself is in history but a name and a shadow of greatness, and needed little adjusting. Still, he hardly had among his books "a manuscript in Latin entitled 'Summa Perfectionis,' and below the title the name of Geber himself"; that is to make every man his own translator with a vengeance. Another equally strange lapse is Mrs. Benton's evident belief that the Greeks against whom Harun fought were heathens of the old world. Such things suggest in the author an undigested familiarity. She has read enormously in sources of a kind, noted freely, if sometimes confusedly, and retold picturesquely. Her book is worthy of high praise as a story and a reconstruction of a dead phase of life.

Mr. Robinson gives us in his new story another of his studies in the lore of old Vermont and Canada. Gran'ther Hill, who figures prominently in the predecessors of the present volume, is the hero, and we follow him from early manhood to the hale old age in which he is already a familiar and striking figure. Gran'ther's early days were exciting. He bought land in the New Hampshire Grants, and with a partner went forth into the wilderness, where he builded him a log cabin and tilled the ground, trapping wild creatures for food meanwhile. Finding that his title was not clear, and being jilted in the same moment by the girl he left behind him, he turned a widely roving blade. When the Revolution broke out, he "took a whack at ol' Ti under Ethan Allen," scouted on Champlain, fought at Bennington. On one occasion, after a heavy snow, he received an order from the "Overseer of Tories" to take ten "Effective men" to "march and tread the snow" in a certain road "to suitable width for a Sleigh or Sleighs with a Span of Horses on Each Sleigh and order them to return marching in same manner." It may be fancied with what unction Josiah Hill discovered his dearest foe among the prisoners and kept him wading in snow for three days—days of cooling reflection, one may fancy, to the forger of titles and stealer of sweethearts. Finally, the trapping, ranging, fighting Josiah—the war ended and he a Captain—settles down in Danvis Township under a Vermont charter and begins again a pioneer life, aided and abetted by the excellent Ruby, whom in one of his adventures he had been prompted to marry, in order to keep her from being scalped by Indians. "I don't want tu," the girl had gasped. "I do' want tu nuther," he had said, "but I got tu, an' so we got tu make the best on't." The best proved to be very good. Josiah made a home and founded a community, so that the little volume closes with a reglimpse of familiar Danvis, and its familiar characters, ever wecome and amusing. The matchless French Canadian, "Ann Twine," is met once more, a blessing to readers.

'Poor People' is a tenement-house chronicle. Its scenes lead hardly farther afield than from the ground floor to the top story and across the street to the saloon. The writer is blind to neither the romantic nor the sordid possibilities of the subject, and displays a varied assortment of lights and shadows with a sympathetic touch and a temper both shrewd and kindly. The technical quality of the book is less commendable than its sentiment, though it is by no means on the lowest plane of ability, and the reader is often surprised by epigrams and the uncommonplace.

The story of 'Kennedy of Glenhaugh' is an original and good one, dealing with a mystery which fell darkly upon a Scottish house in 1789, and which, before we are done with it, gives us a bad quarter of an hour with the mob in Paris, marching on Versailles to demand bread of the royal baker. The excellently printed tale, though not long, hangs fire a little in the telling; yet in a way this is a merit, since old-fashioned deliberation and cautious incredulity befit the narrator, the faithful, pious, canny family steward.

The Willoughbys were all peculiar. "The Willoughby 'queer' " was a term in common use, we learn. Certainly Mr. Wickersham has written a queer book about them. It concerns mainly the life of Enoch Willoughby and his family. "Birthright Quakers" as they were, deeply religious, seers of visions, wrestlers with the Spirit, they were so strongly under the sway of unseen influences that, for Enoch at least, it was a step rather than a change to become a Spiritualist. The story, for the rest, deals with the distresses, agonies, and pangs of his family for him and for themselves, in the long struggle between the old faith and the new sect. Not that they themselves recognized any incompatibility between the two, but that the body of Quakers could hardly take the same view of the matter. Therefore it became a question whether to take on the reproach of being "Bigoted Christians," or "Sorcerers" and "Necromancers." Matters are complicated by the love affair of Lyddie, Enoch's sister-in-law, Quakeress and medium, with the son of the head of the meeting; but in the end the characters divide evenly, and peace settles upon a sorely rent family, whom hallucination had well-nigh betrayed and persecution had well-nigh destroyed. The author tells his story as one who, like his hero, is intimately sympathetic with the best in both Quaker and Spiritualistic creeds. It is evident that, with Enoch, if he must choose, he would let his name be erased from the book of church membership rather than deny the truths of Spiritualism. While his book, considered as a novel, is rude, crude, and tedious, there is yet a sanity and kindliness in his presentation of the subject not always manifest in the literature of the Spiritualist sect. Nor, for all his sympathy, is the writer without keen horse-sense anent his topic. "Thee feels thyself above people just as much as any one does, Enoch," says his wife Hannah, "only they are different people in thy case." And the young son James writes: "Sometimes when Mother and I think how he spends his time working for other people, he seems to us more like Jesus than anybody we ever knew; . . . and then . . . we just get to hating him, and Mother declares he is bringing a whole raft of good-for-nothing men and women about the house and tracking up the floor for no manner of any good, and sometimes I believe in him and sometimes I don't." On the whole, this is a book of some power, and assuredly is unusual in treating its leading doctrine with both attachment and candor.

'Deacon Bradbury' is another novel in which the religious perturbations of an excellent man form the motive. The type is a more familiar one than the other, namely, the New England Congregationalist, to whom the visions of an Enoch Willoughby would have been anathema maranatha. The loss of confidence in an only son, aided by a touch of theologic scruple, drove Nathan Bradbury into a state of evangelical prostration, and he withdrew in all reverence from church fellowship. The story is compounded of his doubts and of the circumstantial evidence in the case of his son's supposed crime. The father's suspicions, the son's acquiescence, the behavior of the accessories, are all quite unnatural, but are told in a natural fashion which is almost persuasive. The village setting and dialect are life-like, and the dialogue between the Deacon and his wife, in particular, is admirably done. There is, besides, a certain originality in the dénouement, wherein the wonted alibi is assigned not to the criminal but to the crime.

'The Harp of Life' is a pleasantly written novel in very much the manner of the author's earlier story, 'Poor Human Nature.' There are the same ingredients—music, love, temptation, and a respectable issue out of all afflictions. There is no extremity of emotion in either the art or the sentiment of the story, but it takes the reader placidly along through its bright and dark places, interested if not profoundly stirred.

Our Rarer British Breeding Birds. By Richard Kearton. Cassell & Co.

This work is to be regarded as a supplement to an earlier one by the same author on 'British Birds' Nests: How, Where, and When to Find and Identify Them,' published in 1895. The present volume treats of about sixty species, mostly rare, and all additional to those contained in the foregoing, which this resembles in general character and make-up. The text relates almost exclusively to the nests, eggs, and breeding-haunts of the species as observed in the British Islands; and, in addition to the half-tone full-page plates of the nests and eggs of each of the species treated, additional plates are often given to show the general character of the breeding-haunt. The illustrations are wonderfully clear and effective, being similar in character to those of the 'British Birds' Nests,' so cordially welcomed and so highly praised for its artistic excellence. The brothers Kearton—for while Richard is the author, the illustrations are from photographs by his brother Cherry—have achieved a high reputation for their success and skill in a most difficult field, in which they were pioneers; and only those who have tried to achieve similar results can appreciate the difficulties they have so effectually overcome. Some idea may be formed of what it costs to collect the materials for such a work when it is mentioned that "the mere railway and steamboat travelling involved totals up to something like ten thousand miles, to say nothing of many and many a long and fruitless tramp across bog and fell." Of some of the birds whose nests

are here represented only a few pairs are known to breed anywhere in the British Islands, while others are restricted to a few localities in the Scotch Highlands or the Outer Hebrides.

The larger part of a long preface is given to a discussion of how best to protect the rarer species of British birds from extermination. Apropos of laws for the protection of birds Mr. Kearton says:

"The wild-bird protection laws are very like a beautiful padlock and chain hanging useless on a widely opened stable-door which it is nobody's business to lock; and I have no hesitation in saying that the only real good done in the United Kingdom in the way of bird preservation has been accomplished by private effort. As such private enterprise has now abundantly demonstrated in the case of the great skuas in Unst, ... the eider ducks at the Farne Islands, and the various species, including the lesser tern, at Wells, in Norfolk, absolute personal protection on the spot is the great desideratum."

He says further:

"Broadly speaking, all wild birds are the property of the state as species, and no man has the right to kill or rob the last representatives of a single one in danger of extermination. Modern conditions of life seem to have rendered it necessary that the same power that houses and takes such excellent care of our dead birds for the edification of the public [referring to the Government support of the South Kensington Museum], should also make some practical effort to conserve such of our living ones as are in danger of banishment."

He finally suggests that a committee of practical ornithologists should select a dozen of the species considered to be most in danger, and secure their protection during the whole breeding season "by placing reliable watchers night and day upon their breeding ground." He concludes his plea by saying: "Let us not forget that we all owe posterity a debt, and that the deliberate doing of anything calculated to lessen its pleasures is a wicked responsibility."

We have in this country laws which, if enforced, would do much to save such of our wild birds as are approaching extinction, but they justify Mr. Kearton's simile of the beautiful padlock and chain on the open stable-door, which no one will close and lock; and our own most active bird protectors have also reached the conclusion that the only way to save the rapidly disappearing species, like the terns and gulls, is to provide a paid patrol, through private subscriptions for the purpose, for the protection of the birds on their breeding grounds.

Malay Magic. By Walter William Skeat. with a preface by Charles Otto Blagden. Macmillan Co. 1900.

Those who see in the silliness of the savage the key to the secret of the adult's myths will welcome gladly this handsome volume. All the mental monstrosities of the Malay are here registered with loving care, and the eager reader can learn at first hand (for the author is a civil-service veteran of the federated Malay states) how the Malay makes incantations, what gods he worships, what ghosts he fears, and what ceremonies attend his birth, adolescence, marriage, and burial. Constant reference is made to other authorities, both special, such as Crawfurd's 'History of the Indian Archipelago,' and various essays in the several journals of the Royal Asiatic Society, and general, such as Frazer's 'Golden Bough' and Tylor's 'Primitive Culture.' To those conversant with the language, an appendix furnishes the original text of the charms, and is in other respects a not unimportant addition to a work that has been the outcome of years of careful and profound study. The book is well illustrated with original photographs of idols and wizard-paraphernalia.

For the main purpose of the book it is perhaps debatable whether the superstitions here reported are of as great value as they at first appear. Neither the conscientiousness nor the ability of the author can be doubted; but in making use of the matter as an original source of folklore, it must constantly be remembered that the Malays have been influenced by Hindu and Arabic literature. This may be known not only from the fact that their literature has been indebted to the 'Râmâyana,' a Sanskrit epic, but even from the still unchanged names employed in their cosmological myths. Thus, a "Malay folk-tale" says that "God girt the earth with a great mountain, Bukit Kof; but Yajuj and Majuj are peoples who are boring it through. Besides the mountains of Kof, there is a central mountain called Mahameru," etc. We need go no further. Bukit Kof is the Arabic Kaf, the Caucasus; Yajuj and Majuj are Gog and Magog; Mahameru is the Sanskrit Maha Meru or Great Meru, the central mountain of the world. But if Semitic and Aryan elements are so blended in the loftier speculations of the Malay, in his home life he has retained much that is original, though how much it is impossible to say. Thus, the soul is a thumbkin, which goes about in sleep, corresponding exactly in shape, proportion, and even in complexion to the body it has left. But this is precisely the Hindu idea, even to the size "big as a thumb" found in both the Hindu and Malay descriptions. Is it an original Malay or borrowed Hindu idea? Again, we find the exact counterpart of Theocritus's sympathetic magic, wax-image witchery. This may be independent; it is a superstition found widely enough to warrant such a hope in the breast of the folklorist. But, on the other hand, one of the "left-hand" rites of the Hindus consists in "shadow-cult," which is exactly the same shady practice of sticking thorns into an image for the same purpose. There is, in fact, a mass of these superstitions of the Malay which might have been registered in the same words, names changed, and labelled Hindu Magic, such as the charms against men-tigers and ill-omened birds, or against spirits called Bota (which are indeed nothing but the Sanskrit Bhûts, 'spirits') and Raksasa (the Sanskrit Rakshasa, 'harmful spirits'). The latter, by the way, are also called gasigasi or gegasi and gargasi, interesting forms of reduplication as compared with those in Sanskrit. So with the fabulous birds Gerda, Jintayu, and Chandrawasi, of which the first two are certainly and the last is probably of Sanskrit origin. If Hindu and Arabic influence is so palpable as in this charm (of which only the first and last verses are given)

Ho, Raja Guru, Maharaja Guru,
Betwixt me and you
Division was made by Adam,

how are we to tell when and where this influence ceases? But, with this query constantly in mind, one may read with interest and profit the charms and ceremonies which the author describes minutely and at length. The book contains at least the best and fullest account of Malay superstitions. As such it is a treasure of old beliefs, which already in some cases are passing away or are becoming modified through foreign intervention. Wizards who kill, for example, are no longer killed in turn, as they should be, and much else that was usage is now only tradition, so that Mr. Skeat has done a real service to the science of comparative animism in making his collection.

An Old Family: or, The Setons of Scotland and America. By Monsignor Seton, member of the New York Historical Society. New York: Brentano's. 1899. 8vo, pp. 438.

This book, compiled by the Rev. Robert Seton of Jersey City, does indeed record the history of an "old family." The Setons are one of the famous families of Scotland, with a pedigree reaching back to traditionary times, for Scottish records are sadly defective, but accepted by genealogists. Sir Richard Maitland of Lethington, Knt., who wrote the 'History of the House of Seytoun' to the year 1559, traces several generations of knights of the name prior to Christell or Christopher, who was a staunch supporter of King Robert Bruce, and who married Christian, the sister of that monarch. He was captured by the English, and hanged, drawn, and quartered as a rebel. His son, Alexander Seyton, received from his uncle, King Robert, a charter erecting his lands into a free barony. His descendant George, sixth Lord Seton, was in 1557 Governor of Edinburgh Castle, whose son Robert, seventh Lord, was by King James VI. made Earl of Winton, November 10, 1600. The grand title of Lord Seton was merged in the title of Winton, and five Setons bore it. George, the fifth Earl Winton, was about thirty-six years old when the "rising" of 1715 took place, and of course he joined the Pretender. He took arms, and at Preston surrendered, with some fifteen hundred others, noblemen and commoners, and was sent to London. On January 10, 1716, five noblemen, the Earls of Nithsdale, Winton, and Cornwall, Viscount Kenmore and Lord Nairn, were impeached, tried, and condemned. Winton escaped from prison, and seems to have gone to Rome, where he is said to have died December 19, 1749, unmarried, though a claimant to his honors appeared early in this century.

Thus expired the honors of the name of Seton, which very curiously obtained public recognition by a random stanza about Mary Seton, daughter of George, the sixth Lord Seyton, one of Queen Mary's "four Maries," and by the matchless eloquence of Sir Walter Scott in his novel of 'The Abbot.' But the male line did not then cease. Robert, eighth Lord Seton, and first Earl of Winton, besides his heir, the second Earl, had a son Alexander Seton, by his wife Margaret, daughter of Hugh Montgomery, third Earl of Eglinton. The male line of the Montgomerys died out in 1612, and the titles and estates devolved by entail, in right of his mother, on Alexander Seton, who took the name and arms of Earl of Eglington. This line of Setons in the male line still exists, the Scotch title having been augmented by the title of Earl of Winton in the United Kingdom in 1859, now held by George Arnulph Montgomerie, since 1892, fifteenth Earl.

Other examples can be found of offshoots of this famous race still surviving under other names, as inheriting other honors, but

we are not writing a Scotch chronicle. The reader is respectfully referred to a 'History of the Family of Seton during Eight Centuries,' by George Seton, Advocate, M.A. Oxon., Edinburgh, privately printed by T. & A. Constable, Printers to her Majesty (1896, pp. 1,079, 8vo, 2 vols.), one of those stupendous genealogies possible only where wealth is at the service of taste and knowledge. In these magnificent volumes the record of the entire family is to be found, and it is one to rejoice the heart of every one with a drop of Seton blood in his veins. The book under notice is, of course, but a mere subsection of the great book, interesting only so far as it may give the American branch of the family. We regret to say that it has not been executed with the exactness or fulness that might be desired.

The author claims that his ancestor represents the oldest cadet line from the main branch, viz., that of Seton of Parbroath, which was established about the middle of the fourteenth century. The record seems to be reasonably clear until about A. D. 1600, when George Seton was in possession of Parbroath. Our author (p. 197) writes that about A. D. 1607 George seems to have quitted Parbroath and to be occupying premises in the rectory of Dysart in Fifeshire. He was twice married, first to

"Jean, daughter of Henry, Lord Sinclair, by whom he had issue, but nothing special is known of the children, who were living with their mother at Dysart in 1609. They must have died young. His second wife was Isabella, daughter of George Seton of Cariston, great-grandson of the sixth Lord Seton, by whom he had two sons, James, who died in Spain unmarried, and Robert, who is last heard of near Hawick in Roxburghshire, where he married the daughter of a gentleman of the neighborhood, name unknown, and had a son called James, of whom hereafter."

Here our reverend author interposes other matter, and, on p. 239, resumes with

"James Seton, Esq. He succeeded his father Robert in the representation of the Parbroath branch of the family, and settled in London, where he married Margaret Newton. . . . He had one son and two daughters [John, Mary, married Dr. William Robertson, Margaret, married a Dundas]."

James Seton, the father of the last named, "was murdered in a rising of the slaves at Cape Français, San Domingo, while on a voyage to the West Indies with the intention of settling there and sending for his family."

John Seton, born in 1712, married his cousin Elizabeth Seton of Belsies, and had two sons and five daughters, viz., John, died unmarried at Barbados, 1768; William; Isabella, wife of Sir Thomas Cayley, Bart.; Jane, married Sir Walter Synnott, Knt.; Elizabeth, wife of Robert Berry and mother of Walpole's famous friends Agnes and Mary Berry; Margaret, married Andrew Seton of New York; Mary, wife of John Wilkes of New York; and Barbara, who married George Seton, an officer in the East India Company's service.

William Seton, son of John, was born in London, April 24, 1746, and in 1763, at the age of seventeen, emigrated to New York to push his fortune. He married there successively two sisters, daughters of Richard Curzon of New York, was a notary and a merchant, and died June 9, 1798, at New York. By his first wife he had four sons and three daughters, and by his second wife two sons and five daughters, nearly all of his large family living to be married.

The oldest son, William, jr., was born at sea in 1768, was a merchant in New York, and married Elizabeth, daughter of Dr. Richard Bayley of New York. After his death she became a Catholic, and her oldest son, William Seton, born in 1796, was the father of Monsignor Robert Seton, author of the book under review, born at Pisa, in 1839. He was ordained priest in 1865, and in 1867 named prothonotary apostolic, and was the first American raised to the Roman prelature.

It is not necessary to trace the later members of the family, all well known and valued, but we must say that the pedigree, as we have indicated, must be defective and needs strengthening. It is almost impossible to doubt the substantial truth of a pedigree fortified by so many references to marriages and other proofs, but the reverend author has certainly been very remiss in collecting proofs which ought to be still obtainable. The finer the pedigree, the more essential is the proof. We must say that no judicious editor would rest satisfied with Sir Bernard Burke's perfunctory endorsement herein printed.

The history of the American branch of the Setons is very interesting, and is quite fully set forth. It will be noted that one entire line reverted to the Catholic faith.

The Theætetus of Plato: A Translation, with an Introduction. By S. W. Dyde. Glasgow: MacLehose & Sons. 1899.

The "Theætetus," like the "Sophist," which is its sequel, is one of a group of Platonic dialogues that by no means appeal to the general reader. To all but the student of Greek philosophy, Platonism stands for the sort of poetical mysticism which one finds in the 'Symposium' or the ethical discussions of the 'Republic' and the minor dialogues—"which whoso knoweth not to be flowers of poetry, did never walk in Apollo's garden." There are few poetic flights or fancies in the "Theætetus"; the scientific tendency is uppermost throughout; here and there, however, Plato allows himself a digression, and many of his readers will agree with Theodorus, one of the characters of the dialogue, who "liked the digressions better than the arguments, because he understood them better."

One of the chief peculiarities of the dialogue is that, in it, although Plato is, as usual, giving a dramatic lesson in logic to the youth of the hour, his main preoccupation is a criticism of the doctrines of two great pre-Socratic philosophers, Heracleitus and Protagoras. The youth, Theætetus, being asked to define "knowledge," said it was sense-perception; he should rather have said that sense-perception is one form of knowledge (ἐπιστήμη). Socrates, having easily put his logic to confusion, proceeds to identify the definition given with the famous dictum of Protagoras, "Man is the measure of all things." Moreover, the theory that knowledge is sensation can be shown to rest on the Heracleitean doctrine of perpetual flux (πάντα ῥεῖ), which does not admit of a theory of being; "everything," say the followers of Heracleitus, "is becoming" (πάντα γίγνεται). There was a certain unfairness in thus confronting Heracleitus and Protagoras and in assuming that they could both be refuted by the same argument. This perhaps arose from Plato's strong ethical repugnance to the form of materialism known as the doctrine of relativity. To him, abstract general notions were the ultimate reality; their foundation must be in the mind. Socrates characteristically leads Theætetus to an emended and apparently satisfactory definition of "knowledge" as "true opinion with an account of the object," only to reject it as insufficient, as was the case with all absolute definitions in Plato, at the close of the dialogue. The three main topics debated are the definition, Idealism and Causation; and the whole discussion is an admirable illustration of Plato's psychology and logic.

One of the greatest services that Prof. Campbell has rendered to scholarship is his edition of the "Theætetus." His introduction, supplemented by Jowett's Essay, leaves little to be desired in the way of exposition of the difficulties of a most difficult dialogue. On the seventy-eighth page of his introduction, Mr. Dyde endeavors to outline Plato's dialectical method, and to show that it involved three stages, all of which are illustrated in the "Theætetus," viz., a criticism of ordinary opinion, a criticism of Sophistic doctrine, and a positive account of reality. The first chapter, entitled "Plato's Style and Method," strikes us as somewhat thin. The three chapters succeeding, on Plato's relation to Protagoras, to the Protagoreans, and to the Sophists in general, make up a clear and thoughtful introduction to the "Theætetus" and to parts of the "Sophist." In his description of the arguments used, Mr. Dyde missed an opportunity of drawing some analogies from modern philosophy and psychology. Moreover, he might have pointed out that, whether intuitively or as the result of physical investigations, Plato in the "Theætetus" seems to have realized certain physical truths which we regard as peculiarly the discovery of modern science, as, for instance, that light is the result of movement; in 153 A we have the explanation of heat as a mode of motion; in 153 D we are told that color does not belong to the object, nor to our eyes.

Mr. Dyde's translation is intended for the general student of philosophy rather than for the classical scholar. It is, on the whole, faithful enough, though too often it is merely a paraphrase of the Greek, as in 180 D. In 153 B ἕξις is first translated by the inappropriate word "fashion," and in the next sentence is altogether evaded; in 164 A Mr. Dyde translates: "Any one might be led to more glaring contradictions than these, unless he paid attention to the terms which are ordinarily used in affirmation or denial"; this is to take ῥήμασι as the antecedent of ἢ τὸ πολύ . . ., whereas grammar and the sense of the passage alike point to μὴ προσέχων as the antecedent. This point is noteworthy from the fact that Campbell himself misread the meaning of the sentence, and has a misleading note implying that Plato is here commending freedom from punctiliousness with regard to terms in an argument. On page 17 Mr. Dyde quotes a line of Browning in support of the statement that Euripides was the pupil of Protagoras; of course he must mean the note as an illustration merely, but in its present form it lays him open to the derision of the Germans. He occasionally startles the reader with metaphors rather unhappily chosen, *e. g.*, "Observers of society nestle inside of Plato" (p. 8): "Phi-

losophy entered this long controversy much like the lumps of meat which were thrown into the valley described by Sinbad . . ." (p. 72). On p. 54 his remark that Plato's Theory of Ideas might be called the "Song of the Open Road" is still more bewildering. The accents, notably on p. 22, need revision.

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Bennett, E. N. Christianity and Paganism in the Fourth and Fifth Centuries. London: Rivingtons. 2s. 6d.
Byron, Lord. Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. Cassells. 10c.
Colton, A. Bennie Ben Cree. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Cowper, W. The Task: A Poem in Six Books. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Crane, Elizabeth G. Sylva. New York: A. D. F. Randolph Co. $1.
Dresser, H. W. Living by the Spirit. Putnams.
Eley, C. K. The Cathedral Church of Carlisle. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 60c.
Engels, F. Socialism, Utopian and Scientific. (New ed.) Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Fuller, Dr. E. Diseases of the Genito-Urinary System. Macmillan. $5.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Voice of the People. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Godfrey, Elizabeth. The Harp of Life. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Goodspeed, Prof. G. S. Israel's Messianic Hope to the Time of Jesus: A Study in the Historical Development of the Foreshadowings of the Christ in the Old Testament and Beyond. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gray, G. B. The Divine Discipline of Israel. London: Adam & Chas. Black; New York: Macmillan.
Halsey, F. A. The Use of the Slide Rule. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.
Hemenway, M. Passengers. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Hobson, J. A. The Economics of Distribution. Macmillan. $1.25.
Holland, C. Marcelle of the Quarter. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Ingram, J. K. Outlines of the Story of Religion. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Johnston, Prof. H. P. The Storming of Stony Point. New York: James T. White & Co.
Kaisenberg, M. von. The Memoirs of the Baroness Cécile de Courtet. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Lloyd, N. The Chronic Loafer. New York: J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.25.
Morley, Margaret W. Down North and Up Along. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Parkin, G. R. Edward Thring, His Life, Diary, and Letters. 2d ed. Macmillan. $2.
The Waters of Edera. By Ouida. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Thilly, Prof. F. Introduction to Ethics. Scribners. $1.25.

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378 Wabash Ave., Chicago.

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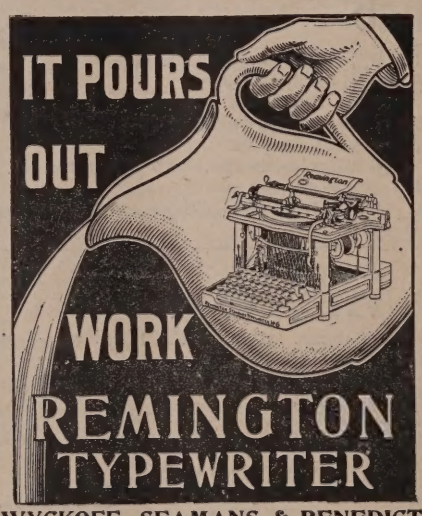

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 26, 1900.

The Week.

"The insurrection in the Philippine Islands has been overcome." Thus opens the resolution on the subject of our possessions in the East which was adopted by the Republican State convention that met in this city last week. "Last week has been one of the bloodiest of the war since the first day's fighting around Manila"—that is, since early in February of last year. Thus opens a half-column dispatch from the Associated Press correspondent in Manila which was published on Monday morning. That this startling statement is not an exaggeration, appears from the summary of the losses, which "authentic reports, mostly official," show to aggregate 378 Filipinos killed, 12 officers and 244 men captured, and enough natives wounded, a great majority of whom will die, so that "probably the week's work finished 1,000 insurgents." The Platt platform also declared that "the establishment of American authority in all the islands is proceeding to the contentment of their inhabitants." But the dispatch from Manila reports that "the insurgents have been active in almost every province of Luzon," and proceeds to give the particulars of many engagements. There seems to be only one way of meeting the difficulty of making the facts in the Philippines agree with the planks in Republican platforms, and that is, to restore the censorship at Manila in all its original rigor, and suppress all knowledge of the facts.

The carpet-baggers have suffered a serious reverse in the agreement of the conferees on the bill for the government of Hawaii that the Governor, judges, and certain other high officials shall be citizens of Hawaii. A number of good places were provided for by this bill, and the Senate proposed to leave them open for our own office-seekers. But the House has stood out for the principle of home rule, and has forced the Senate to accept its contention that citizenship shall be essential to appointment. Hawaii is thus profiting by the unhappy experience of the South after the civil war. We have known what carpet-bag rule means, and the odium of it still survives. Senators shrink from defending it for Hawaii, and even the President sees that it will not do for him to apply it in Porto Rico when there are many offices for which natives are better qualified than Americans.

The President's firm determination to steer clear of this abomination in Porto Rico is necessarily to be taken like his other heroic resolves—subject to alteration while Senators wait. Already it is announced in Washington that Mr. McKinley is unpleasantly surprised at the "pressure" for places in Porto Rico. It is all very well to deprecate carpet-bag government, but what are you going to do when imperious Senators come in with protégés whose carpet-bags are already packed, and who simply must have an office or see the said carpet-bags seized for board bills? Obviously, the purest love of civil-service reform and home rule for our new possessions must give way under such circumstances. As a matter of fact, everybody knows that, as Senator Hoar said in open Senate, the whole Porto Rico bill was conceived and enacted, not in the interest of the islanders, but in that of selfish politicians in the United States. What did the Senate mean by insisting upon the right to "advise and consent" to Porto Rican appointments, except that it intended to grab the patronage? That is what Senators understand by not shrinking from our new "responsibilities." They go now to the War Department and demand, not request, places for their friends in Cuba and Porto Rico. If anybody supposes that the military government in either island is let alone by the politicians, he is greatly mistaken. An army officer in Cuba lately said that the great trouble down there was that everything was being run from Washington with an eye to carrying the Ohio election.

The platform adopted by the Republican party in New York contained a rather premature boast that "civil government and liberal laws" have been provided for Porto Rico. So far is civil government from being provided that a veritable interregnum will follow the application of the law lately passed by Congress. The officers now carrying on the government of Porto Rico are legislated out of office, and in many cases they cannot be replaced before next November. So serious is the emergency that President McKinley has been obliged to send a special message to Congress, begging it to correct its blunders. He explains that there is not time to select proper persons to fill the vacancies, while if temporary appointments of the present officers should be made, great confusion would result. Many of these officers belong to our army, and if they should accept these temporary appointments, they would incur the penalty of losing their commissions. In order to overcome the difficulty, Senator Foraker has introduced and both houses have passed a joint resolution suspending the infliction of this penalty until August 1. This expedient may be the most convenient one available, but it is a bad precedent. The separation of the military from the civil administration is an important feature of our government, and serious evils will follow if the line is disregarded. Certainly there is no occasion to boast of establishing civil government in Porto Rico by means of a law which requires to be immediately amended, especially when the amendment proposed constrains us to suspend an important part of the civil government of our own country.

The discussion in the United States Senate concerning extra compensation for army officers who have been called upon to discharge civil duties in Cuba and Porto Rico, raised some very important questions. The pay of these officers has been fixed with reference to the conditions of service in this country, service ordinarily of an exclusively military character, and not very onerous. When they are assigned to civil duty in our outlying dependencies, the conditions are entirely altered, and there is much reason for increasing the compensation. The duties are heavier, the expenses of living and of maintaining official position are greater, and the climatic conditions are more unfavorable. But it is not to be expected that Congress will long tolerate a purely discretionary system of granting extra allowances. The resolution introduced by Senator Bacon was altogether proper. He asked for a report from the Secretary of War disclosing the names of all officers who have received greater compensation than that fixed by statute, the amount of such compensation, and the grounds for it, and the source from which it was obtained. As the Revised Statutes most explicitly forbid the payment of any compensation for any service or duty whatever, except what is specifically appropriated, it is evident that some action by Congress is called for. The debate in the Senate disclosed the fact that very considerable allowances had been made to a number of army officers, without any pretence of statutory authority. The responsibility for these payments is said to be laid by Secretary Root on the shoulders of ex-Secretary Alger, a circumstance which will incline the public to regard the practice with increased suspicion. As Senator Bacon observed, this "blossoming of the imperial idea" may easily become "the defective and rotten fruit of Imperialism."

The position of the Administration is that these extra-legal payments are not in violation of statute, because they have been made out of the revenue of Cuba. As Gen. Corbin observes, we are in Cu-

ba under a military government, which knows no law except the behests of the President and the Secretary of War. Our Governor-General occupies the palace formerly used by the Spanish Governor, and the "etiquette of the country" requires that he should live in similar state. The Cubans, it is said, expected it. They were sensitive about the attentions paid to them, and it was necessary not to wound their feelings. As the Spanish Governors maintained their state out of the Cuban revenues, our military authorities followed that precedent. It needs little argument to prove that the practice is an evil one. It means the exploitation of the Cubans for the benefit of their foreign rulers, and that was one of the enormities of the Spanish colonial policy which made our people feel that such misgovernment should be terminated. Instead of terminating it, we have continued it; and while our rule may be now less expensive than that of Spain, there is nothing in our laws to prevent it from absorbing more and more of the Cuban revenues. These revenues not only are applied to the compensation of army officers, but are used, to some extent, in paying restless and dangerous Cubans not to make trouble. The whole system needs to be promptly and thoroughly overhauled. Congress should provide such additional compensation to our army officers as is just, and it should provide it out of our own revenue. We have undertaken to prepare the Cubans for self-government, but our first lessons are of a corrupting tendency. Secretary Root said in his report that the revenues of Cuba have been treated as a trust fund for which the United States is accountable to the people of Cuba. That is the proper view to take, and it follows that the rules applicable to the management of trust funds should be enforced by our Government.

The report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections in the case of Senator Clark of Montana is an overwhelming indictment of the methods by which he obtained his election. No charges of direct bribery are made against him, and none were needed. His agents were guilty of bribery and of attempts to bribe, and Mr. Clark is responsible for their acts, whether he was personally cognizant of them or not. What he must have known of was the existence of a stringent statute passed by the Legislature of Montana in 1895, which statute he grossly violated. Under this law, the amount to be expended by any political committee, or by any candidate for office, and especially a candidate for the office of United States Senator, is limited to $1,000 in any one county, with an additional allowance of $1,000 for specified personal disbursements. With this statute staring him in the face, Mr. Clark gave to a committee organized to promote his election unlimited authority to spend money, which he agreed to furnish, the estimated amount required being at least $35,000 to secure the State convention, and $75,000 for the Legislature. Mr. Clark admitted making payments to the amount of $139,000 through his son to the members of this committee and others, besides some $15,000 to special agents. None of the members of this committee or their assistants made the sworn returns required by law, nor did Mr. Clark himself make any return. In addition to the direct payment of money, there were numbers of suspicious transactions, which furnished cumulative evidence of guilt. A majority of the Senate committee think that an attempt was made to corrupt the Supreme Court by Mr. Clark's agents; but he may be allowed the benefit of a doubt on that point. Perhaps the most practical lesson of this affair is that corrupt-practices acts are occasionally efficacious. They are seldom enforced in this country, at least under the jurisdictions where they are created, but this case shows that they may be invoked in unexpected quarters.

The amendments of the Hepburn Nicaragua Canal bill agreed upon on Friday were apparently intended to do two things. One was to steal Democratic campaign thunder; the other to avoid the appearance of openly flouting the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. In neither respect can the attempt be considered successful. To substitute the vague word "protect" for "fortify," is too transparent a trick. If protect does not mean fortify, then the Democrats will ring the changes on Republican cowardice, and proceed to raise a clamor to high heaven about the need of building a canal (for campaign purposes purely) and fortifying it in the teeth of men and devils. If protect does mean fortify, then the bill is as much in conflict with the treaty as ever. It is in conflict with the treaty anyhow, for in the first article of the Clayton-Bulwer instrument, now solemnly recognized by the President as in full force, we solemnly bound ourselves not to secure such "control" over an Isthmian Canal as the bill, even in its amended form, proposes to obtain. Hence the whole thing must be taken only as legislation of the bouffe order, which is not really intended to be pushed to enactment.

Senator Wellington of Maryland announces that he can no longer support the Republican party. He has been opposed all along to the acquisition of the Philippines, and cannot endorse the policy of the President regarding those islands. He was also opposed to the imposition of a tariff on Porto Rico. Recognizing the attitude of the Government toward our new possessions as the most important issue in our politics, he retires from membership in the Republican National Committee, and, indeed, from all affiliation with the party, so long as it is committed to what he considers the wrong course. The action is of little importance outside Maryland, and even in his own State Mr. Wellington has frittered away most of his former influence by the bitterness of his factional opposition to an element in the Republican party which has opposed him. He recently indulged in an outburst of wrath against ex-Gov. Lowndes, the leader of that element, which showed a pettiness of mind quite unworthy of a United States Senator.

The instant war with Turkey which broke out in the morning newspapers on Wednesday week, was evidently a little premature. It is now clear that President McKinley does not mean to resort to the *last* argument of kings without first trying the effect of some of those earlier in the series. Negotiation, official demand of payment, a time within which settlement must be made, the severance of diplomatic relations, an ultimatum—all these things must come before the big guns are set booming. It is safe to say that our Government will follow the regular course, and not begin by a bombardment of Smyrna. It is needless to go into the merits of the dispute, for the merits are all on one side. Turkey has confessed judgment. To Minister Straus alone the Sultan has made three solemn promises to pay the money now so far overdue, by way of indemnity to American missionaries. But as long as mere promises are accepted, the hard cash will never be forthcoming. Turkish procrastination beats Spanish dilatoriness hollow. The truth is that the Turkish Government has fallen into such a rotten and imbecile condition that it practically pays none of its debts except on compulsion. Its own army has to mutiny to get even its wretched pay. Turkish civil servants—even the Ambassadors in Europe—are left scandalously unpaid. A writer in the London *Standard* drew a pitiful picture, the other day, of the poverty-stricken condition of the families of some highly placed Turkish officials, so bankrupt is the Treasury, and so without initiative or honor the Government.

The amount of the indemnity claimed is but trifling—something less than $100,000, we believe. This sum represents far less than the actual loss incurred in the destruction of mission property; but it has been agreed upon as a satisfactory *amende*. Our Government has, as in duty bound, made the claim its own. If the Sultan had a proper sense of what American missionaries have done for the Turkish Empire, he would pay the damages ten-fold. Some

of the noblest and ablest men ever sent out by the American Board spent their lives in Turkey. Goodell and Schauffler in Constantinople, and Calhoun and Van Dyck in Syria, made simply enormous contributions to the material and moral as well as religious improvement of the people. The education made available to Turkish subjects in American missionary schools and in Robert College has been the breath of a new life. The Medical College in Beirut, conducted by Americans and turning out its native graduates every year, trained in modern medicine and surgery, has alone been such an incalculable benefit to the subjects of the Sultan that he ought to pay the whole cost of maintaining it out of the public funds.

Gen. Harrison illustrated, in his speeches at the Œcumenical Missionary Conference on Saturday, the delightful liberty, combined with dignity, which an ex-President may enjoy in this country. Indeed, he furnished a new reason for an honorable ambition to hold the Presidency—such privileges does that office confer upon the man who has left it. To command the respect and to have the ear of the people, and then to be absolutely free and untrammelled in what you say to them—one might be willing even to be President as a stepping-stone to this higher office of ex-President. It was, of course, Mr. Harrison's sly poking of fun at dignitaries which set the ripples of laughter running among his hearers. But in the serious part of his address—which so completely snuffed out President McKinley's—he also showed what a thing it is to be an ex-President. He made a really statesmanlike suggestion respecting the repression of the rum traffic among savages. There should be, he said, an international agreement among the great Powers to hedge it about in every way, or to suppress it outright, as had been done in the case of the slave trade. No man can question the obligation resting on Christendom to do something of the kind in the interest of those feeble races which "wither before the hot breath of the white man's vices"; but a President could not possibly say such a thing. We do not think Mr. Harrison himself could have said it when in office or a candidate. Imagine the horror of Mr. McKinley's managers if he should venture such an utterance! The Brewers' Vote would rise before their affrighted vision, and they would at once look around for a candidate who could keep a civil tongue in his head, as respects the liquor trade. Such plain speech is possible only in the case of a man who has won his liberty at the great price of having been President, and having ceased to be a candidate for reëlection.

The strike of the Italian laborers at the Croton dam seems now at an end. The cost of restoring order has been large, and the life of one man has been sacrificed, while the quarrel was intrinsically a paltry matter. As the strikers resorted to violence, there was nothing to do but to employ the force of the State to maintain order, and the action of the civil and military authorities has been prompt and effective. The killing of one of the militia, by whomsoever done, prevented the Italians from getting the sympathy of the public, and even if that deplorable event had not occurred, they would have had little countenance. They are a peculiarly friendless class. They are not citizens, and, having no votes, the politicians take no interest in their grievances. They do not understand our language or our institutions, and are ignorant of our laws. They do not belong to any labor-union, and are regarded with hostility by the members of the unions. They are disliked by laborers of other races, and occupy in every respect a disadvantageous and inferior position. They are not only uneducated, in the ordinary sense, but they are devoid of all training in the elements of self-government. Doubtless they have witnessed the success of strikes by other workmen, and have observed that popular support was given to strikers who prevented "scabs" from taking their places. The lesson has been an evil one, and has borne evil fruits.

Ex-Senator Hill pointed out a weak spot in the Republican record in New York when he spoke at Syracuse on Monday about the tendency of the dominant faction in the party toward centralization of power in the State Government. This tendency has been steadily growing since the revision of the Constitution in 1894, although various changes then made were advocated on the ground that they would promote the principle of home rule. One of the most important of these provisions is that which requires the submission of any special city bill to the authorities of that city (the Mayor in those of the first class, and the Mayor and the legislative body in others) for their judgment, and a repassage of the bill in case it should not be approved. The theory of this new system was that each city ought to have a right to express its opinion regarding such matters, and that the Legislature would be slow to disregard such opinion. In practice, however, as Mr. Hill says, "these provisions have proved utterly useless for any beneficial purpose, it unfortunately having been the uniform policy of the Legislature, from 1894 to the present hour, to overrule the wishes of the local authorities in connection with all such measures."

Lord Roberts's report on the Spion Kop affair, severely censuring Col. Thorneycroft, and reflecting seriously upon both Gen. Warren and Gen. Buller, is, in itself, only a routine matter, a part of the regular duty of the commander-in-chief. The astonishing thing is that it should have been published at the present time by the Government. How it can have anything but the most unhappy effect on the morale of the army it is difficult to see. It is one thing for the authorities to receive information discrediting officers in the field, but quite another to give it to the public while the men are still holding important commands. If there are bitterly quarrelling factions in the English army—if the higher officers are divided between the Wolseley camp and the Roberts camp, and if the Roberts men have now got Lord Lansdowne's ear, and are rubbing salt into the wounds of the Wolseley men by means of this surprising report—why, the strange course pursued may be intelligible, but must be held none the less deplorable. It was years after the Franco-German war before the German military authorities would allow the reports to be published exposing the misconduct of German officers at Gravelotte. Perhaps, however, Lord Roberts will say, as Gen. Grant said of his reference to Butler's being "bottled up" at Bermuda Hundred, that he did not think his condemnatory phrase would "attract attention"—"as this did," Grant innocently added, "very much to the annoyance, no doubt, of Gen. Butler."

The sum of £160,000 is not inconsiderable, and the Mansion-House fund for the relief of the starving people of India has reached that figure. Yet in 1897 a similar fund amounted to £470,000, and there were then on the relief works only 2,800,000 persons, while the number now exceeds 5,000,000. The relative amount of relief, therefore, so far as the English people is concerned, is less than one-fifth what it was in the former famine. Not only do the vast expenses of the South African war exhaust resources that might have been devoted to charity, but the warlike spirit is not favorable to the emotion of pity. An attempt was made in the House of Commons a few days ago to have the British Government use its resources in the relief of the Indian sufferers, but it was defeated by a vote of 155 to 72. The position taken by the Government was that the Indian authorities were able to deal with the problem. This position was supported by the figures concerning the Indian revenue. Had it not been for the famine, there would have been this year a surplus of £6,000,000, and, even as it is, there will be a considerable excess of revenue. Lord George Hamilton, speaking for the Indian Government, admitted that if it found itself unable to find food for all who wanted it, and work for all who came for it, it would be proper to apply to the Treasury for a grant.

SENATOR HOAR'S SPEECH.

Senator Hoar's speech in the Senate on April 17 was up to the measure of the occasion. It left nothing to be desired in the way of lofty sentiment, courageous expression, or determined purpose to apply the doctrines of American liberty to the people who have fallen into our hands as a consequence of our war with Spain. If he had done nothing else than voice the protest of the American people against the subjugation of the Filipinos, he would have earned great honor, but he has done much more. He has pointed out an alternative course in dealing with those islands which accords with the interests of ourselves and of the islanders, as well as with the principles of free institutions.

True, he had not far to go to find a feasible plan of securing peace with honor in the Philippines. It was only necessary to recur to the promise we made at the beginning of the war for the liberation of Cuba, that we would leave that island in the hands of her own people to work out their own salvation in their own way. No human being has ever produced any reason why the same rule should not be applied to the Philippines as to Cuba—no reason except the mercantile one of possible gain in exploiting their resources. In the forum of morals this is not an avowable reason, yet it has been, up to this time, the governing, if not the avowed, consideration in our treatment of the islands. The money to be made by holding them has been one of the impelling motives for retaining them. It was the same motive that inspired the ruling classes of Great Britain to hold the American colonies in the last century. Senator Hoar exposes it to the scorn and contempt of the ages at the same time that he offers his plan for putting a stop to bloodshed in the Philippines, and securing to the inhabitants thereof the right to work out their own destiny in the same way that other free peoples, including ourselves, have done in the past.

First, says Mr. Hoar, "I would declare now that we will not take these islands to govern them against their will." Nothing could be simpler than that, nothing easier, nothing more in accord with our lifelong republican teachings and all the doctrines, political and religious, that we have learned to hold dear. It would cost nothing to say those words. Notwithstanding all the reasons we have given those people to hate us, we know absolutely that if we should now pronounce such words, every gun would be laid down by the Filipinos. The flow of blood would cease. Our own men could come home—all except a mere police force to maintain order in the larger towns. Nor has the time gone by when such words could be spoken with honor. If it be true, as we are assured from day to day, that the rebellion is subdued and that naught remains but a few scattered guerilla bands, our military prestige is already vindicated. It is rather humiliating to talk of our military prestige in connection with the beggarly forces of Aguinaldo, as they are represented to have been; but if there be such a thing, we may fairly claim that it has been vindicated. We may affirm, too, that any more spilling of blood is unnecessary and wanton. Our pride, if we can call it such, in subduing these poor creatures, burning their huts, and driving them houseless into the swamps and the jungle, ought to be fully gratified without losing any more of our own men or killing any more of theirs.

The remainder of Senator Hoar's plan for making an end of these horrors and securing peace with an honorable fame embraces the policy of helping the Filipinos to form a stable government of their own, of inviting foreign Powers to join in an agreement that their independence shall not be interfered with, and, if necessary, of requiring that foreign Powers shall not so interfere. He would then leave them, in the not distant future, to work out their own salvation as other free peoples have worked out theirs, striking from our legislation the oath of allegiance to us and substituting another of allegiance to their own country.

Nobody can say that Senator Hoar's plan is impracticable. Anybody who says so must begin by tearing out of our own history the brightest page it contains. He must obliterate the sayings of our Revolutionary fathers, trample on our Declaration of Independence, and take George III. for an exemplar and a pattern instead of George Washington. Thus much Senator Hoar makes clear. His speech cannot be ignored by the Imperialists in the Republican party. Although he deprecates the success of the Democratic party, and looks for no help from William J. Bryan, and will not coöperate with them, his words will furnish no end of ammunition to them in the coming campaign. This is unavoidable. If Bryan and his party put themselves on Senator Hoar's platform and espouse his principles, the Republicans cannot complain, unless they avow the doctrine that all Republicans who refuse to trample on the principles of self-government are to be gagged and silenced, and only Democrats allowed to maintain and uphold them. If there be any who think that Senator Hoar ought to hold his peace for the party's sake, let them remember that the party has not yet spoken. Neither President McKinley nor Congress has yet uttered the decisive word. They have been throwing the responsibility backwards and forwards ever since the treaty with Spain was ratified; and the Spooner resolution, which is only a makeshift, and does not pretend to decide our future policy in the Philippines, is still pending in the Senate.

It remains to notice Senator Hoar's strange hesitancy to make a personal application of his burning words in defence of human liberty. His denunciation of Mr. McKinley's policy is vehement; his affection for Mr. McKinley's person seems unbounded. No wary divine was ever more careful to discriminate between sin and sinner. Of the course which the President has followed, and to which he has used every art to commit his party, Senator Hoar declared that it means "the abandonment of the principles upon which our government is founded." The reasoning which the President has publicly employed to justify our asserting sovereignty in the Philippines, Mr. Hoar pronounced " the doctrine of purest ruffianism and tyranny." Rising in crescendo, he affirmed that the President's gloss on the doctrine of the consent of the governed "would have been received with a burst of derisive laughter in hell, and Satan himself would have led the chorus." Yet Mr. McKinley remains, to the Massachusetts Senator, the "great President," who "holds a place in the affection of the people at large which no one of his predecessors ever attained in his lifetime."

This, we can but think, is an example of the American want of high seriousness in politics. It lends point to the charge of foreign critics that Americans are dowered with too fatal a gift of good-nature to keep their political life pure. Our anger in public affairs is truly a *brief* madness. The sun never goes down on our political wrath. A man who could get "mad," and stay mad for a year, over a political crime would be regarded not only as a prodigy, but as a nuisance. Now, whatever the excuse for the good-humored American way of never carrying political differences to the point of hurting anybody's feelings, it certainly represents a great departure from the stern and personal methods of the men who wrought out English liberty. We will not go back to the rude times when heads fell to emphasize condemnation of their owners' politics; but consider, as a typical case, the rupture between Burke and Fox. Fox sat by while Burke was pouring out his lava-flood of indignation at the English defenders of French Jacobinism, and was saying that his soul could no longer enter into their counsels. Fox started up anxiously. "But it does not mean an end of personal friendship?" "It does," flamed Burke; and the intimacy of years fell shattered. There was little of the amenities of life about this, but a good deal of sincerity. Calhoun, in his time, a sincere and lofty nature undoubtedly, refused to maintain personal relations with Seward and the other Republican Senators. "I will say good-morning to them," he said; "I will recognize them as Senators; but I will not familiarly associate with men whom

I believe to be plotting the ruin of the country." That was ugly; but how frivolous it makes the modern Senator look, wreaking the vocabulary of vituperation upon the political proposals of a colleague, and then going out to have a drink and a good laugh with him over the joke of it all!

We must remember that offensive personalities in politics are the only sure means of establishing responsibility; and responsibility is the breath of life of free governments. Nothing could better please President McKinley than to be called a blind agent of mysterious fate in all this break-up of the republic that has gone on under him. He has not the slightest reason to dread Senator Hoar's thunderbolts as long as they are aimed at McKinleyism, and not at McKinley. We have to get down to personality to find true causes; to fix real responsibility; and to show popular wrath where to strike. If a Senator is serious, and wishes to be taken seriously, he will not be as one that beateth the air about impersonal policy, when he has before him the man who knows his plain duty, and, knowing, dares not do it.

POLITICAL CHAOS IN THE SOUTH.

Three events last week served to call attention to the abnormal condition of politics in the greater part of the South. On Tuesday, April 17, a State election was held in Louisiana which was of the first importance, involving as it did not only the control of the executive and legislative departments of the Government for the next four years, but also the choice of two United States Senators. This was quickly followed by the death of Henry Demas, who had been for more than a quarter of a century the most influential negro politician in the Republican party of Louisiana. At Montgomery on Thursday the Alabama Republicans met in a convention which was a characteristic gathering of the party as it now exists in the Gulf States.

One sure feature of such a convention is a division into factions. No matter how weak the party may be, it is almost certain to split; the division sometimes going so far, as in Mississippi four years ago, that Presidential electoral tickets are run by each faction, when neither could poll as many as 3,000 votes. The convention at Montgomery was "split wide open" before any of the preliminaries were arranged, a representative of the Bingham faction having shot one of the Vaughan side in a quarrel about entrance to the hall in the Statehouse. Great confusion followed, a hundred pistols were drawn, and a brother of the wounded man fired at the latter's assailant as he ran for refuge to the Governor's room. The Governor at once ordered the hall cleared, and refused to allow either faction to meet in the Capitol or to speak on the grounds. Each set looked up a place outside, where rival delegations to the Philadelphia convention were chosen, two of the four from either faction being blacks, and Federal officials figuring on each list. "Each faction," reports the *Sun* correspondent at Montgomery, "declares that the other is a bolter, and each has about the same following in the rank and file."

For thirty years Demas had been a leading actor in scenes like this, in the neighboring State of Louisiana. He was the smartest politician that his race developed after it was given the suffrage, and as unscrupulous as he was clever. He became a member of the Legislature in the reconstruction period, and was conspicuous for his corruption from the first. As the paid agent of the Louisiana State Lottery in the Legislature, he received a stipend of $100 a month from that company for years, going regularly each pay-day to draw his money, besides having two lottery offices given him by the company, which paid him additional sums in commissions on the sale of tickets. He was a Republican member of the State Senate when the Governorship was in dispute between Packard, Republican, and Nicholls, Democrat, after the election of 1876, and was one of the four Republicans who finally abandoned the Packard Legislature and joined the Nicholls body so as to give the latter a quorum, receiving therefor $10,000. After the Democrats had come into power, his chief political resource was running the Republican organization, and dealing out the patronage when there was a Republican President. When the canvass for delegates to the Republican national convention in 1896 opened, he professed to be an ardent supporter of Mr. Reed, took money from the latter's friends to defray the expenses of the campaign, and wrote the Speaker a letter promising his support. Later, he "flopped" to McKinley, and openly boasted that he had "thrown" Reed, and would be rewarded therefor with a good Federal office. McKinley did his best to keep the bargain by appointing him Naval Officer at New Orleans, doing this during the recess of Congress in September, 1897, so that he held the office for some months; but Hanna was unable to secure confirmation of the nomination when it was sent to the Senate the next winter, and the unsavory record of his protégé was exposed.

Such a career as that of Demas and such a gathering as that of the Alabama Republicans show clearly enough why the party which they represent has never made any headway among the whites in that part of the country. Everything connected with its management is calculated to repel decent people. The candid outsider cannot wonder that one State after another has adopted a policy of amending its Constitution so as to secure the practical disfranchisement of the black race, as the first step toward the restoration of normal conditions among the whites.

But the surprising thing about this change, which has already been made in Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana, is that it does not produce the expected results. The election of April 17 was the first in the last-named State under the new Constitution, but although it was of the greatest importance, only a small proportion of the whites took any interest in it. The negro was practically disfranchised in Mississippi ten years ago. The last census showed more than 120,000 white males of the voting age. Yet in the Congressional elections of 1898 only about 27,000 votes were cast in the seven districts, and in the Gubernatorial election of 1899 the total was but little above 48,000.

In the old times, when only whites voted, Mississippi and Louisiana were divided closely between the two parties, the Whigs carrying Mississippi by about 2,500 majority in 1840, while the Democrats secured a margin of about 600 in 1848. Louisiana was recorded for the Democratic nominee in 1844 by about 700 majority, while the Whigs carried it by nearly 3,000 in 1848. One would expect party divisions once more to appear among the descendants of these men now that they can again divide without danger of "negro domination." But there is never any serious opposition to a candidate who secures the regular Democratic nomination; no rival for that nomination runs, although he might do so without any fear of the Republicans. When the Mississippi Constitution was under discussion in the Senate, nine years ago, Mr. Evarts remarked that it provided for "a desiccated suffrage." A leading newspaper of the State, the Vicksburg *Herald*, has more recently characterized the conditions which now prevail as a "surrender to party absolutism" which results in an "oligarchy." Louisiana seems to be tending in the same direction. Nothing so abnormal in election methods was ever before seen in the United States.

THE STEEL AND WIRE EPISODE.

Probably nothing will come of Representative Noonan's resolution that Congress investigate recent incidents in the conduct of the Steel and Wire Company. If there were reason to suppose that the Joliet works were closed simply and solely for the purpose of affecting the stock market and furthering "bear" speculations of the company's officers, then an investigation might lead to something definite. But the formal action of the company's directors on Friday shows that there were other reasons for such a shut-down. The Steel and Wire Company's trade has undoubtedly become congested through the attempt of its managers to maintain

a factitious range of prices. While almost every other iron product, including all the raw material of the Wire Trust, had declined since the rise of iron prices culminated last November, the price of nails and wire, the finished staples of this Trust, had actually been advanced.

The result of such an undertaking is inevitable. The experiment is merely the familiar "corner," in a more or less aggravated form, and no monopoly is complete enough to sustain it for any length of time. Nobody recognizes the truth of this principle more frankly than the really competent managers of the Trusts. Men who have gone into these undertakings neither as adventurers nor as gamblers, and who are familiar with the fundamental laws of trade, have repeatedly declared that in reasonable prices for its product, and in frequent reductions through economies in production, lies the true field of the modern Trust. Many go further, and assert that the Trust which ignores and violates this principle will only invite its own swift and sure destruction.

The case of the Steel and Wire Company sufficiently illustrates the correctness of this view. By the confession of its own management, the abnormally high prices maintained, wholly through the action of this company, drove off consumers in the nail trade by wholesale. The company waited for them to return through the necessities of trade, and went on manufacturing at full speed; but the consumers learned, as consumers almost invariably learn under such circumstances, that there were other quarters where their needs could be supplied. A different kind of nails, not manufactured by the Steel and Wire Company, was adopted by the former customers of the Trust, and the new article turned out quite as serviceable, or more so, for the builder's purposes.

"Overproduction," or, more correctly, "underconsumption," was the prompt result of the company's blind and unbusinesslike policy. To meet the serious trade congestion which ensued, only two expedients were available—to shut down mills and restrict production, or to cut prices to a reasonable level. The first of these expedients was, from a trade point of view, sure to be futile, since it did not touch the root of the trade embarrassment. It was, however, characteristically adopted by the officers whose previous policy had brought the existing trouble on their trade. Fortunately for the Steel and Wire Company, conservative interests still could demand a hearing. Friday's meeting of the full directors' board, so far from approving Mr. Gates's plan, reversed it instantly, recognized the situation, reduced prices, and ordered the reopening of the mills.

We suspect that this chapter of trade mismanagement is about as much as Congress would learn from an investigation. Whether the arbitrary level of prices for the company's products was or was not continued beyond even rational limits with a view to decoying the public into Steel and Wire shares, would be difficult to prove. Wall Street report—and on such points Wall Street information is often accurate—has insisted that members of the company's management were speculating for the rise some two months since, that they sold out their speculative holdings to outsiders at the high prices of three weeks ago, and that they then "went short" of their own stocks at the moment when the company's chairman gave out an interview announcing, in the most extreme and reckless language, the bad condition of the trade. These reports, which have received almost universal credence, are matters, we think, for the company's shareholders and directors to consider, as they must also consider the gross mismanagement of the company prior to last week's public scandal.

But how useless Mr. Noonan's proposed investigation would be may be judged from its author's grave discussion of the Stock Exchange's delinquencies. He declares his purpose of disclosing "the insufficiency of the rules and regulations of the New York Stock Exchange in relation to the most important part of the financial system—the immediate market for securities." We presume Mr. Noonan would have the Stock Exchange insist, before a bid or offer is permitted on its floor, that the broker certify whether his client is or is not an "insider" in the company whose shares are being traded. To no other than this nonsensical conclusion could the statement point. The truth is, of course, that no Stock Exchange can carry its authority further than to insist that sales and purchases be made in good faith, and with actual deliveries, and to require, as the New York Exchange now does, that every security admitted to its list shall first submit a complete and comprehensive statement of the company's condition, supplemented, more or less frequently, by similar reports.

It is not the Stock Exchange, and not Congress, which can prevent or punish the flagrant wrongdoing which last week's events have brought to light. President Hadley's idea of social ostracism for officers of Trusts who evade their proper responsibilities lacks a good many elements of practicability; but the idea of ostracism, on the part of investors, for the securities of companies thus mismanaged, is altogether feasible. Something of the sort exists already in the case of the "industrials." From time to time, this ostracism is practised even by banks which lend on corporation securities. There are signs in the money market that it is now being practised again in the stocks affected by the recent scandal. For ourselves, we regard this expedient as the most logical as well as most efficient of correctives, where false methods of policy have been practised by a company. Corporation history is full of chapters dealing with the wreck of enterprises intrusted to such leadership. The problem is not at all new in American finance. The analogy which the community has traced at once, between the present 'inside" speculators in industrial shares and stockjobbers in the railway management of a generation ago, may profitably be extended to the companies. Almost without exception, the railway corporations, in which these older wreckers held control, have since passed through the bankruptcy courts as a direct result of the mischievous work of twenty or thirty years ago. The brood of industrial companies of 1898 and 1899 are, in the opinion of experts, far more vulnerable to the strain of trade reaction than were the railway enterprises of 1870 and 1880. Their need of honest and competent management is proportionately greater. It will be prudent, to say the least, for such conservative people as are already involved in the Steel and Wire Company, and in other companies under similar auspices, to look to their own interests before the banking and investing public is forced to extreme measures.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

PHILADELPHIA, April 21, 1900.

The Society has not often had a more successful Meeting than that which has just terminated. Of the unusually large number of papers presented (over fifty in all), several touched upon a domain rarely entered hitherto by members of the Society, that of modern conditions in language and custom in the Far East. Doubtless political events had something to do with this, as such papers centred about the Philippines. Some of the problems which we have to face in these new possessions were discussed in an instructive study by Prof. Haupt, while Prof. Gottheil gave a more particular account of the Mohammedans found in the islands. It is to be hoped that this modern phase of Oriental life will in future call forth more special studies of the same sort; and in furtherance of this idea the Society recommended at this Meeting a separate section for the study of modern Oriental languages and institutions.

Further papers of like character, though not dealing with the Philippines, were those of Dr. Yohannan on the dialects of modern Syria, and a very interesting account of Islam in Morocco, by Dr. Talcott Williams. A pleasant feature was added by two of the members recently returned from missionary work in India, who laid before the Society some practical observations drawn from their experience as Christian teachers; Dr. Abbott of Bombay giving an account of the mission there, and the special requirements of missionary labor, and Rev. Mr. Ewing analyzing the tenets of the various Samâjas in the Punjab.

The gap dividing the Semitic from the Aryan scholars was bridged by a paper by

one of our new members, Mr. F. R. Blake, who read a study of the rites found both in Babylon and in India, while Dr. Paul Carus, taking a wider course, gave at another session some illustrations of coincidences in Chinese, Indian, and Greek epigrams. Mythology was, on the whole, rather neglected, but besides a short note by Prof. Fay, who sent a new explanation of the Prometheus myth, Prof. Price of Chicago University presented a very valuable analysis of the pantheon found on the Gudean cylinders. A paper by Prof. Jastrow on Babylonian influences in the Pentateuchal code was also of great interest. Such influences, Prof. Jastrow held, appear first in the second form of the code, while the earlier is devoid of them. Another instructive paper on the same general theme of connection was presented by Prof. Barton, who showed that the story of Ahikar contained all the dramatic elements of the parallel story of Daniel.

On the part of the Indologists, there were offered a number of attractive papers. Prof. Lanman gave a new explanation of the name of the now famous birthplace of Buddha, discovered a few years ago in Nepal. Hitherto this name, Lumbini, has been supposed to be a corruption of Sanskrit Rukminî, the beloved mistress of Krishna, who is the human form of Vishnu. Prof. Lanman made the very probable suggestion that it is nothing but a derivative of *lumbî*, and, consequently, Lumbini-vana means merely the "grove of creepers," or a thicket-grove. An entertaining paper by the same writer contributed some fresh stories of talking birds in Hindu literature. Their marvellous power of imitating human speech as recorded by tradition was corroborated on the spot by Dr. Abbott, who happened to be present, and testified to having once had a parrot that could repeat whole stanzas of Sanskrit poetry—which is more than many Oriental scholars can do.

In the section for the comparative study of religions, which, as usual, held a special session on Friday afternoon, Prof. Jackson presented a careful study of the religion of the Achæmenian kings; and Prof. Haupt defended the thesis that the inspection of the intestines in the Jewish ritual had its prototype in Babylonian practice. Dr. Ward, who presided during the Meeting, read at this session a trenchant critique of some of the absurdities advanced as scientific solutions of the Hittite question, and offered as his own contribution to the question a sober analysis of the historical data involved. The Philippine papers already mentioned found their natural place in this session. With these was included on the programme what was sure to be a paper of interest, one by Prof. Toy on a pre-religious stage of society; but in the absence of the writer this had to be "read by title," as was the case also with a paper by Dr. Briggs, and with others by Prof. Prince and by the Rev. Mr. Kohut. A maiden paper by Mr. Allen, read for him by Prof. Lanman, gave a survey of one of the later Hindu rites, as explained by Hemâdri, a writer of the thirteenth century. At the same session, Prof. Hopkins illustrated by extracts from the Hindu epic the earliest phases of Yogin practices and theosophy.

Papers of more special character comprised an essay by Prof. Bloomfield on the relative chronology of the Vedic Hymns, in which a counsel of warning was urged against too hasty induction based on the use of supposedly late words and forms; a paper by Mr. L. H. Gray on the syntax of the Avesta; one on the use of '*anâ* in the Old Testament, by Dr. Grimm; and a suggestive attempt by Mr. Michelson to explain the old Persian genitive in *-hya*, as well as a paper by the same young scholar on the Greek *tenues aspiratæ*. The most important of the purely linguistic papers was perhaps that by Prof. Oertel on the character of Sanskrit *h*, which was shown to be in fact not a sonant, as is usually assumed, but a surd.

It is, however, impossible in a brief space to give even the titles of all the papers presented at the Meeting, still less to discuss fully the studies exhibited in some of the papers already referred to, or again in those of Prof. Torrey on the old Syriac reading of Matthew xiv., 26; of Rev. Mr. Foote, on the sixth chapter of II. Samuel; of Mr. Schuyler, on the Daçarûpa; of Prof. Johnston on a letter from Samas-sum-ukîn to his brother Sardanapalus; of Rev. Mr. Rosenau, on the Hebrew word Torah; or of Dr. Ramsay on the Second Psalm. Deserving mention as an inquiry pursued on somewhat unusual lines was the paper of Mr. Remy, who discussed the influence of Persian literature on German poetry, more particularly on the poet Platen. The indefatigable activity of some of the members resulted in their bringing not one paper apiece, but two or even more—a practice which, owing to the limited time at the disposal of the Society, led to not a few of the secondary papers being read by title.

The Secretary of the Society reported the loss of several well-known members, among them Prof. Monier Williams, who had long been an honorary member, and, from the list of corporate members, Prof. Brinton, Prof. Green, and Prof. Luquiens.

Much to the regret of the Society, its faithful and accomplished editor, Prof. Moore, was obliged to resign on account of other labors. Tradition gives no short terms of service to the Society's officers, and certainly those long in harness do the work well. Prof. Whitney set the example, and Prof. Lanman's long and arduous devotion to the grateful but unremunerative Society is still fresh in memory. Prof. Moore has ably continued this tradition of toil, and the Society was naturally selfish enough to hope for a longer continuance of his good work; but it was seen that a reëlection was impossible, and Prof. Torrey, Prof. Moore's colleague who has just accepted a call to Yale, will assume the editorship on the Semitic side, while Prof. Hopkins takes the Sanskrit care. Before adjourning, the Society voted to meet in joint session with the Philological, Archæological, and other affiliated societies in December next at Philadelphia. The next regular annual meeting will be held in New York in Easter week.

The present Meeting was made the more agreeable by reason of the courtesies extended to the members by the Philadelphia Oriental Club, the Faculty Club, and the University Club. The Oriental Club hospitably tendered the Society a lunch, and the other clubs mentioned kindly opened their doors to all the members of the Society. The beautiful Widener Museum made a most fitting hall and background for an Oriental meeting, and the annual subscription dinner was graced (for the first time) by the presence of several ladies, some of whom were members in their own person, while others were the better halves of members. Altogether, this, the one hundred and eleventh meeting of the Society, was exceptionally pleasant, and even the weather had an Oriental touch which seemed gently appropriate to the occasion. W. H.

A PARLIAMENTARY SECESSION.

FLORENCE, April 4, 1900.

Yesterday's session of the Italian Chamber of Deputies marks the close, for the moment at least, of one of the most remarkable chapters in modern parliamentary history. The papers of the preceding evening had been full of ominous forebodings; for the tension of parties had, for a week previous, been growing greater and greater, and men were prepared for anything. The parties had already gone so far that it was difficult to see how they could go further without actual bloodshed. At the session of yesterday there was an unparalleled attendance, every seat filled, and some Deputies even standing in the corridor. Pending the inauguration of the President-elect, Colombo, Vice-President Palberti presided. The reading of the record of the previous meeting went on, contrary to expectation, without incident. At the close, Deputy Zanardelli, speaking for the party of Constitutional Opposition, protested against the validity of the acts of that meeting, since they were only the reaffirmation of the acts of March 29, against which his party had already entered their protest. He was followed by Deputy Pantano, who made a similar statement on behalf of the Extreme Left. At the close of these statements, which were received in almost entire silence by the other parties, all the members of the Extreme Left, and almost all those of the Constitutional Opposition, left the hall in a body, shouting, according to their various shades of opinion, "Viva la libertà!" "Viva il Rè!" or "Viva la Costituente!" The remaining Deputies, composing the great ministerial Conservative majority, proceeded quietly to the inauguration of the re-elected President, Colombo, and then, by a rising vote, passed the measures for a reform of the House rules which had been reported at a previous meeting, and had driven the Opposition to its last demonstration. Thereupon, with approval of the Government, the Chamber adjourned until May 15.

The whole thing passed off so quietly that the story of it reads like a somewhat dreary anti-climax; but it is precisely in this that the interest of the day consists. So long as the minority remained in the Chamber, even in the attitude of determined obstruction which it has maintained now for several weeks past, there was always hope that a way out of the deadlock might be found by some constitutional means. The withdrawal of a considerable section is equivalent to revolution. In the interval before the re-assembling of the Chamber, there is room for hope that the country at large may express itself so clearly on the questions at issue that the Government may see its way to accomplish its declared purposes, without mortally offending any one of the numerous political "fractions."

Meanwhile it is instructive for all students of parliamentary government—and in America that means every citizen—to notice the course of events which have led up to

this remarkable climax. The present governmental experiment in Italy suffers, as does that in France, from a lack of clear definition of powers. France is trying a republic on a basis of strongly marked monarchical instincts. Italy is trying a monarchy on a people which has, to be sure, a long experience of governmental tyrannies in its more recent past, but which can never forget that its really glorious traditions are all associated with a remoter period of popular governments. Its king is constitutionally defined as king "by the grace of God and the will of the nation"; and this formula, repeated in every public document, is kept constantly before the people as a guarantee of popular liberty. The present King—*galantuomo* in small things as his father was in greater—is consistently faithful to the theory of his state, and suppresses himself as effectually as the most ardent constitutionalist could desire; too effectually, think many who are impatient with the slow working of the constitutional machinery.

The present Ministry, led by a man of military training, Gen. Pelloux, commands a crushing majority in the Chamber of Deputies. This majority has, of course, the President of the Chamber on its side—though it must be admitted that if President Colombo has erred in his conduct of the furious discussions of this session, it has been up to the last moment rather in too great leniency towards the riotous elements than in any over-tenderness towards his own party.

Over against this combination of Government majority and President there stand two well-defined parties—that of the Constitutional Opposition, which fights the ministry on the lines of the Constitution (*Statuto*) and follows in general the lead of Zanardelli, and the Opposition at any price, the Extreme Left, whose mouthpieces during the present crisis have been chiefly Deputies Ferri and Pantano. This extreme wing of the radical faction has been the centre of the parliamentary agitation. Its leaders are clever men, sure of their support in all the restless elements of the Italian population, always present and on the alert to trip their opponents, especially the Ministry or the President of the Chamber, utterly unscrupulous as to methods, and always posing as champions of popular liberty against the aggression of the majority. As in other European parliaments, the presence of Ministers in the House always gives to the Opposition, especially if this be small in numbers, the chance to accuse the Government of a tyrannous combination with the majority and its President, and this chance has been exploited in the past week at Rome in every conceivable form. Indeed, this idea underlies the whole encounter. To say who began it is impossible, as it always is when two parties are determined upon a fight. Doubtless the character of the Opposition has for years been a source of alarm and of real danger to the Government. Doubtless there exists in many parts of Italy, especially in the great manufacturing centres of the North, an element professedly hostile to the principles of the Constitution, and even, in its extreme forms, to all government whatsoever. On the other hand, the existing Constitution guarantees liberty of thought and its expression in the press, under certain restrictions, and any government which even seems to violate these guarantees must be prepared to face immediate and violent resistance. That is the germ of the present contention. Two lines of ministerial action, apparently without natural connection, have been attempted side by side, and have been made to cross and recross in apparently hopeless confusion.

One of these lines is the recognition by the Chamber of the right of the Ministry, by means of a royal decree, to take immediate action in regard to political associations, the press, and defence of the public service, without consulting the Chamber, but with the understanding that a subsequent vote of the Chamber shall be necessary to convert this decree into a law. This is the now famous "Decreto-Legge." The other line of action by the Ministry has been in regard to the reforms in procedure of such a sort that obstruction should be impossible beyond certain limits. So far as an outside observer can judge, the Ministry made a mistake in the former set of propositions. They go back to a decree of June 22, 1899, which raised then a storm of protest and led to the almost immediate closing of the session. It is the revival of the same propositions in the month of February which has brought about the present troubles. The Opposition declared at once that here was a hopeless mingling of the governmental powers—that if the Ministry could at its discretion issue decrees with the force of law, this meant a practical abolition of the law-making body; the reservation that such decrees must later be confirmed by the Chamber did not essentially change the principle. In this view the radical party was supported by a very large element of serious people throughout the country; but the majority in the Chamber was held together in defiance of such criticism.

The "Extremists," as they are now technically called, hereupon declared themselves forced by tyrannous coalition into the attitude of obstruction, and thus put another weapon into the hands of the Government party. Against obstruction there has always been, the world over, but one answer: "The business of the Legislature must be done," and some way must be found to do it. If the Government had been wrong in its propositions, the Opposition put itself in the wrong by its method of meeting them. The country was led to wish a plague upon both their houses, and could only feel itself dishonored by the disgraceful proceedings of the past weeks. Every known device of obstruction has been tried. When the *Decreto-Legge* in any form was before the House, the brazen-lunged orators of the Extreme would speak for hours upon every subject under heaven. Called to order by the President, they would go off into prolonged explanations of their precise parliamentary rights until the House, wearied out with fruitless eloquence, would adjourn, only to find the fight renewed on the morrow, with new orators and ever new requirements of parliamentary tactics. When the Extremists were for the moment compelled to allow some member of the majority to take the floor, they kept up a continuous fire of comments, varied by shouts and yells, pounding of desks, shaking of fists, and threats of violence.

The position of the President has been one of extreme difficulty. He has been vilified in every form possible to the vocabulary of a Latin legislature, but kept himself steady until a few days ago, when he felt his place untenable and resigned, only to be immediately reëlected by a great majority. Colombo has proved himself also a clever parliamentarian, equal to any situation, if only he had been presiding over men who would respect any rules of procedure whatever. The root of all the evil was in the determination of each party to throw the other into the wrong before the country. The Government said, "If you obstruct us in our effort to defend the peace and safety of the country, we will act without you." The Extreme replied, "If you propose to act unconstitutionally, we will obstruct to the bitter end." The Extreme said, "We should be false to our trust if we did not resist in every way the tyranny of a majority, which calls in the Government to help it in carrying measures which it could not carry in the regular way of procedure." The Ministry replied that its duty compelled it to defend the country against a worse tyranny yet, the tyranny of an irresponsible minority which deliberately prevented the wheels of legislation from moving. Taunted with being obstructionists, the Extreme replied, "It is not we who are obstructing; it is you, the Government, who are obstructing the regular working of the Constitution."

How far the minority were willing to go is seen from the proposition, made a fortnight ago, to summon a general Italian Constituent Assembly, members to be chosen by a plébiscite, which should consider a wholesale revision of the existing Constitution—in other words, a peaceful revolution. If this was a "feeler" for the country, the result cannot have been very encouraging. Here and there some demonstrations were held, but the prospect of losing all they have gained under the monarchy of Savoy for the utter uncertainty of such leadership as the parties of discontent have to offer, is not alluring. The "Costituente" remains a war-cry, but it frightens no babe as yet.

It was predicted days ago that the Government would prorogue the Chamber; but it has not done so, and the confusion of a general election would probably be anything but welcome to it. On the contrary, it has more and more let the *Decreto-Legge* slip into the background, and there seems to be a general expectation that on the reassembling of the Chamber this bone of contention will be abandoned altogether. The most recent effort of the Government has been concentrated on the reforms of procedure. A scheme of changes looking towards the prevention of obstruction was presented by the Government and reported to the House on the 29th of March. The Prime Minister, Pelloux, moved that the discussion on the *Decreto-Legge* be suspended, and that a rising vote on the reforms of procedure be taken on the following Tuesday. Deputies De Niccolo and Ferri asked to be heard upon the declaration of the Ministry, but President Colombo refused to recognize them, and called for a rising vote. It was taken in the midst of a furious uproar, and the proposition was declared approved. The President at once closed the session, but only the most serious efforts of the cooler heads prevented a series of personal encounters. The leaders of the Left drew up a formal protest against the validity of all the acts of this session, and this protest became the central feature of the radical policy. When the President took his seat

next morning, he was greeted by the Extreme with yells of, "Out with him! Out with him!"—and, after ten minutes of this uproar, he put on his hat and left the Chamber. The session of the day ended before it had begun. On the following morning Vice-President Palberti called the Chamber to order, and announced the resignation of President Colombo. At the session of Monday, the 2d, the leaders of the two Left sections entered again a protest against the action of the 29th and against all future action to be based thereon. The Chamber then proceeded to reëlect President Colombo by a vote of 265 in a total of 438. When it came to fixing the order of the day for the 3d, the uproar began anew, yells of "No! No!" being supplemented by the continuous blowing of penny whistles. The President pro tem. could put the motion only by signs, but it was carried by the unanimous rising of the Government sections.

The culminating events of the 3d have been already described. The withdrawal of the Extremists was on the whole a clever move. It leaves them a free hand to go into the next session with any reservations they please. It gives them a certain shimmer of martyrdom, which has already attracted to them the sympathies of some conservative forces. It enables them to say, "Now the country sees what this unholy coalition is capable of as it is; what may it not do when it is strengthened by a new set of rules specially designed to muzzle every organ of individual liberty?"

Meanwhile, there is but one really happy Italian party. The clericals, sitting quietly by, are rejoicing in this new demonstration of what they consider a divine retribution upon the wicked Government that is trampling upon their rights. E. E.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN POOR RELIEF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the most difficult questions confronting the Southern States at the present time is the betterment of the defective classes of their population. Public education in the towns and cities has been so radically improved of late that many of the school systems of such communities may be very favorably compared with those of any other portion of the country; but in the sparsely settled rural districts there is much to be done in point both of efficiency and of duration of the school term. A very healthy symptom, however, is the augmenting importance which is being attached throughout the South to the subject of technical education for the children of both races. This matter is being urged not only by social and political reformers, but also by the various industrial organizations that have been called into existence by the altered economic conditions of this section. But, hopeful as this increased activity on the part of the Southern States may be, perhaps even more significant and cheering is the increase of vitality on the part of the Southern Church. So great, so complete has been the change in this direction during the past few years that it almost amounts to a revolution, and now there is no more earnest, thorough body of social reformers than the Southern clergy. And while their efforts to ameliorate the condition of the less fortunate classes of the South are limited to no race, attention has at last been turned to the long neglected poorer order of whites. This whole movement, therefore, is fraught with the widest possibilites for good, and will be sure to attract general attention. Now that the South is wealthier than ever before, it can ill afford to overlook any section of its population, and nowhere is this truth more forcibly realized than in the Southern States. Unfortunately, however, organized efforts to reach the more backward inhabitants of the mountainous districts are, so far, few and far between; but the growing number of charity and relief boards in the larger towns is at once a sign and a promise of an improved order of things in the more remote rural parts of this section.

Of the many active workers in this field of social reform in the various cities of the South, one of the most earnest and successful is the Rev. A. E. Cornish, of Charleston, South Carolina, whose labors in connection with the Sheltering Arms of that place have won for him a lasting place on the roll of philanthropists. For several years Mr. Cornish has been actively at work among the poor of Charleston, and, after having very carefully studied local conditions, he is now making an experiment which will be observed with interest by students of pauperism everywhere, but nowhere more keenly than in the Southern States, whose recent industrial revolution has been accompanied by the same suffering as that witnessed in England early in this century. Mr. Cornish appears to have grasped many of the difficulties of the situation as well as the serious economic features of the subject. Unlike many other city missionaries, he appears to have grasped the radical distinction between the victims of transient misfortune and paupers, and in treating the latter class he goes far below superficial evidences of distress. Realizing that many cases of pauperism may be traced directly to bad environment and disinclination to work, Mr. Cornish has hit upon the expedient of curing both diseases with the same remedy, and with this end in view he has rented a large farm on historic James Island, where he proposes to put his ideas into practical operation. Here market supplies can be produced at slight cost, and boys and girls trained in a most useful calling. At the same time, foodstuffs will be grown here for the Sheltering Arms in Charleston. In other words, the poor will be helped by teaching them to help themselves.

This relief plan of Mr. Cornish seems, in many respects, to be an improvement on the "Elberfeld system," and while it may probably be more successful in a small city than in a populous one at the North, it has several distinct advantages over many present schemes of poor relief. First of all, there is a change of environment, which is just as often as not a positive gain. The situation of the colony is as healthy as that of any place in the low country of South Carolina, and it is surrounded by the summer residences of the neighboring planters. Secondly, Mr. Cornish's plan does not tend to break up the family life of the persons relieved, but on the contrary serves to foster it. There will be a number of detached cottages, each with its plot of ground. At the same time a school will be erected for the children. Hence the treatment of these destitute persons will in its nature be both remedial and reformatory. Lastly, this plan will test again the possibilities of applying to agriculture the principles of coöperation, and, if it meets with the success it promises and deserves, may bring about some very revolutionary and wholesome changes in the Southern States.

Very respectfully, B. J. Ramage.

Sewanee, Tenn., April 16, 1900.

DESPOTISM IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In noticing an article in the April *Atlantic* entitled "The Perplexities of a College President," by "One of the Guild," you characterize it as "conceived in the spirit and couched in the style of the educational drummer," and you characterize it most justly and truly. No more mischievous attempt to lower the high ideal of what a college should be which college men have been wont to cherish, have I ever seen. The article, to be sure, has its merits: it is brilliantly written, and undeniably gives a vivid picture of some of the real and serious difficulties which college presidents over and over again encounter in their work; but the good that it contains is almost wholly nullified by the evil, by the vicious reasoning which it exhibits, and by the tone of sordid commercialism which pervades it.

The ideal of a college which "One of the Guild" plainly cherishes is one whose work is conducted in all its lines according to the methods most approved of by the successful business enterprise of the day. The president of a college, he thinks, should occupy much such a position as that of the general manager of a large commercial corporation—that is, he should be given not only practically absolute authority in all matters of general administration, but full power to interfere, with criticisms and suggestions, in affairs purely departmental. On assuming office, he should surround himself with "a corps of competent, loyal, and ambitious assistants," and together they should set a "hot pace" for all competing institutions. In a word, they should be "hustlers" first, last, and all the time.

It may be admitted, now, that a college which is conspicuously successful in all that relates to the true function of a college, may also be successful from the lower and purely commercial point of view, but the one does not follow necessarily from the other. A college, in the management of its purely business affairs, should, of course, adopt strictly business methods, and in matters of general administration it should, doubtless, be at least willing to see if it can learn anything from the successful commercial corporation. When, however, it comes to a matter touching the essential function of a college—to arranging a course of study, for instance—the case is quite different. The aim of a commercial corporation is material success—success measured in dollars and cents—the production of such and such commodities being simply the means to that end: the more commodities produced and sold at a profit, the greater the success. With a college, however, the aim is radically different. Not on the credit which may accrue to it from a large number of students turned out with the label "B.A."

or "B.S.," as the case may be—not on the gain expected from the product, that is—but on the product itself does the college centre its interest. Its aim, if it be true to the purpose for which it exists, is to give the best possible training it can to every student who seeks and is at the same time able to profit by that training. And, in giving that training, it cannot follow the definite, precise methods employed by the manufacturer—exactly the same for each article of each class—from the very obvious fact that all men are not precisely alike, and are not, moreover, mere passive blocks of raw material. Hence the utter fallaciousness of attempting to draw any close analogy between the work of a college and that of a business enterprise.

"One of the Guild" practically admits this when he says, "Of course there are points where the parallel between the business world and the educational world is not complete." Of course there are; more than that, these very points are the all-important points—the points touching the vital and essential functions of a college. The points where the parallel is complete, or more or less complete, are the comparatively unimportant ones. But it is on these unimportant points that "One of the Guild" throws his chief emphasis. Therein, of course, lies the fallaciousness of his reasoning; for he gives a distorted and wholly erroneous view of the proper function of a college.

If "One of the Guild" were the only one of his guild who held such views as he expresses, we could afford to let him have his say, and straightway forget him; but unfortunately he is not the only one. A learned and distinguished Frenchman, visiting recently a university in the West which has lately become very prominent, and which has been conspicuously successful from a commercial point of view, asked the president what he regarded as the chief reason of the extraordinary success of his university; and the president promptly and complacently replied, "Because, sir, the affairs of this university are run precisely as are those of a great commercial enterprise." The Frenchman, feeling that it would be more than superfluous to ask another question, bowed politely and withdrew.

It is the business of the teaching staff of a college not only to impart to those under their care known truth, but to seek to discover new truth, or at least new aspects, new applications of truth already known; and it is not likely to be very greatly assisted in this work by being placed at the beck and call of a despot. Slaves and sycophants have never been preëminent as revealers of truth; nor have despotisms commonly been supposed to produce the conditions most favorable to the discovery of truth. It is notorious that in many of our colleges nowadays an instructor is not at liberty to speak above a whisper about the policy or general administration of the affairs of his college—matters in which he may, presumably, be as deeply interested, and upon which he may, possibly, be as well qualified to speak, as the president himself. Is this, now, a wholly desirable condition of things? Surely not. In the college, if anywhere, speech should be free.

College presidents are, after all, mere men, and liable to the same weaknesses other men are exposed to. Your gifted administrator who is at the same time an able scholar, a fine teacher, and an inspiring and prudent leader, is still an exceedingly rare bird—so rare as to be quite beyond the reach of most colleges. Indeed, few boards of trustees would be able to recognize such a bird, even if they had him in their hands, for they are not, as a rule, noted either for their discernment or for their zeal in seeking enlightenment. In fact, as "One of the Guild" hints, supineness on the part of the trustees is a fruitful source of trouble in many of our colleges. But is the remedy to be found in making the president absolute? Scarcely so. If there is danger in their supineness now, there would be tenfold more danger in it then.

The writer, for example, has in mind the case of a small college, where, a few years ago, a new man was called to the presidency. The college needed a thorough reorganization, and the board hoped it had secured just the man for the work. He proved, however, to be utterly unequal to it himself—a man with no tact, no constancy of purpose, no powers of leadership; in short, a man so wobbling and erratic in his gait that he could by no possibility move forward in a straight line unless led, or set in a groove and shot forward along it by some irresistible force from behind—and he had, as a consequence, to fall back upon the much-disparaged faculty committee for the accomplishment of the desired reorganization. The president, however, by dint of keeping the credulous ears of his rather indolent board well stuffed with plausible stories of what *he* was doing for the college, somehow managed to retain his position; and he still retains it, as a matter of fact. All attempts at steering him in a straight line, however, have proved unavailing; for with that arbitrariness often seen in illogical minds, he persists in kicking over the traces now and then, rendering all efforts towards harmonious coöperation between the faculty and himself quite futile, and thereby seriously impairing the usefulness of the college.

This, of course, is an extreme case, but it is a real one, and one that may happen in a good many of our small colleges. The responsibility here, to be sure, rests on the trustees, who have been manifestly neglectful of their duty; but so sunk in their indifference are they that it is difficult to bring them to a realization of their neglect. Would it be less difficult if they were encouraged, as "One of the Guild" proposes, to trust to the president's advice in everything, and turn a deaf ear to the advice of all others? It must be remembered that public opinion, which is so powerful a factor in keeping the trustees of the few very large colleges on the alert, does not usually count for much in the case of the very small colleges, which are, as a rule, little exposed to the scrutiny and criticism of the public. And if the lips of the faculty are sealed, whence is to come that open and free criticism which seems so necessary and wholesome a discipline for all public officials, whether in the college or in the state?—Very truly yours,

A Professor.

THE ART STUDENTS' LEAGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The celebration by the Art Students' League of New York of its twenty-fifth anniversary, to be held May 9-13, calls attention to the excellent work done by this institution. When it was founded in 1875, the League was practically the only art school in America in which drawing was taught after the manner of the best French schools. To-day there are a number of institutions in Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, and other cities which offer excellent opportunities for the study of drawing and painting, so that the League no longer maintains the supremacy held by it in the first years of its growth. It is still, however, one of the largest and best-equipped art schools in the world, and is at present making experiments in art education that seem to be destined to have far-reaching results.

Briefly stated, what the League is trying to do is to bridge over the gulf between class-room and studio. The ordinary student, after spending four or five years in the schools, finds that although he has learned to draw the figure in the most approved manner, he is still untaught in most of the rudiments of studio practice. His training has led only in the direction of the making of easel pictures, and for that he has been imperfectly trained.

The League has this year begun the policy of allowing a few of the more advanced students to carry on large decorative studies to practical completion. Models are posed for specific purposes. Studies of drapery are made. Decorative motives nave to be sought outside the school from nature. In short, the pupils make under supervision just such elaborate preparations as must be made by the professional artist who undertakes to do a serious piece of work.

These advanced life classes are very successful, and very popular. The enthusiasm with which they have been greeted leads to the hope that another year will see classes started in decorative design—a branch of art which has heretofore been sadly neglected at the League. The school, which has always been self-supporting, has been hindered by the experimental nature of such classes from establishing them. An effort is now being made to raise an endowment fund so that the League may securely extend its sphere of usefulness and embrace in its course the various applied arts.

Frederick W. Coburn.

[We believe our correspondent's praise of the League to be quite within bounds, and that the school thoroughly deserves the support of an endowment.—Ed. Nation.]

POSTAL-CARDS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion of the American postal-card is pertinent. The postal-cards lately seem to be largely of the nature of blotting-paper, as this sample shows clearly enough. It is discouraging to see what this piece of Government stationery makes of a postal-card communication. A. H. Allen.

Cambridge, Mass., April 20, 1900.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "L." might have added to his complaint that we had for a time the choice of using a whiter card, of stiffer material, and which could be enclosed addressed when one wished to facilitate an immediate reply without using the largest-sized envelopes; but this has lately been

withdrawn, and we must now be content with the ugly, large, whitey-brown thing with its badly printed title and stamp.

On the other hand, it should be remembered that the British post-offices make a small charge for their cards over and above the cost of the stamp, the stationers having at the outset protested that it would be unfair to them if the Government should cut into their trade by supplying the public with stationery gratis. C. J. G.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While your readers are asking for a genteel postal-card—one that does not have the uncertain color of the present issue—I would again ask why cannot the Postal Union issue an international five-cent stamp and two-cent postal-card, good for any country in the Postal Union? It would be a boon of incalculable convenience to travellers. They could be issued at Bern, where the clearing-house of the Postal Union is located. Every country would draw its supplies from there, and be charged for what it drew. Then, when going abroad, one could buy them at any office in each country and use them where a person just happened to be.

In travelling, there is nothing more unpleasant or time-wasting than hunting up a post-office. I remember going to the Stuttgart post-office for stamps, to find that the stamp window was closed from 12 to 2 P. M. It takes a German postal official two hours to get his dinner and afternoon siesta. In Venice, I had to take a gondola in order to get my letters off as soon as I arrived, because I had no Italian stamps. An international stamp bought before leaving home would be a great convenience. F.

AN INQUIRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to ask through you whether any of your readers can tell me where to find access, in this country, to a copy of the *Jahrbücher des Vereins von Alterthumsfreunden im Rheinlande*, Heft xiv., Bonn, 1849? It contains an article on a subject in which I am interested, and I should be much obliged to any one who would help me to reach it.

Yours sincerely, M. H. MORGAN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 22, 1900.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s forthcoming batch of novels relate to Italian New York, 'The Last Lady of Mulberry Bend,' by Henry Wilton Thomas; Welsh life, 'Garthowen,' by Allen Raine; and American life, 'The Immortal Garland,' by Anna Robeson Brown. The author of 'Red Pottage,' Mary Cholmondeley, makes a new venture with 'Diana Tempest,' and J. Storer Clouston offers a romance, 'The Lunatic at Large.'

Nearly ready is Mr. David Dwight Wells's 'His Lordship's Leopard,' of which Henry Holt & Co. are the publishers.

The 'Jeffersonian Cyclopædia' of Funk & Wagnalls Co. is expected to be issued by June 1.

Harper & Bros. announce that after May 1 their *Harper's Bazar* will become a weekly magazine for women, with a new form.

Dr. George R. Parkin's "record of a strenuous life," in a sense different from the cant of the hour, namely, his well-received biography, 'Edward Thring, Headmaster of Uppingham School,' has just been reissued through Macmillan in an abridged form. A single volume has resulted from two, but the omissions will scarcely be felt except by readers having associations with Uppingham. Some rearrangement is also acknowledged by the author. The book is handsome.

Upwards of thirty pages have been added to the new edition of Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's entertaining 'Total Eclipses of the Sun' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), which we noticed in 1894. The narrative is now brought down through the two eclipses of 1896 and 1898 to the eve of the one impending, which will be observed by Prof. and Mrs. Todd in Africa, and will in time, no doubt, be reported in a later issue of the same work. Handy for reference is a list of total eclipses from 1842 to 1973, sufficiently long for the lives of most purchasers; and so are the charts of tracks, retrospective and prospective in the next eighty years. Observers in the United States will be rather more favored than in the past half century, and this holds true of our new island possessions in both hemispheres.

"Thorough" has been Mr. J. R. Tutin's motto in preparing his 'Concordance to FitzGerald's Translation of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' (Macmillan). Every *a* and *the* is as religiously recorded as the significant words. Naturally, in so limited a poem, the unique usages are relatively numerous (14 out of 23 on p. 40, for example). The book is daintily printed and bound, and will help on the Omar-FitzGerald cult.

In the 'Forms of Prose Literature' (Scribners) Mr. John Hays Gardiner of Harvard has made a valuable addition to the multitude of manuals on criticism and composition. The recognition of the two essential elements in a work of true literature, "the organic unity of conception" and "the pervasive personality of the artist"; the broad division of literature into that of thought and that of feeling (or, as some phrase it, "knowledge" and "power"); the subdivision of the former class under the headings of Exposition, Argument, and Criticism, and of the latter under Narration and Description (has not one genus been overlooked here?)—are not novel, of course; but what we want in a work like this is not novelty, but soundness. To the present writer the work seems eminently sound and rational, and so far from being a mere echo of other writers that it gives the impression of being the fruit of independent study and reflection. The style is attractive, the copious examples are well chosen, and the book cannot fail of being helpful to teachers and pleasing as well as profitable to students.

The distinguished Italian scholar, Prof. Francesco Flamini, of the University of Padua, has just published a brief 'Compendio di Storia della Letteratura Italiana' (Leghorn: Giusti), which, though written for use in secondary instruction, deserves a wider audience, on account of its completeness, accuracy, and conciseness. Its scope is broad, including the contemporary literature of Italy, and the volume, as a whole, records the latest results of modern Italian scholarship. It may be recommended as an excellent academic text-book.

The forty-fifth and final volume of the elaborate and excellent German biographical dictionary, 'Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie,' has just appeared. The work was planned more than a quarter of a century ago, and the first volume published in 1875 under the general direction of the historical commission of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences and the editorship of Rochus von Liliencron, who, although now eighty years of age, has had the good fortune to retain the bodily and mental vigor necessary to complete the difficult task, in which he was assisted by 1,418 collaborators. The biographies number 23,273, including artists, authors, actors, merchants, professional and military men, princes, statesmen, scholars, and indeed all German men and women whose lives and achievements would be of interest to the public. Many of these sketches are so full that they might be very appropriately printed each in a separate pamphlet, and would furnish in this form a valuable and delightful series of memoirs. It is the intention of the editor to add a few supplementary volumes, containing biographies of those who have made themselves worthy of a place in the work between 1875 and 1900, after the volumes to which they would have been assigned alphabetically had been already issued.

Prof. Anton E. Schönbach's volume entitled 'Gesammelte Aufsätze zur neueren Litteratur in Deutschland, Oesterreich, Amerika' (Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky) is an exceedingly interesting and instructive collection of addresses and critical essays on some salient features of German, Austrian, and American literature. The contents of the first two sections are rather fragmentary in their character. The most important papers are on Schiller's relations to modern culture, Uhland as dramatist, Gustav Freytag, the Germanist Karl Müllenhoff, Joseph Schreyvogel-West ("Thomas West" was his pseudonym), a contemporary of Goethe, influential as a critic and journalist, but insignificant as a poet, Grillparzer, Anastasius Grün, and the celebrated dramatists Eduard von Bauernfeld and Ludwig Anzengruber. The third section, devoted to American literature, is marked by far greater unity of conception and execution. It begins with a fine appreciation of Fenimore Cooper based upon Prof. Lounsbury's biography of the novelist, followed by an essay on Longfellow's drama, an admirable and exhaustive study of Nathaniel Hawthorne, and a general survey of the development of the American novel and its gradual differentiation from its English prototype. In the treatment of his subject the author gives evidence of thorough knowledge and warm sympathy, and his judgments of our literary achievements and tendencies are remarkably discriminating and just.

The seventieth annual report of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass., is, but for the Treasurer's accounts, a misnomer, owing to the Secretary's absence. Mr. Lane's customary list of additions to the Harvard Dante collection is not wanting, and there is a paper by Prof. Kenneth McKenzie on Dante's two references to Æsop, viz., to the Cock and the Pearl and the Mouse and the Frog. It is made apparent that the poet's acquaintance with these fables was by way of Romulus's translation of Phædrus, and the collection known as Anonymus Neveleti, of which Ulrich Boner's translation, 'Edelstein' (so called after the initial Cock and Pearl fable), was the first book printed in German. The other fable, though contained in Romulus, is not found in Phædrus's

text as it has come down to us. The discussion is curious and fairly convincing.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (October meeting, 1899) Senator Hoar explains how Mr. Evarts induced the English to submit to the Geneva Arbitration Conference in spite of the presence of "indirect damages" in the American case as made up by Mr. Bancroft Davis. "You can," he said to them, "withdraw just as well after you get there as before"; and he then arranged on the spot with the English counsel to permit the tribunal to throw out the claim in advance.

The *Geographical Journal* for April contains an account, by Sir John Murray, of the results of a bathymetrical survey of the eight fresh-water lochs of the Trossachs and Callander district, including the temperature, organic life, rainfall, and outflow. A series of seven colored maps, showing the general physical features of the whole region and the details of each loch on a larger scale, together with some illustrations of scenery and a new sounding-machine, accompany the article. Dr. H. R. Mill treats of the agriculture, industries, vital statistics, and movement of population of southwest Sussex, being the conclusion of his experimental paper on a "fragment of the geography of England." It is suggested that a similar memoir should be published for each of the four hundred sheets of the Ordnance Survey.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number two, gives us the conclusion of Dr. Petterson's report on the hydrographic researches in the North Atlantic of the English, Scandinavian, and Russian expeditions of 1895-96. The accompanying maps show the contour of the bottom at various places, and the direction of the "Flaschenposten" or bottle-drift. This is followed by a detailed description of the artificial irrigation system adopted in British India, including wells, tanks, and canals, their cost when ascertainable, and the amount of land irrigated. Among the minor articles is one by Dr. E. Hammer on an equal-area projection for equatorial maps.

Prof. Philipp Zorn of Königsberg has contributed to the *Rundschau* for January, February, and April, under the title "Die völkerrechtlichen Ergebnisse der Haager Conferenz," a commentary on the transactions and principal results of the Peace Congress, in which he took part as one of the German delegates. His articles are well deserving the notice of all students interested in the history of that memorable event.

That the rigidity of the Prussian character is not equivalent to immobility is no new discovery, and yet one cannot help wondering at the energy with which the foremost state of the empire is pushing educational reform without much regard for time-honored customs. Scarcely has the ear become accustomed to the new, composite title of Doctor-Ingenieur when it is announced that the Prussian Minister of Education has entered into correspondence with the German universities with a view to a further restriction or entire exclusion of the use of the Latin language in various academical transactions; the obligatory Latin of dissertations, except for classical philologists and Catholic theologians, having been done away with already during the last quarter of a century. Another question at present occupying the different governments, also upon Prussian initiative, concerns the remission of the examination in Greek now required of students of medicine from the Realgymnasia, who, in future, would have to take a supplementary examination in Latin only, and, by a further liberal provision, be allowed to defer the same for several semesters after entering the university. With the exception of the little Grand Duchy of Baden, ever in the van of modern ideas, the Prussian Government is also the most progressive in its regulations for the higher education of women, though, on this line, every step in advance in made cautiously and tentatively. At Heidelberg and Freiburg (Baden), women provided with "certificates of maturity" from gymnasia are now allowed to matriculate as regular students. At Giessen (Hesse) new regulations for their admission as "hearers" have been in force since April 1. (For details one may consult *Hochschul-Nachrichten* for March.) As a rule, whatever measures are taken by the leading institutions, especially in Prussia, are sure to be adopted in course of time even by the most conservative states—if for no better reason than "im Interesse einer einheitlichen Regelung."

On March 2 the philosophical faculty of the University of Heidelberg conferred the degree of Ph.D. *summa cum laude* on Miss Erla Hittle of Richmond, Ind., as the result of an examination in English Philology and Literature as the main subject, and in Germanic Philology and the History of Art as collateral branches of study. Her thesis treated of "the Old English Prepositions 'mid' and 'with.'" Miss Hittle studied at the University of Indiana under Prof. Karsten and then at Cornell University, where she took the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in 1893. During the past five years she has continued her studies at Leipzig under Prof. Sievers and at Heidelberg under Prof. Hoops, head of the department of English philology. As every candidate for a degree must be examined on three subjects, she also attended at the latter institution the courses of lectures on Germanic Philology by Prof. Braune and on the History of Art by Prof. Thode. The conferring of a degree *summa cum laude* implies the passing of a first-class examination in all three branches of study selected by the candidate. The attainment of this rare distinction is very creditable to Miss Hittle, who took time to do her work thoroughly, instead of trying to rush through the academic courses in a few semesters, as is the case with too many Americans in German universities.

Paul Heyse, who has passed the winter at Gardone on Lago di Garda, celebrated his seventieth birthday there on March 15. Not only the people of the village, where he was temporarily residing, decorated his villa with flowers in honor of the occasion, but also official addresses were presented by the municipalities of Munich and other German cities, and more than a thousand letters and poems were received from all parts of Europe. His reply to these warm greetings of his literary colleagues was an appropriate poem entitled "Meinen Freunden" and printed with his signature on a sheet of vellum paper, one of which was sent to each of his congratulators. We are glad to note that Paul Heyse's three-score years and ten have brought with them no diminution of the freshness and vigor of his imagination, but rather a constant enlargement and enrichment of his creative faculties, a ripening and mellowing of his poetic productions. The versatility of his genius, evinced not only by his success as a novelist, dramatist, and lyrical poet, but also by his skill as an artist, recalls the many-sidedness of the masters of the Italian Renaissance and not a few Italians of our own day.

Mr. William I. Fletcher's Amherst (Mass.) Summer School in Library Economy will open on July 6 and close on August 17. No previous knowledge of library work is exacted. The class is necessarily limited.

The new circular of the American School of Classical Studies at Rome shows that the resident staff for 1900-1901 will consist of the Director, Mr. Richard Norton, who will lecture on Ancient Archæology and Art and the Topography and Monuments of Ancient Rome; and Prof. Francis W. Kelsey of the University of Michigan, whose topics will be Roman Architecture and Latin Epigraphy. Other courses may be expected from eminent specialists, Italian and German. The usual excursions will be made in the peninsula and to Greece. Further information, as to qualifications, cost of living, etc., may be had on application to Prof. E. T. Merrill, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

We are requested by the Receiver of D. Appleton & Co. to say that a newspaper statement to the effect that a Book Trust is now forming, and that it already controls the above house, among others, is unworthy of the slightest credence. Equally false is the report that an offer had been made by the Receiver to some creditors of 66 2-3 cents on the dollar of their claims, which offer had been generally refused. There has been no offer whatsoever. The Receiver's confident expectation is that the creditors will receive dollar for dollar, and that there will be an abundant equity for the stockholders. While no official report has yet been made by him, his examination seems to justify the conclusion that the Company's assets exceed its liabilities in the ratio of more than two to one.

—'The Clarke Papers' which are being edited for the Royal Historical Society by Mr. C. H. Firth, now reach their third volume (Longmans). The documents come, as before, from the MSS. of Worcester College, and the period covered is April 23, 1653-April 30, 1659. William Clarke, it will be remembered, was Secretary to the Council of the Army from 1647-1649, and to General Monk and the Commanders of the Army in Scotland from 1657-1660. While his collections do not reach the same level of importance with those of Rushworth, they are valuable, and they call forth, besides, the fine prefaces of Mr. Firth. Scotland would naturally be the main subject of this volume but for the fact that a portion of the MSS. has already been used by the Scottish Historical Society in 'Scotland and the Commonwealth' (1895) and 'Scotland and the Protectorate' (1899). Mr. Firth presents, therefore, the material which relates to England and the Continent. Scotland comes in at intervals, but not prominently. With regard to contents, a large part of the volume consists of newsletters prepared in London for the information of the Commander and his staff officers in Scotland. These were written chiefly by George Downing, Gilbert Mabbott, and John Rushworth, and deal with the political situation, both

domestic and foreign. Some personal narratives and official letters are also given. The three topics which we select for notice among many others are Cromwell's relations with Parliament, the conduct of English troops on the Continent in their operations against the Spaniards, and the character of Richard Cromwell's difficulties in governing England. These are all important matters, and they receive a good deal of elucidation from the 'Clarke Papers.'

—The present volume opens with an account, which may be called official, of the dismissal of the Long Parliament. Comparing it with the celebrated passage in Blencowe's 'Sydney Papers,' one at once observes a minimizing of the harshness employed. The newsletter states that the Speaker, "refusing to come out of the chaire, was (modestly) pull'd out by a member of Parliament and army; and soe the members walk't out, and the Parliament was dissolved with as little noyse as can be imagined." Here there is no hint of Cromwell's sharp reproof of the Commons when he walked to and fro with his hat on his head, chiding the several members who had incurred his displeasure. For the employment of the 6,000 Ironsides on the Continent, several new pieces are cited, telling of what they suffered from disease, and how they stormed the Spanish escarpments at Dunkirk to the admiration of Turenne. The letters of Col. Drummond and Lieutenant-Colonel Hughes immediately after the Dunkirk engagement are very welcome. Drummond says of Lockhart's regiment: "It has done what I have never seen done before, for they charged and beate a Spanish regiment of a hill more steep than any ascent of a breach that I have seene." The difficulties attending Richard Cromwell's protectorate are fully set forth both in the text and in the preface. Mr. Firth agrees that the chief trouble came from the army. "The danger to Richard's rule lay in the discontent of some of the officers and the ambition of others." One of the best documents cited is the contribution of Mr. W. W. Dodge of Cambridge. He has taken from the Massachusetts State Archives a letter describing the preliminaries of Richard's fall. It is written by Nehemiah Bourne, who pretends to have been behind the scenes and sympathizes with the army.

—A year ago the Strassburg Library acquired a number of papyrus inscriptions, purchased from dealers in Egypt. Among these have been found fragments of a Koptic manuscript of a gospel. In a brochure entitled 'Ein neues Evangelienfragment,' published by Trübner of Strassburg (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), Dr. Adolf Jacoby describes and discusses these fragments, with the aid of four excellent photogravures. Two pages are fairly well preserved, and can be restored with a tolerable degree of completeness. On grounds of palæography the fragments are ascribed to the fifth or sixth century. Dr. Jacoby supposes them to be a portion of a Koptic translation of the Gospel according to the Egyptians, citations from which are preserved in the second epistle of Clement of Rome, and to which, following Harnack, he would also assign the Logia of Jesus found at Behnesa a year or two since. This gospel, he concludes, contrary to the ordinary view, was neither Gnostic or docetic. It shows an acquaintance with all four of our canonical gospels, but stands closest to John, and is in fact to be attributed to the Johannine school, of the thought of which it is a further development. It was composed about or shortly after 130 A. D., and contains some material of independent historical value. The fragments are all from the latter part of the gospel. They contain a fragment of a discourse of Christ, which may be said to correspond to John 14-17. This is put in the mouth of Jesus, who designates himself as "the only begotten." The reverse of the same fragment is the scene in the garden of Gethsemane, which depends on the synoptic gospels rather than on John. It is related in the first person plural. An interesting divergence from the synoptic gospels is the application of the words, "The spirit indeed is willing, but the flesh is weak," to Jesus himself, as a reason, apparently, why the apostles should remain and watch with him. Jacoby is inclined to think that this represents a more original tradition with regard to these words than that of the synoptic gospels. The other fragments contained an account of the ascension, related in the first person plural, after a discourse by Jesus. As elucidating a curious phrase in the first discourse of Jesus, "By whom shall the claw of death be destroyed?" Dr. Jacoby publishes in the same brochure a Greek papyrus fragment, now in the museum at Ghizeh (pap. 10,623), containing a prayer-charm text from the fourth or fifth century, in which death is designated as Charon, whose claws Jesus has broken. Parts of this remind one of the Apostles' creed, but to the simple statements of that formula is added a mass of other material. It closes with a doxology similar to that commonly added to the Lord's Prayer. Jacoby ascribes the origin of this document to the second Christian century, and finds that it makes use of the Gospel according to the Egyptians.

—The Egyptian Sudan has been divided into five provinces and three small districts, with three British officers for each province; the remaining magistrates being mostly native officers of the Egyptian army. The law which they administer consists of a Code of Criminal Procedure and a Sudan Penal Code. A prominent feature of the latter is the severe penalties, "amounting to a *maximum* of seven years' imprisonment," against kidnapping and trafficking in slaves. The abolition of domestic slavery is not contemplated at present, but "cavalry, camel corps, and police patrols are actively on the watch to check the traffic in slaves, especially the importation by Arab merchants of kidnapped black slave girls from the south. The markets are watched to prevent illicit bargains under cover of transactions in goods. The caravan routes are guarded, and caravans examined for slaves about to be exported from the ports of the Red Sea." Almost better still, the London *Times* correspondent from whom we quote adds, "The black battalions everywhere spread the news among their enslaved kinsmen that they are legally free." According to the *Times*, Lord Kitchener laid down the principle, in his instructions to his officers, that "the Government does not recognize greater rights on the part of the master as against his slaves than are recognized as against any other servant." Domestic slavery will continue practically to exist, but the slave is no longer legally his master's property, and has a claim against his master for maintenance and fair treatment, which can be made good at law. "And in this intermediate stage of emancipation the slaves of the Sudan will probably continue during the first period of British rule." The relatives of the Mahdi and the Khalifa and a few of the principal Dervish Emirs have been deported to Egypt as prisoners of war. To the other Dervishes a free pardon has been granted, and the blacks have enlisted very generally in the army, while the Arabs are cultivating the land, cutting sudd at Fashoda, and rebuilding Khartum. The revival of the country under the Anglo-Egyptian rule is remarkable. Notwithstanding the great difficulty of collecting taxes from a people impoverished almost to starvation from war and misrule, a revenue "greatly in excess of the estimate of 1899" has been raised, and there is a "large balance in the provincial accounts of Dongola, and a considerable one in those of Berber and Wady Halfa."

—Masakazu Stehachi Toyama died in Tokyo on the 6th of March, at the age of fifty-three. He was the first Japanese student to enter the University of Michigan. There he spent two years, 1873-75, and there he received, in 1886, the honorary degree of master of arts. The following summary of a letter to President Angell from Dr. Yeijiro Ono will interest his many personal friends in America and others who knew of him by reputation. In his native country he was prominent as an educator and as a literary critic. In the Imperial University he served successively as professor of sociology, dean of the literary department, and President. He was a life member of the House of Peers. In 1898, at the organization of Marquis Ito's cabinet, he was called from the University to serve as Minister of State for Education. Though his term of office was only three months, owing to the dissolution of the cabinet, he made many important changes in the educational system of Japan. Since his retirement from official life he has written and spoken freely on all important questions. By his wit and eloquence as well as by his personal character he made a profound impression on the national thought. He had been ill since last fall, at first with influenza, and later with pneumonia, the after-effect of which was a trouble in the ear, which so affected his brain that a surgical operation was necessary. The operation was unsuccessful. In his last moments he was decorated by the Emperor with various honors. His death is mourned not only by his friends and pupils, who number several thousands, but by all intellectual classes in Japan. Dr. Toyama was a loyal son of the University of Michigan, and, at the time of his death, was a member of the executive committee of the Ann Arbor Association in Tokyo.

THE WRIT AND THE SPADE.

Authority and Archæology, Sacred and Profane. Essays on the Relation of the Monuments to Biblical and Classical Literature. Edited by David G. Hogarth. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. Pp. xix.+440, 8vo.

This handsome volume is intended to contain a condensed statement, for the benefit of the general reader, of such positive gains to knowledge as have been added by the science of archæology to the authority of literary documents in the domains of Biblical and classical learning. It is made

up of a series of essays by authors of acknowledged competency in their several departments, severely compressed within very moderate limits, so that the task of still further summarizing them presents considerable difficulties. In an introductory chapter the editor (Director of the British School of Archæology at Athens) limits the term archæology as meaning "the science of the treatment of the material remains of the human past." With more precision, this ought to be called the Lesser Archæology, a science clearly outlined and not unduly extensive. Its limitations are plain, but still it is of first-rate importance to the end of history; and its processes and methods have steadily grown more scientific and sound. Though it may never hope to equal the marvellous discoveries of the great finders of the past generation, its methods of search, at present in vogue, are better than theirs. The modern science of excavation finds with the spade without destroying by the spade; it treats no item of evidence as not worthy of observation and record; and, moreover, for the archæologist of the present day, the part played by photography in assisting eye, hand, and brain, cannot be overestimated.

The scope of the present volume is confined to the geographical area from which European culture has sprung, and it is divided into three parts. The first, comprising somewhat more than a third of the contents, is devoted to Hebrew Authority, and is entirely the work of Canon Driver, Regius Professor of Hebrew at Oxford; it includes two chapters, one entitled "The Pentateuch," the other, "The Kings and After." The second part, Classical Authority, forms considerably the largest portion of the volume, and is shared by four writers, each contributing a chapter: "Egypt and Assyria," by F. Ll. Griffith, the capable editor of the Archæological Report of the Egypt Exploration Fund; "Prehistoric Greece," by Mr. Hogarth, the general editor; "Historic Greece," by Ernest A. Gardner, Professor of Archæology in University College, London; and "The Roman World," by Mr. Haverfield, Tutor of Christ Church, Oxford. The third part is devoted to Christian authority; and is also by a single author, Rev. A. C. Headlam, Fellow of All Souls' College, Oxford. It is less than 100 pages long, and is divided into three chapters, "The Early Church," "Remains in Phrygia," and "The Catacombs at Rome."

The monuments contain no mention of Abraham or of Melchisedek, but they give interesting particulars about the four kings from the East, mentioned in Gen. xiv., who were previously mere names. Those chapters which deal with the history of Joseph, display a marked familiarity with Egypt, and many illustrations of their statements have been supplied by discoveries made in that country. One of the most curious of these is the almost exact parallel between the story of Joseph and Potiphar's wife and a popular romance in Egypt called "The Tale of the Two Brothers." No assistance has been furnished by the monuments in establishing the date of Joseph's sojourn in Egypt, but the discoveries of M. Naville, in 1884, at the modern Saft, have fixed the site of the land of Goshen; and at about the same time he also determined the situation of the store-cities, Pithom and Ramses, at Tel-el-Maskuta and Tanis respectively. No more can the date of the Exodus be precisely determined from the evidence of the monuments, but there are strong grounds for holding that Ramses II. (nineteenth dynasty) was the Pharaoh of the oppression, and his successor, Merenptah, the Pharaoh of the Exodus. Until 1896 no mention whatever of the Israelites had been found on the Egyptian monuments; but in that year Mr. Flinders-Petrie discovered a large stele at Thebes containing a notice of them. The nature of the occurrences to which it alludes cannot be confidently pronounced upon, but it must be inferred that "Israel, or a part of that people, was already in some part of Syria, and had been in hostile contact with Egypt," thus affording a substantial confirmation of the Biblical narrative.

A valuable light is shed by inscriptions upon the historical credibility of the Acts of the Apostles, by which we are enabled to test the writer's information and the genuineness of the large amount of local color to be found in the book. In chapter xvi., which contains an account of St. Paul's visit to Philippi, in Macedonia, a word is used *(meris)* to designate the "district" in Macedonia in which it was situated, which occurs nowhere else in that signification, so that its genuineness has been justly suspected. But among the Fayum documents a considerable number make use of just the same word to describe divisions of that region. So, also, the writer gives the courtesy title of "prætor," with his attendant "lictors," to the magistrates of the city, on account of its being a Roman colony, as is usual in inscriptions from Roman colonies. From Philippi, Paul went to Thessalonica, not a Roman colony but a free city of Greece, with its own constitution; in this case the magistrates are called in the Acts "politarchs," a name which does not occur in any other place in Greek literature. Yet an inscription on an arch in that city, demolished some years ago, states that it was erected when certain named persons were "politarchs of the city." In like manner the whole narrative of the disturbances in the theatre of Ephesus, and of the significance of the worship of Diana (Artemis) to the life and trade of the city, as told in the Acts, has been illustrated by the results of discoveries made on the site of that city by the authorities of the British Museum, and especially by the recently published inscriptions from that place. The language of some of these seems almost identical with that of the Acts.

For the later period of Egyptian history Herodotus's accuracy has been confirmed, so far as the names and succession of the kings of the Saite dynasty and of the Persian invaders are concerned, by the monuments both of Egypt and of Assyria; but his account of the character and actions of Cambyses is not substantiated by them. Upon the life of the New Kingdom from the Saite period on, but little light is thrown from the paintings in the tombs, which are mostly copied from those of earlier times; a few fragments of historical stelæ, however, have been found in the Delta, although the temples of that region have been utterly destroyed. It is impossible, therefore, to test Herodotus's statements in regard to the monuments erected by the Saite Kings; but his account of the Greek colony at Naukratis, its temples, and its commercial importance have been confirmed by the recent explorations of the Egypt Exploration Fund. Mr. Griffith comments upon Herodotus's strange lack of even superficial knowledge of the geography of the country. Some instances can be pointed out in which his observation of manners and customs is certainly correct, as in regard to the early cultivation of the Indian lotus as a vegetable, or as to a standard field measure of 100 cubits square. Others are unfounded, or a distortion of facts, as that beans were never eaten, or that the vine was not cultivated. Egyptian religion knows nothing of the three orders of deities, or of the doctrine of metempsychosis, as told by him; but the idea that the deceased was denied burial until he had been judged worthy of it, may easily be inferred from the 'Book of the Dead.'

On the remote history of the people of the Tigris and Euphrates valleys Herodotus is silent; nor does he ever clearly distinguish between the Assyrians and the Babylonians, calling them both Assyrians. The rise of the power of the Medes is recounted by Herodotus at considerable length—that, after having been subject to the Assyrians for 500 years, they finally contrived to throw off the yoke; but this does not agree with the evidence of the cuneiform texts; so the Greek accounts of Cyrus and the siege and destruction of Babylon by him are contradicted by inscriptions. The monuments of Darius are numerous, and the great Behistun inscription recounts how he wrested the empire from the hands of the usurper, and quelled eight rebellions in the early years of his reign. This in the main is in confirmation of the account that Herodotus gives of those events, although the incidents related do not agree. The genealogy, however, of Xerxes, as given by Herodotus, is confirmed by the same inscription.

The Acropolis of Athens may be taken as a typical example of how much new and unexpected material can be gained by excavations upon a site already familiar, and bearing upon its surface most distinctive monuments. Systematic exploration, going down to the bedrock, has disclosed a mixture of architectural fragments, sculpture, vases, and other antiquities, placed there when the hill was levelled and lowered to its present shape and height, which must be the remains of buildings and works of art destroyed in the sack of the city by the Persians, 480 B. C. We have consequently a representative collection of accurately dated examples of attainment in the different arts in the times preceding. The foundations of the various buildings tell the tale of all the stages by which the fortress of a primitive settlement became the centre of religion and art. We have huge "Pelasgic" fortification walls of unhewn stone, following the contour of the hill, and provided with a postern-gate, as at Tiryns and Mycenæ, approached by a long flight of steps, and on the summit, as at those sites also, the remains of an early palace, doubtless "the well-built house of Erechtheus." On this favorite resort of Athena, where was her earliest shrine, we find the foundations of her original temple, destroyed by the Persians. It was built of a coarse limestone, covered with stucco, with painted ornaments and sculptured pediment, of which many fragments were found. We can now see how far outside the primitive fortification the walls built by Cimon, from the spoils of his victory over the Persians on the Eurymedon, were set, and can trace in them the old gateway that was superseded by the Propylæa of Pericles. Here, too, we find traces of early temples, never completed, which pre-

ceded the existing Parthenon, as well as of constructions of the late Roman period.

It is only in exceptional instances that the accumulation of débris on a classic site can be traced to a single historical event. At Olympia and at Delphi numerous objects of all periods and of all kinds have been recovered; and from careful observation of the exact position in which they were found, it has been possible to fix their precise date. At Olympia, where only a few broken columns were to be seen emerging from a cultivated plain, we can now trace the sacred precinct with its temples and altars, its treasure-houses, the gymnasium where the athletes were trained, and the stadium where they ran. The great athletic festivals of Greece take on a new life before our eyes, and the Odes of Pindar gather a fresh meaning, as we stand amidst the very surroundings where many of them were first sung.

The site of Delphi presented to the French excavators many engineering problems, which have been successfully overcome. We can now follow the route of the old processions along the pavement of the Sacred Way, zigzagging up from terrace to terrace to the sacred enclosure and the temple itself. On either side are the Treasuries of the various cities of Greece, and we can see the bases of the statues or groups set up to commemorate some of the most striking events of her history. Much of the sculpture that once adorned these Treasuries was found lying around their walls, and will be for ever preserved in a museum to be erected on the spot, as was done at Olympia. High up on the steep slope above the sacred enclosure is the space levelled for the Pythian stadium, still showing the starting-place and the goal of the runners, and the tiers of seats for the spectators.

In nothing do Greek and Roman history diverge so much as in the extent to which they depend upon the authority of the written record and upon archæological evidence. Both rest upon both sources of knowledge; but Greek history is well provided with both aids, while for the Roman historian the task is different. For the prehistoric period he has abundant evidence, but for the times of the Republic there is little archæological evidence to check or supplement the narrative of the classic writers. The reverse is true of the Empire; the literary records are few and of small historical value, but the archæological evidence is extensive and extraordinary, and most of it has been recovered during the last fifty years. Of prehistoric times and the beginnings of Italy our knowledge has been gained in the last thirty years; and it reveals two distinct features. There was a steady drift of immigrant tribes, moving down from the North through the Alpine passes, bringing with them their civilization, their modes of building and of burial, of dress and of artwork; and an influx of men from the eastern Mediterranean, in fewer numbers and of differing races, with their own peculiar fashions. Of Northern invaders two stand out prominent—those called the early Italians and the Gauls. The former, coming some fourteen centuries before the Christian era in a succession of tribes, drove the original occupants out of the valley of the Po, crossed the Apennines, and spread all over Central Italy. One tribe took possession of Latium and founded Rome. When they first occupied the Po valley they dwelt in villages built on piles, of which the remains, called by the Italians *Terremare* (from the character of the black fertilizing soil composing them), have been most scientifically explored by Chierici, Strobel, and especially by Pigorini, the head of the prehistoric museum at Rome. The best-known example is that of Castellazo, near Parma. It consists of a little village of some thirty acres, quadrilateral in shape, surrounded by a solid earthen rampart and a moat 100 feet wide. Within, two streets cross at right angles, dividing the area nearly equally; with lanes parallel to the main streets. In the centre stood a small citadel with its own rampart and ditch. We are here at the beginning of the later cities of Italy, for the principles on which it was laid out are precisely similar. There stands, at the junction of the Anio with the Tiber, a modern fort on an isolated rock, where once was Antemnæ, destroyed, according to legend, by Roman jealousy very soon after the foundation of the city. Excavations on this site have revealed a little village within a wall of stone, its temple and senate-house, its water cisterns and square hut foundations. From this we may judge what its rival, the earliest Rome, on the Palatine rock was like. Similarly the growth and expansion of Rome by the joining together by walls of hill to hill is illustrated by discoveries at Narce (afterwards called Falerii), under Mount Soracte, some thirty miles north of Rome. At its beginning it resembles Antemnæ, but it continued to annex height after height, until at last it became a city on five hills, before its final overthrow by the Etruscans.

Besides the slow but steady uncovering of Pompeii, systematic explorations of other Roman sites in various regions have been carried on by the French at Carthage, Thamugadi, and Lambæsis, in Northern Africa; by the Austrians at Carmentum on the Danube; and by the English in Montenegro, and in London and many places in their own island, and stations on the line of the Wall of Hadrian. In this way much has been learned about the establishment of *coloniæ* and *municipia* in various countries of western Europe and northern Africa, the Danubian lands, and southern Gaul. The history of the frontier defences of the Empire has been carefully studied during the past few years. As a general rule, the interior was empty of troops; and the Roman army was stationed only in the frontier districts along the Rhine and the Danube, in north Britain, along the edge of the Sahara and on the Euphrates. The most important explorations that have been carried on by the Germans are those of the *Limes*, a great system of forts, walls, and earthworks (still existing in many places and called *Pfahlgraben* or by other names), which once defended the frontier for more than 300 miles, from Bonn on the Rhine to Regensburg on the Danube. This was begun before the time of Trajan, as a palisade of wood where there was no river defended by forts built at suitable spots. Successive rulers pushed it forward across the middle Rhine, and still further east till it reached completion in the third century. The exploration is subsidized by the Government, directed by a central committee, and carried out by duly qualified local antiquaries, each responsible for his own section; and the results have enlarged the bounds of knowledge.

We must here take leave of this work which we have but skimmed, and which, for its wide learning, sound judgment, and accurate information, fully abreast of the latest discovery, we can heartily commend to the careful study of all who take an interest in questions of history and antiquities, of literature and of art, both sacred and secular.

BANCROFT'S SEWARD.—I.

The Life of William H. Seward. By Frederic Bancroft. With portraits. In two volumes. Harper & Brothers. Post 8vo, pp. 553, 576.

In 1860 William H. Seward was the undisputed leader of the Republican party. He had able coadjutors, men of striking individuality, strong character, high courage, and determined will; but six years of parliamentary conflict and popular agitation had made his exposition of party principles and aims authoritative, had consolidated his influence and proved the wisdom of his practical generalship, until his leadership was scarcely less complete than Clay's had been in the old Whig party in his prime. Under a parliamentary government like that of England, he would have been the head of the Administration, as a matter of course, when his party attained a majority. Like Gladstone, his conduct of the struggle which carried his party to power, would have insured his place as head of the executive ministry. But our system is not the English, and, in the popular nomination of a President, Seward found, as Webster and Clay had found before him, that parliamentary leadership was a disqualification under prevalent theories of availability. Providence dealt kindly with us, and gave us in Lincoln a great man for the office. No more thanks to the standards of availability were due, however, than when in 1856 they gave us a Frémont.

As an excuse for smashing our idols, we are prone to exaggerate their imperfections if not to invent faults for them, and the unfriendly suggestions industriously circulated among the groups of a nominating convention or printed in newspapers by partisans of another candidate not infrequently get a place in history simply because they are a convenient way of accounting for a leader's defeat. It is the business of the impartial biographer to trace the authorship of such aspersions, and to rate very low those which have no better foundation than the hostility of heated political strife, inside or outside of a party. The effort made at the end of 1862 to drive Mr. Seward from Lincoln's Cabinet well illustrates the injustice which may be done in troubled times, when a party scapegoat is wanted, and when even able men, in their excitement, forget to demand the proof of insinuations whispered in their ears. Some of the best men in the Senate were misled into hostility to the Secretary, and went to the President to urge his dismissal. Mr. Lincoln's mingled sagacity and frankness soon made most of them see how wrong they were, and how baseless were their complaints. We can now see that had Mr. Seward left the Administration, an incalculable mischief would have been done the country, and some of the most patriotic men in Congress would have been the instruments in doing it.

Such considerations seem a fit introduction to a notice of Mr. Bancroft's book, because

he deals with theories of motive and character to an extent quite unusual. He divides the statesman's career into two contrasted parts at the point of his defeat for the Presidential nomination in 1860. The preceding part is supposed to be dominated by a selfish ambition for place and power, the succeeding by abnegation of self and intense patriotic devotion to the cause of his country. In the first, the author not only makes a general attribution of unworthy purpose, but follows every specific act with the explanation in accordance with it, as if to run no risk that the reader should be misled by its apparent rectitude or merit. In our biographical reading, we do not recall an equal example of continuous guidance of the reader's judgment. In the second part the opening steps are somewhat uncertain, but, from the awakening thunder of the cannon at Fort Sumter, Seward's courage and energy, his inspiring hopefulness, his genius for diplomacy, his sagacious judgment, his untiring industry, his boundless capacity for work in any and every useful direction, his forgetfulness of everything but the overmastering purpose that the country should triumph, his abnegation of all thought of candidacies and of future career for himself, are all drawn with a distinctness of line and a fulness of illustration that are most telling. If a word or a phrase sometimes recalls the treatment of the earlier chapters, it is only as in the "Tannhäuser" overture where bars of the vice *motif* try to obtrude when the swelling march of the nobler theme is asserting its full power.

That we are not mistaking the author's conception of his own work is shown by a striking passage in the first volume, which quotes Seward's words in regard to J. Q. Adams at that great man's death. True to the method of the first part, to which reference has been made, the reader's sympathy with Seward's warmly expressed love and veneration for Adams, in whom he had "lost a patron, a guide, a counsellor, and a friend," is checked by bringing in his relations to Thurlow Weed:

> "He was not less eager to inherit the mantle of the one than to be the beneficiary of the schemes and power of the other. So, *until he laid aside his ambition for preferment many years later*, he was like Daudet's hero, who heard two voices:
>
> '*Tartarin-Quichotte, très exalte:*
> Couvre-toi de gloire, Tartarin!
> *Tartarin-Sancho, très calme:*
> Tartarin! Couvre-toi de flanelle!
>
> Seward always showed a preference for getting first the covering of *flanelle*, knowing that *gloire* fits best on the outside. Carlyle said of Voltaire: 'He loved truth, but chi fly of the triumphant sort.' Seward desired to be true to Adams's example, but he thought it necessary to keep Weed as a guide and ally in the struggle" (p. 201).

Here, the words which we have italicized indicate the development of the Life in two contrasted parts ruled by contrasted motives; and the method of dealing with the first by depreciating comparison, suggestion, and witty innuendo is shown in full bloom. The author does not usually marshal the opposing influences in so overwhelming proportion—Weed, Voltaire, Tartarin, three to one against Adams; but he is true to the method. As a literary plan, looked at as a scheme for a drama, it is a taking one and promises entertainment; but how about its truth to nature and to fact? We must look a little closer at Mr. Bancroft's sources and material.

In studying Mr. Seward's diplomacy as Secretary of State, Mr. Bancroft has gone to original authorities and made good use of the facilities at his command as a subordinate officer in the State Department. It would perhaps be safe to guess that the interest in the subject stimulated by his growing acquaintance with the unpublished records and correspondence suggested the writing of a new Life of Seward, in which the diplomatic history of the civil war might be treated more fully and with greater unity and better connection than had been done before. The Seward MSS. and the Bigelow MSS. were opened to him, and the key to many an interesting situation was thus given. Whatever the actual growth of the work, we have reason to congratulate ourselves that this part of the history of the great rebellion has been written with fulness and sympathetic comprehension of its great difficulties and its great triumphs, scarcely less interesting or less important than the victories of Grant and Sherman. Mr. Bancroft's second volume is a positive addition to our historical knowledge of its period, and a fine presentation of the incidents, the inner qualities, and the strategy of a notable diplomatic contest. His genuine admiration for Mr. Seward in it shines through every page. The last fifteen chapters of the book thus carry one along with the author in keen enjoyment. The theme is a grand one, the tone is high, the style is good, our patriotism is stimulated, and nothing jars upon the harmony unless it be a rare and faint echo of the harsher tone of the earlier part of the work.

In that earlier part, the materials are, of course, more familiar. Mr. F. W. Seward's Memoir and Letters, with Mr. Baker's edition of the Works, are necessarily the basis of all biography of the statesman. The facts of his life, his speeches, and his state papers cannot be much enlarged; they speak for themselves. The personal part was given by his son with a completeness that left little to be desired, and with a judgment and taste beyond criticism. As his father's intimate confidential assistant in the most important part of his career, Mr. Frederick Seward is also an independent authority of real weight. Little would seem to be left for a new biographer in the years before 1860 but to condense or select from this material and to throw side lights upon it by excursions into contemporaneous history. This abridgment and recasting Mr. Bancroft has done with skill, and has combined with the Life itself such extracts from speeches and papers as give a good idea of Seward's style, characteristics of thought, political philosophy, and methods in controversy and in leadership. The distinctive note, however, of this part of the Life is the constant reiteration of suggestions of selfish and unworthy purpose to which reference has already been made. They do not grow naturally out of the facts narrated. They could generally be deleted without marring the continuity of the story or leaving any trace of erasure. The suggestion is often the reverse of what the unassisted reader would draw from the circumstances. To one who yields himself to the author's guidance, it gives a sinister air to the conduct of a life. To one who has formed opinions on history and looks for himself at the evidences of motive, it begets a rebellion at being thus held in leading-strings—a rebellion which increases as he notices how often it is sheer innuendo or ironical praise.

In Seward's governorship, the "Hilderberg War" broke out, being a rebellion of tenants of the Van Rensselaer manor against the terms of "perpetual leases subject to the feudal tenure of the seventeenth century." Gov. Seward sent the militia to support the Sheriff, who was mobbed, and, when the disturbance was quelled, he recommended to the Legislature "liberal remuneration" to the militia who had shown "alacrity in obeying the call of the magistrate to sustain the civil authority." At the same time, while condemning the tenants' appeal to mob-law, he declared the "tenures oppressive, anti-republican, and degrading," and recommended statutory relief. Lest we should praise the chief magistrate for his union of statesmanship with executive energy, Mr. Bancroft adds: "If either the militia or the anti-renters failed to become supporters of Seward, they must have been hard to please" (p. 119).

Seward's defence of Freeman, a poor demented negro indicted for murder, was in the face of popular excitement that threatened an appeal to lynch law. Nothing could be more unpopular at the time than the advocacy of such a cause, though the man's idiocy was afterwards acknowledged. Mr. Bancroft carefully tempers his applause for Mr. Seward's "sense of duty and his fearlessness of temporary passions," by reminding us that he exhibited no less "his keen insight, which told him that there was an opportunity to do a brave, philanthropic act, which ultimately must redound to his advantage, both professionally and politically" (p. 179). Subjected to so keen an insight into motives, one humbly repeats the Scripture question, Who shall stand?

In the "midsummer madness" of the Know-Nothing movement of 1854, the crumbling of the old parties under the disintegrating influence of slavery had made a wild rush into a secret order, which captivated men's imagination by astonishing election results of which no breath of warning had been given. In the Northern States the society was largely composed of men who sympathized with the anti-slavery cause, and who were openly urged to join the order as the new party which would most surely realize their hopes. Chase in Ohio and Seward in New York were alike opposed to proscription of foreign-born citizens and to political action through secret societies, and both were leaders in the "Anti-Nebraska" uprising. Chase was a candidate for the Ohio governorship, Seward for the senatorship from New York. In both States the anti-slavery principle had more virile strength than the "Americanism." In Ohio the nominating convention was called as a non-partisan one, and Know-Nothings who were delegates to it voted for Chase, who was nominated. In New York, Know-Nothings elected to the Legislature voted for Seward, who was reëlected to the Senate. In both States the Democratic newspapers shouted, "Bargain and corruption," and, in Ohio, contributions to the pamphlet debate as to how it was done have been made even within the last year. As to Seward, Mr. Bancroft adopts the assertions of the Opposition, attributing the management to Mr. Weed, whose "peculiar means of persuasion were generally as effective as they were secret" (p. 376). As to Chase, he remarks: "In the West, Chase was high in

popular favor. Ohio Republicans enthusiastically chose him as their candidate for the Governorship, and already there was talk of making him the party nominee for the Presidency in 1856" (p. 387). Is this comparative history?

If we were to go through the examples of similar treatment of subjects, the list would be nearly equal to the topics of this first volume. The criticism is not at all that the author takes a low view of Mr. Seward's political motives. It is that, instead of an induction of motive from the historical facts, there is a systematic attribution of motive contrary to the natural logic of the facts. The historical narrative shows Mr. Seward to have been a man of clean personal life, of strong convictions, persistent and frank in adhering to them, refusing to abandon the tenets he had advocated, however unpopular they might be. Secret political societies, proscription of foreign-born citizens, slavery, disunion, were the objects of his condemnation, and his hostility to them lasted till his death. The philosophical presentation of his views which was habitual with him, showed that they were not accepted upon impulse, but were thought out with care, weighing reasons on both sides, and reaching conclusions worthy to be called a system of political beliefs. He is entitled to the credit of sincerity, because of his adherence to his system in good report as well as in evil. Whoever denies this should be held to the duty of furnishing solid proofs, not suspicions and mere aspersions. It is, of course, true that, in the leadership of a good cause, the sin of using forbidden means may be committed; but the same production of evidence is here also demanded. The general historian may assume a public man's character to be known. The duty of the biographer is distinctly to develop it. We do not find that Mr. Bancroft does this. Let us see if it is done in some greater crises of Mr. Seward's career.

Sailing Around the World. By Capt. Joshua Slocum. The Century Co.

This is an account of one of the most remarkable and successful nautical enterprises ever attempted, whose claim to preeminence resides in the fact that it involved a cruise of 46,000 miles on all of the oceans, in a sloop thirty-six feet nine inches in length over all, and of nine tons net burden, sailed by one solitary man. This exploit was accomplished, not in the interests of trade or for the sake of gain, but seemingly from a spirit of adventure and of spontaneous love of the water. That Capt. Slocum was not inspired by sordid impulse was a source of ceaseless wonder at the various ports at which he touched—except at Samoa, the only place that he visited where he never heard allusion made to what "would or would not pay." Many successful conflicts have been waged with the sea in craft of small dimensions—in them explorers and shipwrecked mariners have made long and perilous voyages; but never before has a single man embarked with such calm deliberation in so diminutive a vessel to circumnavigate the globe, and carried the venture to a successful conclusion.

It is not to be expected that the average reader, unacquainted with nautical vicissitudes, will be able to gauge in all of its dimensions the extraordinary exploit of Capt. Slocum; but in those who have seen the ocean in all its moods from the decks of sailing craft, or who have passed all their days at the edge of the heaving sea, or who have sailed small boats in dangerous waters at all times and at all seasons, it will arouse sentiments of unqualified admiration and respect for him as a valiant and resourceful man. It is from this point of view that the author's simple and unpretentious narrative of his cruise must be judged. Absence of literary finish and florid word-painting sinks into insignificance compared with the overwhelming impression his story conveys of dominant courage and placid self-reliance.

The rig of a sloop is the most unsuited for navigating the open sea. It is heavy, cumbersome, and dangerous there, even when handled with a crew numerous and able. Yet it was in such a craft, alone and unaided, that Capt. Slocum sailed from Boston to Gibraltar, thence across the South Atlantic to Brazil and the Straits of Magellan, where he changed the rig into that of a yawl—an ideal one for cruising in small vessels. His skill as the skipper of a sloop was all the more remarkable inasmuch as his nautical training had been acquired in square-rigged craft. This emphasizes the extraordinary quality of his seamanship. As a navigator, he was no less surprising. Provided with a cheap tin clock in lieu of a chronometer, he was rarely at fault in his longitude. When he expected to make a port, the bowsprit of the *Spray* was pointed directly at its entrance, when it was sighted, even after a forty-day run at sea. Naval officers, with all their scientific training and elaborate navigating tools, cannot always attain to this accuracy.

The original of the *Spray* was a fishing boat, supposed to be a hundred years old. When it came into the possession of Capt. Slocum, it was hauled up in a pasture lot in process of decay. Without assistance he rebuilt the craft upon the original lines. That he did the work thoroughly the record of the voyage reveals. Moreover, the sail-plan was well balanced; for, with the helm lashed, he sailed long stretches without touching the wheel. When the *Spray* was altered into a yawl, it did still better, for on one occasion it sailed on one course for twenty-two days, without his being at the wheel for more than an hour and a half during the entire period.

On April 24, 1895, Captain Slocum sailed from Boston, stopping at various coastwise ports until he reached Yarmouth, Nova Scotia, whence, on the 2d of July, he took his final departure from the American Coast, bound for the Azores, his first port of call, where he arrived July 20th. On July 26, the day after leaving the Azores, occurred the most dramatic incident of the voyage. Some of his friends on shore had presented him with a quantity of plums and a native cheese. He ate freely of both. The amalgam was not a harmonious one, for it brought on a dreadful attack of stomachic cramps. Before the Captain was completely disabled, a blow came on. He should have hove to; instead, he double-reefed the mainsail and, with a full jib, put the *Spray* on her course, lashed the wheel, and went below to roll in agony of pain on the cabin floor. While delirious from the disorder, he imagined that he saw through the companion-way a tall man at the helm, who doffed his hat and said to him, "I am one of Columbus's crew. I am the pilot of the *Pinta* come to aid you. Lie quiet, Señor Captain, and I will guide your ship to-night. You have a calentura; but you will be all right to-morrow." When the Captain recovered his full senses, it was broad day. The *Spray* still headed true, going like a race horse. The sloop had made ninety miles in the night through a rough sea with no one at the helm—except the supernatural visitor constructed out of equal parts of plums and white cheese.

It is unnecessary to follow further the itinerary of Captain Slocum. The record is there for all to read. The portion that will arouse the greatest interest among deep-water sailor-men is that which tells of the passage of the *Spray* through the Straits of Magellan, the most dangerous stretch of navigable water for sailing-craft known to the world. Its shores are littered with the wrecks of full-powered steamers that have succumbed to its treacherous shoals and currents; yet here was a man who, in a nine-ton sloop, single-handed, conquered all its dangers—furious "willywaws," squalls that sweep down from the encircling mountains, and threatened attacks of savages, averted only through fearless composure and ceaseless vigilance. After weeks consumed in the first passage through the Straits, when the Pacific Ocean was reached a furious gale drove him southward and thence eastward around Cape Horn. By skilful seamanship he regained the Straits and for a second time made the passage through them. One man without assistance to double Cape Horn in a nine-ton sloop or yawl! The feat is stupendous and unprecedented. The fame of Captain Slocum preceded him. Every lighthouse that he passed on foreign shores greeted him and the *Spray* with salutes by flag, or bell, or gun. With all the attention that was lavished upon him, his sense of humor was not diminished. No man ever took less seriously himself or his exploit. Although a native of Nova Scotia, he was a naturalized citizen of the United States, and always sailed in or commanded American ships. When the proposed Hall of Fame is constructed, a niche should be reserved for Captain Joshua Slocum as the representative of a type of American seaman that in the logic of events is passing out of existence.

Cuba and International Relations: An Historical Study in American Diplomacy. By James Morton Callahan, Ph.D. [Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.] Baltimore, 1899. Pp. 503.

In one respect, at least, Mr. Callahan has produced a remarkable book. In a volume of 500 pages, professedly the result of a painstaking study of original sources, both printed and manuscript, there is not a single footnote in citation of any authority, nor the least indication of the sources from which any particular statement has been derived. A few items on a prefatory page refer in general terms to certain printed and manuscript collections from which the material has been drawn, but such entries as "private correspondence, memoirs and diaries of public men," "Government publications, Washington," and "historical and political treatises, *passim*," are not quite the sort of reference one is accustomed to see in works

of historical scholarship. That Mr. Callahan has been industrious in gathering his matter is everywhere evident, but the fact that he has chosen to burn his bridges behind him makes it difficult for even the most expert student to follow him in his course.

Assuming, however, that his facts can all be properly vouched for—and considerable attention to a number of the more significant ones has disclosed no substantial inaccuracy—it may be said at once that the volume is a contribution of first-rate importance to a subject just now of especial interest. The political history of Cuba, primarily with reference to its bearings upon the history of America and the United States, is traced in detail from the earliest years, when Cuba was a centre of Spanish influence and control, down to the close of the Spanish-American war, which left the island without political attachment, and its inhabitants a people without a government or an allegiance. Notwithstanding a style almost excessively lively and entertaining, the author has preserved commendable impartiality, and treats the decline and fall of Spanish dominion in the New World with little trace of the cocksureness and flaunting of "manifest destiny" of which we see so much. On certain often-worked topics, such, *e. g.*, as the acquisition of Louisiana and Florida by the United States, the origin of the Monroe Doctrine, and the relations between this country and Cuba following the Cuban insurrection of 1868, the positively new information is not great. The account of the ten years' war, 1868-1878, and the mission of Gen. Daniel E. Sickles, seems to have been prepared with the assistance of Gen. Sickles himself. On other topics Mr. Callahan makes substantial additions to existing narratives. The policy of Spain towards the American colonies during the Revolution; the long story, in several instalments, of injuries to American commerce in Cuban waters; the negotiations of Polk, Pierce, and Buchanan for the purchase of Cuba, and the relations of both the United States and the Southern Confederacy to Spain and Cuba during the Civil War, are points at which the narrative is fuller than, if not substantively different from, any previous account.

The reading of Mr. Callahan's book serves to emphasize one striking characteristic of our historical relations to the Cuban question. Almost from the beginning, as he shows, there has been a clear feeling in some parts of the country, and in the minds of many public men, that the geographical situation of Cuba made it naturally a part of the United States, and that its command of the Gulf made its possession by any other Power more or less of a menace. At the same time, and notwithstanding the heated demands now and then made for forcible annexation, the predominant sentiment has always been that the island should not be incorporated with the United States save with the free consent of its inhabitants, as well as of Spain. The course of this Government since 1868, when systematic revolt in Cuba began, was in the main one of forbearance. That Cuba should ever have been brought into the anomalous condition in which it now is; that the United States should virtually have taken possession of it while declining to state whether it holds the island or not; that the Cubans themselves should have become subject to the military arm of a government to which as yet they owe no formal allegiance, but upon whose support they are absolutely dependent; and that the national independence for which they fought for a generation should seem less likely of realization after the overthrow of Spanish domination than before, is a situation for which the history of either Cuba or the United States affords little preparation. Mr. Callahan deserves high credit for the thoroughness with which he has done his work, even though his book is another proof of our slight regard for political consistency.

A Sanskrit-English Dictionary. By Sir Monier Monier-Williams. New edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

It is almost thirty years since the first edition of this dictionary was published, and a new edition has long been desirable, not only because the first was out of print, but because that first edition needed a very careful revision. The present volume, it may be said at once, is a great improvement on the old. The editor (or author, if the compiler of a dictionary may be called author) estimates that 60,000 words have been added, but the most important addition has been the care expended by the collaborating editors, whose names also appear upon the title-page, Prof. Leumann of Strassburg and Prof. Cappeller of Jena. Under the direction of such competent hands, the old Sanskrit Dictionary, full of careless blunders, has become a well-made compendium of the only great Sanskrit Lexicon, the St. Petersburg 'Sanskrit-Wörterbuch' of Böhtlingk and Roth. The young German scholars who have aided Prof. Williams make no pretence of writing a new dictionary, and indeed even Sir Monier-Williams himself can claim as new little save a questionable rearrangement of old material. As the authors of the St. Petersburg dictionary once remarked (in sorrow, not in pride), *Alles kommt nach uns*, and the best that can be said of this Sanskrit Dictionary is that it is a very convenient one-volume Englished condensation of the old seven-volume Sanskrit-German Lexicon.

Like all condensations, it is deficient, and its few references impair its worth to a very advanced scholar. Its vocabulary is extensive, but one looks into it in vain for such characteristic words as *kâryâtman*, *tridhâtman*, and *vikâritâ*. The Vedic thesaurus is fairly well represented, though perfection is not attained. But, for ordinary purposes, this dictionary is complete enough to be valuable to students, even when they are quite advanced. On the whole, it is a reliable and useful work.

In the Petersburg, all forms of a verb are arranged under the root, so that one may see at a glance the various adverbial (prepositional) combinations. This excellent disposition of verbal matter is the only scientific one in Sanskrit, as the adverbs have not yet become prepositions in the early language. Even in the later usage, it is more correct as well as more practical to range the verbs according to their prepositions under one head. Sir Monier-Williams in his first edition and after much mental labor (as he tells us) abandoned this plan, and still ranges the root under the prefix, in the same blind way in which Greek dictionaries are made; so that one has to hunt through the whole volume (and keep handy a list of prepositions) in order to study the meaning of a verb in its entirety—that is, as modified by its various combinable elements as well as in its naked unqualified condition. This much-vaunted "improvement" is the most serious practical defect in the work. It is also to be regretted that the editors did not banish the quite useless space-filling participial forms, which are entered as separate words, as if in a Greek lexicon one should make a special place for παρηγγελμένος. One wonders whether these are included in the "new words"; but certainly other words now omitted could better have stood in their places.

Sir Monier-Williams's death, in April last, occurred after he had revised the last proofs, and he had the satisfaction of seeing the work practically completed, though his hope of seeing it published was not granted. It is probable that this dictionary will remain as his most lasting contribution to Sanskrit scholarship, for, though it does not take the place of the German original, there are many English students of Sanskrit who need just such a work. Like other books of its class, it will doubtless reappear from generation to generation in improved editions, till some impatient fifth or sixth reviser ousts Sir Monier-Williams's name from the title-page and puts his own there, though with due acknowledgment in the preface to the fount of his learning, even as Sir Monier-Williams himself has acknowledged his own indebtedness in a preface.

Alexander the Great. By Benjamin Ide Wheeler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Three years ago Mr. David Hogarth published a brilliant biographical essay on Alexander, and, in one hundred and fifty pages, gave the general reader a masterly sketch of the great Macedonian's life and aims. In the volume before us, the President of the University of California set himself a very different task. His 500 pages form a history of the period as well as of the man. Nor is he content with this; four of the earlier chapters (pp. 81-148) hark back to the political organizations and ideas of fifth-century Greece, in the days before the little northern state of Macedonia became a factor in Greek politics, and wrested from the majority of Greeks a recognition of its claim to be considered no longer barbarian but Hellenic among the Hellenes. Such an analysis of the Greek state and the relation of the individual thereto, no doubt, adds value to Mr. Wheeler's work as a contribution to Greek history. But, for the general reader, we lament the long break in the story of Alexander's youth, and question whether it would not have been better to make these four chapters strictly introductory to the general narrative.

The fascinating story of Alexander's career, if only by taking us into the realm of the mysterious and the unexplored, throws the doings of Hannibal and Napoleon in the shade. Unfortunately, we have no contemporary record; but Arrian's simple and unembellished "Anabasis," written in the second century after Christ, is founded on the narratives of two of Alexander's actual associates, Ptolemy and Aristobulus, and its freedom from romance and rhetoric seems to render it a safe guide. Plutarch, who was about fifty years older than Arrian, wrote his famous 'Life' with a keen sense of the dramatic interest of such a personality. For the rest, we are depen-

dent on minor historians, who dressed out their facts with an eye on the contemporary reader of the historical novel. But even when stripped of rhetoric, Alexander's adventures read like fiction. Here was a youth who combined the open and resentful temperament of an Achilles with the resourcefulness of a Dumas hero, the beauty of an Adonis with the physique of an Olympic athlete. He was austerely ascetic from sheer pride, and his intellectual self-assertion was such that he could not endure that other men should learn of Aristotle the doctrines that he himself had mastered. At twenty, fretting at the narrow limits of a country that was always too parochial to sympathize with his ambitions, he set out on that conquering march from which he was never to return home to Macedonia.

Alexander was a true cosmopolite. Any country that he had conquered became, so to speak, his native land, and it was partly to this genius for adapting himself to all men and all ways of life that he owed his success. For thirteen years, with ever-widening aims, and consequent isolation from his stiff-necked Macedonians, he made a triumphant circuit of the Persian world. His invasions of Afghanistan and of India are, to modern readers, the most interesting features of his march. Wherever he went, he grafted western civilization on Orientalism, never losing sight of his ultimate object, that merging of east and west which he symbolized by his wedding with the Bactrian princess Roxana. When Alexander died at Babylon at the age of thirty-two, he was on the eve of an expedition into Arabia which was to round off his empire and fill up the gaps that had been left in earlier expeditions. His task was unfinished, and he had no true successor. But he had planted seventy cities of the Greek type on Oriental soil, and had for ever broken down the barriers between the two main types of civilization.

Mr. Wheeler tells the story of Alexander's aims and achievements with considerable detail and admirable clearness. His style is always pleasing, and if his work falls short, to some extent, of the breadth and brilliance of Mr. Hogarth's essay, it is, on the other hand, far better suited to the needs of the student. The illustrations, as is usual in this series, are appropriate, and well reproduced; the book also is well furnished with maps and an index.

Essays on Subjects Connected with the Reformation in England. By S. R. Maitland. New York: John Lane.

The memory of S. R. Maitland is not being permitted to perish. A few years ago, Mr. Frederick Stokes reëdited his 'Dark Ages,' and the Rev. A. W. Hutton now gives us his 'Essays,' as above. It is just fifty years since Maitland himself collected the articles which he had contributed to the *British Magazine*, and brought them out in book form. Despite the research which has attended the vigorous controversies of the meantime, these papers have by no means lost their value. Every one admits the breadth and soundness of Maitland's historical knowledge. The force of his thrusts, too, is undeniable; and even opponents, where they are not surly, must admire the keenness of his wit. Nevertheless, we are a little surprised that this reprint should have come forward under the care of an Anglican clergyman. Maitland exasperated the Low Church party by his attack on the Puritans and Puritan influence, while he lost favor with the High Church party by assailing Keble's tract 'On the Mysticism Attributed to the Early Fathers of the Church.' The mere fact that he gained no preferment speaks volumes, for few bishops equalled him in point of learning and ability. Had he found favor with either school, High or Low, he would at least have been made a dean.

Mr. Hutton, however, is not prompted so much by the spirit of ecclesiastical warfare as by the love of historical truth. He sees in Maitland one who was shocked by the sight of narrow prejudice, especially when combined with crass ignorance. Every reader of the 'Dark Ages' will remember Maitland's vindication of St. Eligius, and his fierce onslaught upon the idea that the mediæval church did not know and use the Bible. He considered that a great many similar fallacies existed in the popular mind with regard to the English Reformation. One of them was that the Puritans were altogether heroic and admirable. Accordingly, Maitland hastened to show that they scuttled away over seas when persecution began, and, by quoting from Traheron and similar authors, he proved that their language was very questionable. He wrote in this strain, not because he held a brief for one side, but because he could not without impatience hear either ill-grounded encomium or ill-grounded denunciation. Mr. Hutton sees in him one who would always have changed the object of his attack according to the popularity of this or that historical aberration. Were Maitland living now, Mr. Hutton assumes, his love of historical truth would lead him to be shocked by the fashionable conception of what occurred in England between 1531-1560.

"It is a grave matter that some thousands of religious teachers throughout the country, men whose position demands that their utterances should be treated with respect by those to whom they speak, should, in the interests of a quite modern conception of what the Church of England really is, be now insisting on a minimizing account of what happened at the Reformation, such as no historian would accept as even nearly accurate."

We also think that Maitland, were he living now, would say sharp words on this subject.

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Allen, C. Notes on the Bacon-Shakespeare Question. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
American Street Railway Investments for 1900. New York: The Street-Railway Publishing Co.
A Woman's Paris: A Handbook of Every-Day Living in the French Capital. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Twentieth Century Knighthood: A Series of Addresses to Young Men. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 75c.
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The Week.

Last week's Republican State conventions in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Wisconsin show that the party still shrinks from definiteness regarding a programme for the government of our new possessions. Most interest in the platform has been felt in Indiana, as public feeling has been more stirred over the treatment of Porto Rico in that State than anywhere else, and one of the Republican Congressmen was a most earnest opponent of the tariff policy. A compromise was reached by which the convention declared, in general terms, that "we unhesitatingly endorse and approve the policy and course of the Administration, and the legislation by Congress in respect to our newly acquired possessions," and expressed "full confidence in the wisdom, integrity, and ability of the Administration, supported by a Republican Congress, to deal wisely and justly with the questions concerning the same as they may arise." Quay's convention in Pennsylvania "fully endorsed" the Administration as a whole, but said not a word on the subject of our new possessions. The Wisconsin Republicans "endorsed the strong, brilliant, and progressive Administration" of President McKinley, and declared that "we rely upon our party to deal with and solve the problems that have come to us as a result of the Spanish war, in a manner that will reflect credit upon the party, and redound to the honor and strength of the nation."

Most curiosity has been felt about the platform that was adopted in Ohio, because everybody knew that it had been approved at the White House, and was intended to "sound the keynote." This deliverance "reaffirmed the principle that the representatives of the people have full power over territory belonging to the United States," qualified only by the provision that the power shall be exercised " in harmony with, and subject to, the fundamental safeguards of our free institutions for liberty, justice, and personal rights." The claim is made for this principle that it is the one "in which the Republican party had its birth, and on which Abraham Lincoln was elected President"—although the Republican platform of 1860 was never understood by Lincoln or anybody else to imply such a doctrine as is now asserted regarding the Philippines. This "full power," we are told, should be exercised "with the most just, generous, humane, and fraternal consideration for those over whom the authority of the nation is extended"; and the convention advocated for them free schools, full security for life, liberty, and property, the most liberal measures for the development of their agriculture and industry, and the largest degree of local self-rule for which they are fitted. Meanwhile the dispatches from Manila continue to report the destruction by American forces of the schoolhouses which the Filipinos already have, the overthrow of such self-government as they have established, and the slaughter, by the score, of natives armed only with bolos, who fight for their independence against our Maxim guns.

The Philippine plank of the Massachusetts Republican platform is a distinct retreat from the position taken by the same party in the same State last fall. In October of 1899, Massachusetts Republicans breathed such a spirit of liberty in their utterances about the future of the Philippines that, as will be remembered, they satisfied so stout an anti-Imperialist as ex-Gov. Boutwell. At that time they promised for the Philippines "a government as free, as liberal, and as progressive as our own, in accordance with the sacred principles of liberty and self-government upon which the American republic so securely rests." Now they talk only of "an adequate government upon the principles of liberty and humanity," and of "establishing order and civilization in place of anarchy and barbarism." There are also fine words about our determination "not to oppress or misgovern" the Filipinos, nor to "exploit" them; and there is a recommendation that the civil-service laws be extended to the islands. This is the first appearance of such a recommendation in a Republican platform; Hanna having strangely forgotten to include it in the Ohio deliverance.

The sudden agreement of the conference committees of the Senate and House of Representatives on the amendments to the bill for the government of Porto Rico, shows that pressure was strongly applied by the Administration. The result is not only a decided victory for the House of Representatives, but also a really remarkable law regulating the granting of corporate franchises. In fact, it is doubtful if in any State in the Union, except Massachusetts, any such attempt to prevent the abuses commonly complained of has been made. In the first place, it is provided that all railroad, telephone, and telegraph franchises granted by the Porto Rican Government shall not be operative without the approval of the President. In the next place, all franchises are to be subject to amendment or repeal; shall forbid the issuing of stocks or bonds except for money or property of equal value with the securities at their par value; shall forbid the declaring of stock or bond dividends; shall provide for the regulation of charges, and for the purchase of the property of corporations by the Government. Apprehensions concerning the monopoly of land shall be quieted by the provision forbidding its acquisition by companies dealing in real estate, or by any companies except for restricted purposes; and even agricultural corporations will be permitted to own or control not more than 500 acres of land. These restrictions apply to foreign corporations, as well as to those created by the Porto Rican Government. They appear to be ample to protect Porto Rico against "exploitation" by American capitalists; and they are probably so stringent as to make the island a rather unattractive field for investors of capital in general.

The bill authorizing the President to appoint a commission to study and report on the commercial and industrial conditions in China and Japan is meeting with opposition in the House of Representatives. In the committee of the whole, on Monday, a motion to strike out the enacting clause was carried. Such a commission, as we have pointed out, is a mere embodiment of favoritism and patronage. The merchants who have extended their trade to China and Japan did not do so because of any information or advice given them by governmental commissioners, and the successful merchants of the future will not conduct their business with any reference to the views of the commissioners to be appointed under this bill. It is said that one argument used against the bill was that the work of the commission was already done by the "Commercial Museum" of Philadelphia, an institution for which Congress has heretofore made an appropriation. This museum will some time attract public attention, but it will be because of its relations to politics, not trade. Meanwhile, if its existence prevents the appointment of the Oriental Commission, it will not have lived in vain.

Secretary Root's sudden alarm about an undated attack on the Monroe Doctrine by an unnamed foe, irresistibly reminds one of the boy artist who ran sobbing to his mother with his slate, crying out, "Oh, mamma, I am so frightened at the ogre I have made!" Intellectually, such a baseless call to arms as Mr. Root made at the Grant dinner on Friday night is unworthy of him. Not even his immediate hearers could have taken him seriously. They and everybody must see that he was simply trying to fire the

popular heart, so as to get his army bill through Congress. Such vague talk about foreign aggression, as a means of extracting more battalions from a reluctant legislature, is a very fine trick for Emperor William to resort to, but a civilian Secretary, with no process of *Majestätsbeleidigung* to prevent people from laughing at him, merely makes himself ridiculous by these manœuvres. And above all things, for Mr. Root to seize upon the Monroe Doctrine as the thing in peril! Can any foreign aggressor trample upon it more completely than we ourselves have been doing in the past two years? Is Secretary Root maintaining a force of 65,000 soldiers in the Philippines to prove to the Old World that it must not meddle with us because we have no thought of interfering with it?

Quay has lost—beaten by only one vote, it is true, but still beaten. More than once a great question in our politics has been decided by the same narrow margin, but the decision has stood as firmly as though there had been a large majority. Senators are exceedingly human, and one generation cannot bind its successor; but the late vote undoubtedly settles in the negative for a long time to come the question whether a claimant to a seat by a Governor's appointment made under such circumstances as Stone's of Quay, shall be admitted. This decision is in the public interest, as a matter of Constitutional construction. To recognize the right of an executive to fill a seat for a year or two when the Legislature might have elected but failed to do so, is to put a premium upon legislative deadlocks and intrigues between Governors and Senatorial aspirants. Such deadlocks have grown increasingly frequent of late years without the injection of this element, and it is obvious that failures of Legislatures to make a choice would happen much oftener if a shrewd wire-puller could hope to get his credentials through the Governor's aid. In this case the claimant first nominated the Governor, then kept the Legislature from electing anybody else, and finally had his agent as Executive give him credentials. Quay's defeat will greatly encourage all the forces in Pennsylvania which for years have been seeking his overthrow.

It is natural that Quay should hold Hanna most to blame for his rejection, inasmuch as the Ohio Senator's vote against admitting him as a colleague not only was a surprise to everybody, but is alleged to have been in violation of an understanding that the Pennsylvanian would have his support. All sorts of motives for this change of base are suggested, and Hanna himself probably does not expect the public to take seriously his statement that a stern sense of duty in interpreting the Constitution dictated his course. But whether it was because larger contributions were promised for the Republican campaign fund with Quay excluded from the Senate than he could guarantee if he should be seated, or for any other reason, the public will profit if Quay seeks revenge, as it is reported that he will, by blocking jobs in which Hanna is interested, like the Shipping Subsidy Bill. The trouble is that nobody can feel any confidence that Quay will "stay mad" to this extent when so many of Hanna's schemes are also zealously pushed by interests which the Pennsylvania boss has always championed.

Almost as unsavory as the beef scandal it was investigating are the itemized accounts of the commission, as lately sent to the Senate. The huge total—$105,000—is swollen by some of the most extraordinary charges which a helpless and good-natured government was ever called upon to pay. Extravagance is stamped on the surface of them all, and apparent illegality on some. It is certain that a vigilant and fearless Secretary of War—no one will think we mean Alger—would have pruned away many of the items mercilessly. But there was thought to be no bottom to the National Defence Fund, and everybody was at liberty to help himself. This pervasive spirit of extravagance is one of the evil spirits that attend on war. War is waste wholesale, and what is the use of trying to make petty economies when millions are being flung about? They are suffering in England now from the tendency to reckless expenditure which war begets. In vain does Sir William Harcourt call upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer to hold the purse-strings tighter. The money comes in freely—there was the "Chicago Smith" windfall of $4,500,000 in death duties; what are you worrying about? Yes, said Sir William, but what will you do in a year when you have a "large quantity of east-windfalls"?

Gold exports from this market to Europe have begun again. The movement is not unusual for this season of the year; in fact, a considerable shipment in April was the rule during the two decades before the remarkable change in our international balances two years ago. Even rather heavy exports would attract little attention now, but for the fact that the visible trade balance in this country's favor continues so enormous. In the nine completed months of the fiscal year, the excess of merchandise exports over imports was, it is true, $35,000,000 less than a year ago; but an export balance reckoned at $105,800,000 remained, and we have not this year, as we did in the year before, largely offset this credit by a huge import of gold. Taking together the Treasury's figures of foreign trade in merchandise, gold and silver, the apparent nine months' balance in this country's favor would be greater by fully twenty millions than in the fiscal year 1899. The seeming anomaly of a continuous rise of foreign exchange, in the face of such conditions, has led to the inference, freely expressed in many quarters, that the new bank-note issues, under the act of March 14, are beginning automatically to drive out gold.

Gov. Roosevelt has appointed an excellent commission to revise the charter of New York city. Most of the fifteen men are well and favorably known to the public, and as a body it should be capable of effective and harmonious work. The risks in such an enterprise are twofold—from mere theorists, who would want to go too far in overhauling things, and from practical politicians, who would have one scheme or another that they wish to put through. Both of these perils appear to have been avoided. There are men who have been practical politicians, but there is no reason to fear any union of them against the public interest; and there are men who have devoted themselves to theories of government and administration, but they are more than mere theorists. The situation demands wisdom and caution in making the comparatively few changes that are required, and it appears reasonable to expect this. Certainly the Governor has done his share of the work in a way that merits high praise.

Theoretically, it may appear at first thought that something is to be said for the principle of having the appraisers of estates which fall under the State inheritance tax law appointed by State authority, as is required for the counties of New York, Kings, and Erie by the bill which Gov. Roosevelt has just signed. But a little investigation shows that there is gross impropriety in having such appraisers appointed by the State Comptroller, because he must also engage counsel to prosecute estates for non-payment of taxes, so that the same official would be naming attorneys and the judges who must hear their cases. Moreover, if the State is to regulate this matter at all, it ought to regulate it everywhere—as much in St. Lawrence County as in New York, in Tioga as in Kings. The measure which Gov. Roosevelt has just made a law was purely a partisan job for the benefit of the Republican machine in the city of New York; Erie County having obviously been added to New York and Kings solely to keep the bill out of Mayor Van Wyck's hands, and all pretence of uniformity having been abandoned by leaving the other counties as before. Everybody recognized that this was a machine job, pure and simple, before Gov. Roosevelt endorsed it. He had hardly given the bill his ap-

proval before a meeting of machine leaders was called in this city to distribute the spoils. If any theorist as to the wisdom of State selection of appraisers in the various counties had not been undeceived by the restriction of the change in the method of appointment to three out of the sixty-two counties, he must have seen his error when he read of Saturday's gathering. The boss himself had to come on from Washington to settle the squabbling.

A strike of considerable dimensions has just been terminated at Lowell, Mass., under circumstances which are creditable to all parties concerned. The strike was by the weavers in a carpet mill, who had formed a union, one of the rules adopted being that no member should weave more than two and a half cuts a day. A certain Mrs. Derrick, however, finding that she could easily do more than was prescribed, undertook to weave three cuts a day, and was therefore expelled from the union. Furthermore, the union insisted that she be expelled from the factory if she persisted in her independent course. The managers of the mill very honorably refused to deprive Mrs. Derrick of employment on any such ground as this, and after a number of days of idleness the members of the union concluded that it would be best to rescind their obnoxious ordinance, reinstate the insubordinate member, and return to work. Whatever benefits laborers may derive from their unions, we cannot include among them the discouragement to industry and ability caused by rules which limit the production of their members to the quantity which the feebler workmen can produce. Such rules are defended on the ground that employers will take the capacity of the best workmen as their standard in fixing wages, and will thus be enabled to lower the wages of the less effective laborers. But wages are not fixed by employers in this arbitrary way, and the fallacy of the argument appears when work is paid for by the piece, and not by the time spent over it.

The strike of the men employed in the shops of the New York Central Railroad at Buffalo seems to have been caused by no particular grievances. So far as now appears, the hands of the managers of the railroad are entirely clean. Only a month ago they raised the wages of the men now on strike 10 or 12 per cent., and the rate paid is as high as that prevailing on any other road. The railroad managers, however, aver that if the trouble is concerning wages, they are willing to discuss it, and even to submit it to arbitration. But if the point at issue is the control of the working force, the managers declare flatly that no discussion or arbitration will take place. They are responsible for the safety of the lives of the passengers and of the trainmen, and for the swift and safe carriage of property of enormous value; and this trust cannot be discharged if men are to be employed and discharged only with the consent of the "business agents" of the labor unions. This method of operating a railroad was once tried under the auspices of the Knights of Labor, and proved so unsatisfactory that it had to be abandoned. The locomotive engineers on the Reading Railroad, where the Knights of Labor were temporarily in control, paid very little attention to orders or to discipline. Some of them would stop their trains wherever they saw friends with whom they wanted to gossip. On the issue of maintaining rigid discipline among their employees, the managers of the Central Road will have hearty support. They ought to have as hearty support in standing out for the right of laborers who do not belong to unions, to maintain themselves without being molested for their independence. The strike bears marks of being originated by professional agitators, and it is evidently the result of prosperity rather than of poverty.

Struggling as it is under a load of debt, and compelled to retrench in every possible direction, the Spanish Government has taken a step in regard to its pensioners living in Cuba which seems hard to justify. By telegraphic orders the Spanish Consul-General in Havana was directed to suspend payment of all pensions due the widows and children of Spanish officers, resident in the island. This threatens to deprive many worthy and helpless people of their chief means of subsistence. The excuse given is, of course, that voluntary expatriation deprives these pensioners of all rightful claim on the Spanish Treasury. But established practice had hitherto allowed pensioners to live abroad, a special decree covering their case, and providing simply that they should give notice to the Government of their intention to reside out of Spain. To depart without warning from this well-known rule of procedure seems unwarranted and harsh. Loyal Spanish newspapers in Cuba, like the *Diario de la Marina*, complain bitterly of this action of the Spanish Government, which they say will bring hardship to many dependent women and children, and which is "neither just nor proper."

No higher or more impartial testimony could be given to the efficient activity of the Government of India, in the presence of the terrible famine, than was borne last week by the Indian delegates to the Œcumenical Conference. Of all denominations and of many nationalities, they declare that the Indian Government is "doing all that any Government on earth could do," and is, in fact, "achieving a greater work of rescue than any Government has ever, in the world's history, undertaken before." Yet these experienced missionaries add that the necessities of the stricken people go beyond the possible range of governmental relief, and that private charity on a large scale, intelligently directed, must supplement the work of the Government and save lives that would otherwise be lost. We are glad to see that a committee was appointed to open a public subscription in this city. There can be no doubt that, out of our abundance, a perfect willingness exists to minister to the needs of these imperilled millions, and that an organized appeal to our men of means and humanity will meet with a ready response. When the charitable of all the world are astir in this urgent matter, Americans must not sit with folded hands. We call attention to our New Haven letter on another page.

The fact has scarcely been noticed in the United States that the gold standard has been established in India, not merely in theory, but in practice, during the past year. In 1893, when the Indian Currency Commission decided to put a stop to the coinage of silver, except on Government account, it was decided that the Government would receive gold in payment of taxes at the rate of 16d. per rupee (15 rupees equal to the sovereign), and would give rupees in exchange for gold at that rate. This decision was accepted by the public as a quasi-promise to redeem the rupees in gold at that rate whenever the Government should formally adopt the gold standard. The price of the rupee in the market, however, fell to 13d., and hovered around that figure for a long time. After a while it began to rise, although the price of silver remained stationary or nearly so, at 27½d. per ounce. Last July the Indian Currency Committee, of which Sir Henry Fowler was chairman, was able to announce that the price of the rupee had risen without any artificial supports to 16d., and that more than £2,000,000 of gold had flowed into the Indian Treasury in place of, or in exchange for, rupees. In March the announcement was made officially in Calcutta that the Government had accumulated £8,000,000 of gold, and that the market price of the rupee was firm at 16d., with not more than the usual variations of exchange between countries having the gold standard. The Government announced its intention to keep a permanent gold reserve of not less than £5,000,000. It thus appears that India has "grown up" to the gold standard since 1893 without any other help than the closing of the mints to silver. This result could not have been predicted, and was not anticipated by even the most sanguine advocates of the policy adopted in 1893.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

It is a novel feature of the political situation this spring that, so far as the dominant party is concerned, public attention is concentrated upon its nomination for Vice-President. Nothing like this has been seen for a long time. In April, 1896, although McKinley obviously stood the best chance of becoming the Republican candidate for President, there was enough opposition to make people think only of the higher office, while the Democrats were all at sea as to their national leader. In the spring of 1892, so many Republicans were hopeful of beating Mr. Harrison for renomination that hardly anybody thought about the Vice-Presidency. Even in 1888, when Cleveland encountered no opposition within his own party, there was far less interest as to who should be his associate on the ticket than there is in the case of McKinley this year.

The Republicans enjoy unusual freedom of action in this matter now. It has become almost an unwritten law that a candidacy for President from west of the Alleghanies shall mean the nomination for Vice-President of an Eastern man, and vice versa. Lincoln of Illinois and Hamlin of Maine; Grant of Illinois and Wilson of Massachusetts; Garfield of Ohio and Arthur of New York, are illustrations of this principle in one party; and in the other, McClellan of New Jersey and Pendleton of Ohio; Seymour of New York and Blair of Missouri; Cleveland of New York, and, in succession, Hendricks of Indiana, Thurman of Ohio, and Stevenson of Illinois. Only twice has this rule been broken. The desire for a war Democrat from a border State caused an exception to the principle when Johnson of Tennessee was nominated with Lincoln in 1864, and the division of Eastern support between Wilson of Massachusetts and Fenton of New York in 1868 enabled Colfax of Indiana, then at the height of his popularity, to become Grant's associate.

The motive of such action has been two-fold—first, a regard for considerations of locality, which formerly were more influential than they have been of late years; and, secondly, a desire to strengthen the ticket by conciliating a disaffected faction or by winning the support of doubtful men through their faith in the candidate for Vice-President. McKinley was greatly benefited four years ago by the choice of Hobart, a New Jersey man who was a far better representative of sound financial principles than his chief, and who secured for the ticket a degree of confidence among the business men of the East which was much needed. In 1876 and again in 1884 the Democrats were much helped by the selection of Hendricks as the associate of Tilden and Cleveland. It was always hard for the people of other States to comprehend the causes of Mr. Hendricks's great popularity and personal strength in Indiana, but there was no doubting the fact, and each of the New Yorkers profited by it.

This year an Ohio man is to be renominated for President without any opposition, and the party does not need to consult Eastern sentiment regarding his associate. In the spring of 1896 it was evidently desirable, if not essential, to have a candidate for Vice-President who would strengthen the ticket in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut. In the spring of 1900 only the most timorous of Republicans fear the loss of any one of these three States, and only the most reckless of Democrats suppose that Bryan will get an electoral vote in this part of the country.

There is no Western State which pushes a candidate of any particular strength. Indiana seems likely to be the most closely contested, but the Republicans have no Hendricks. Senator Fairbanks has been suggested, but he is the sort of rich man who runs better in a Legislature which has to elect a Senator than in a contest at the polls. Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin—in short, all the States in the Middle West—may be gone through without discovering a Republican who has such personal strength at home and in his section as Colfax possessed in his prime. Iowa Republicans resent the notion of one of their ambitious young leaders being taken for Vice-President, because they think that it would mean the refusal of the Speakership to Gen. Henderson in the next House, on the ground that one State should not have the presiding officers of both branches, and they are not willing to trade what they consider the larger office for the smaller.

The only candidate anywhere who is really popular is Roosevelt. A great many Republicans in the West evidently would like to see him on the ticket, and there are signs that some of the party managers think he would be the strongest man they could find. The Republican machine in this State has encouraged the movement, in order to get him out of the Governorship. But he does not want the place, and the effort to force him into it has been overdone. The schemers have gone so far as to say that the ticket needs to be strengthened in order that McKinley may be sure of re-election, and this is a reflection on both the President and the party. Neither wishes to confess such fear of Bryanism, and only such confession would excuse the thrusting of a nomination upon a man who does not want it.

Under these circumstances there is no reason why the best man available should not be picked out without regard to locality. The Massachusetts Republicans on Thursday proposed John D. Long, laying stress upon "his brilliant and successful administration of the affairs of the navy." As Legislator, Governor, Congressman, and Cabinet Officer, Mr. Long has served the public with distinction. Moreover, he can be thought of as a possible President without provoking a smile, which is a thing to be considered, although it is not always taken into account. The Republicans did not need to nominate a Massachusetts man for Vice-President in order to carry the State, twenty-eight years ago, and they have still less need to do so for that reason now. But a better candidate, from the party point of view, than Secretary Long, it would be difficult to designate, while his steady adulation of his chief should make him *persona grata* to President McKinley.

THE CONVICT LABOR PROBLEM.

A bill was passed by the New York Legislature in its closing hours which threatens to break up the system of employing convicts at remunerative labor. At a hearing before Gov. Roosevelt last week, the bill was explained and advocated by the representatives of certain manufacturers of Buffalo, who had procured its passage. The measure authorizes school trustees to buy desks and furniture not of prison manufacture. As a matter of fact, more than one-half of the school furniture bought during the last year was not made in the prisons. This is explained as due to the inability of the prison authorities to supply the demand, and it is asserted that better furniture can be bought of private concerns at lower prices than are asked by the State. It was further alleged that the present law, which requires the purchase of prison-made goods, so far as practicable, by public institutions, had thrown out of employment four hundred workmen formerly connected with a furniture manufactory at Buffalo.

Gov. Roosevelt objected that, if exception was made in favor of furniture-makers, other manufacturers would demand that similar exceptions be made in their favor, with the result of nullifying the whole scheme of convict labor. To this it was replied that the National Guard had already obtained exemption from the statute. The members of the Guard, it was claimed, felt degraded by being compelled to wear prison-made uniforms, and similar prejudices on the part of school-children ought to be respected. This argument appears to be entirely valid. There is no reason why the sentimental objections of soldiers should be regarded any more than those of school-children, or of any other class of persons, outside of the penal institutions, who are furnished with supplies at the public expense. There should be no discrimination allowed, for if it was allowed in one case, it would certainly be demanded in others.

Singularly enough, the bill in question was opposed by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics, who is a representative of the labor-unions. He asserted that

the bill would be the entering wedge in the destruction of the present system of convict labor. It would deprive the prisoners of employment, and leave the State with a quantity of expensive machinery on its hands. It was intimated that the Buffalo establishment, which is the only one in the State engaged in the manufacture of school furniture, was a member of the "School-Furniture Trust," and that improper means had been employed to procure the passage of the bill by the Legislature. This is not improbable, but such considerations are irrelevant to the main issue, which is simply the maintenance of the system of employing prisoners adopted by the Constitutional Convention of 1894. If such bills as this are passed, that system cannot endure.

The system, it will be remembered, was adopted against the judgment of prison experts, in order to propitiate the labor-unions and the manufacturers of certain kinds of goods who were jealous of the competition of the prisons. The compromise accepted forbade the sale of prison-made goods in the market, but authorized the employment of convicts in the production of such articles as are used in public institutions. It is quite conceivable that if no political, or partisan, or personal considerations interfered, all the convicts in our prisons might be usefully employed. They could earn enough to support themselves, and the public institutions could utilize all their products. However this may be, the Constitution prohibits the employment of convicts in any other form of productive labor. If they are not allowed to make goods to be used in the public institutions, they cannot make goods at all. They must either be maintained in idleness, or employed in labor which produces no return, and the taxpayers of the State must provide their support. For good or ill, the Constitution has limited their employment to labor for the public account, and to cut off this sole resource would be extremely disastrous.

It need not be assumed, however, that the present system works well. No one familiar with the proceedings of the Legislature and with the character of the men who obtain office under the State Government, expected that it would. It was predicted that the convicts would be locked in their cells in idleness a large part of the time, and that the managers of public institutions would take little interest in making prison industries successful. These predictions have been verified. The last report of the Prison Association contains the result of investigations made at the State prisons at Sing Sing, Auburn, and Dannemora. A fair showing was made by the Auburn prison, although even there a number of prisoners were idle, and the day's work was from four to six hours. At Sing Sing the men were not working more than four hours a day, on an average, and not doing more than three hours' work in that time. At Dannemora there was even more idleness. The excuse given was everywhere the same. There was no demand for prison-made goods on the part of the other public institutions of the State. In fact, it was alleged, the authorities of these institutions would not buy prison-made goods unless they were compelled to.

On the other hand, considerable evidence was given showing that many of these authorities were entirely willing to carry out the law, but were prevented by the incompetency of the State officials. The goods were described as, on the whole, satisfactory in quality, but as held at higher prices than those prevailing in the market. There is not the slightest excuse for this. The State does not have to make a profit on its sales, and it would involve no loss to the community were public institutions supplied with prison-made goods free of charge. It would simply be transferring money from one pocket to the other. The evidence shows that, but for the grossest incompetency, the convicts might be now quite fully employed, at classified industries, and that their produce might be disposed of to public institutions at rates that, under the circumstances, would be fairly remunerative. The need of reform in the business management of prison industries is urgent, but such measures as that which Gov. Roosevelt is asked to sign only make reform more hopeless.

MUNICIPALITY AND SLUMS.

The appointment of a new commission to study the tenement-house problem will reawaken public interest in the question. Mr. de Forest, the chairman of the body, represents what is doubtless the prevailing feeling among its members when he says that they have no cut-and-dried plans, and propose to have a thorough investigation before making any recommendations. Such an inquiry will, of course, take account of what has been done elsewhere, both in this country and abroad.

Probably the most wisely planned attack yet made upon the tenement-house evil has been that of the London merchant, Charles Booth, who fifteen years ago turned a part of his warehouse into a statistical office, and proceeded to present the truth about the poverty of the city with much of the accuracy and exhaustiveness of a ledger account. The effects of Mr. Booth's investigations well illustrate the compelling power of ascertained facts. They influenced the preparation and passage by Parliament of the epoch-making Housing of the Working Classes Act of 1890, which provided for the demolition by public authorities of houses unfit for human habitation; and, if it were deemed advisable, the erection of new and suitable dwellings upon the areas made vacant. The first of these powers, in pursuance of English precedent, has since been incorporated into the legislation of New York State and of Massachusetts.

In London the principal outcome of the Act of 1890 has been the removal by the County Council of a mass of closely huddled cottage structures covering fifteen acres of territory in Bethnal Green, and the erection upon this area of a unique municipal tenement-house village, ingeniously designed so as to secure a reasonable amount of light and air for 6,000 people. The last of these "Boundary Street Buildings," as they are called, was formally opened a few weeks ago by the Prince of Wales. In two other London districts similar undertakings have been entered upon.

Such schemes had been anticipated long before by Glasgow and Birmingham. As early as 1866 the Town Council of Glasgow was constituted an improvement trust for purchasing and making over slum property, and the policy of demolishing unsanitary tenement-blocks has been persistently followed ever since. Only a few tenement-houses have been built by the Council, but the city has entered actively and successfully into the business of providing model lodging-houses. Birmingham, under the lead of Joseph Chamberlain, took up the example of Glasgow in 1875, but went much further. Ninety acres of congested territory were purchased, upon which stood 1,867 dwellings and 814 other buildings. About half the buildings were demolished, the rest were put into sanitary condition. The whole scheme will in a few years from now be upon a paying basis; and about 1950, when the leases fall in, all the improvements upon the cleared area, including many of the finest business blocks in the city, will become municipal property.

New York, as a result of the work of the Tenement-house Commission of 1894, had, before the return of Tammany, fairly entered upon an aggressive policy similar on its negative side to that of the British cities. This policy was embodied especially in the law of 1895, authorizing the Board of Health to order the removal of unsanitary dwellings, and in the stimulus given to the movement for small parks. It is doubtful whether American conditions will demand that the municipality itself enter upon building operations, especially while our city governments are as they are. But it is to be hoped that the newly appointed commission will give the strongest momentum to such bold but far-sighted effort as has already wiped out thick and reeking slums in Mulberry Bend and Hester Street.

The time has come for a serious taking account of stock as to the tenement-house question in this city, such as will be at once comprehensive and minute. Single great undertakings are

locally useful, and are suggestive as to the future. The testimony of persons with special experience may serve as a general guide to the commission in formulating a policy. But there is needed a scheme of continuous statistical study of the tenement-house life of New York, especially since it presents a problem more complicated and intense than that of any other city in the world. Only in that way can effort toward the solution of the problem pass from the stage of scattered, spasmodic impulses into the stage of adequate and effectual action, guided by the light of science. If, for instance, the statistical truth were available, showing by precincts, blocks, and individual houses the bearing of tenement conditions upon mortality, disease, pauperism, and crime, we could fasten directly upon the cause of incalculable loss to the city in the expense of its public institutions, and in the waste of the productive capacity of its people.

In Berlin, a degree of minuteness in the collection of facts which might at first seem to the practical American sense absurd, has been the means of discovering the most threatening housing evils. It was found that families living in one room, though constituting but one-eighteenth of the population of the city, registered nearly one-half of the entire number of deaths. Their yearly death rate was 163.5 in 1,000, or about one person in every six, while for families living in two rooms the death rate was 22.5, and for three-room families it fell as low as 7.5. These results, as may be supposed, at once led to specific and drastic regulations as to light, ventilation, air capacity, and overcrowding.

In 1890 the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor made a tenement-house census of Boston. One section of the census had to do with the sanitary condition of tenement-houses, classified by small subdivisions of wards throughout the city. The report showed that 522 families were living in houses which were beyond doubt unfit for human habitation. This census prepared the way for a thorough-going policy of extermination against the worst slums. The attack has reached its climax since 1897, when the law was passed empowering the Board of Health to order the removal of objectionable dwellings. During the last two years 156 houses have been ordered demolished, and, in the cases of nearly all, the ground has been cleared. It is of interest in connection with the cessation of such activity in New York, in part because of suits brought by expropriated landlords against the city, that no such resistance has been offered in Boston. An average sum of $50 is paid to the landlord by the Board of Health in each case, and usually the land has proved to be worth as much, after the outworn building was removed, as before, if not more.

TAXATION OF COLLEGE PROPERTY.

The question of the taxation of college property continues to crop out in State legislatures with frequency enough to indicate that the matter is not yet regarded as settled. The Legislature of Massachusetts has lately had an interesting debate on the subject, in which the arguments pro and con were presented with considerable vigor; but a motion to substitute for an adverse committee report a bill providing for the payment by the State of the taxes assessed upon literary and scientific institutions, was lost in the House by the decisive vote of 49 to 63, which was increased on a roll-call to 51 to 128.

While the recent decision of the Massachusetts Supreme Court in favor of Harvard College, certain of whose property the city of Cambridge sought to tax, must be held to have settled the legal status of the matter in that State for the time being, the subject is not, of course, beyond the reach of further legislation. There can be no doubt that a considerable number of persons, themselves friendly to the colleges, are inclined to think that the policy of exemption has been carried too far, and that some portion, at least, of the extensive property now held by educational institutions might well be levied upon for the support of government. The arguments in support of this contention have not, so far as we have observed, changed much of late. It is denied that a college is of any peculiar importance to a community, or that the fact that it spends, directly or indirectly, large sums of money annually in the town or city entitles it to any more consideration than is accorded to great manufacturing establishments. The phenomenal growth of colleges and universities in the past generation has been accompanied by a great increase in the value of the real and personal property held by them. It is claimed, further, that colleges not infrequently buy and hold real estate for speculative purposes, or that they devote some part of their exempted realty to the conduct of ordinary business, as in the case of the Harvard Coöperative Society.

There is, undoubtedly, much force in these arguments. The modern college is less the quiet place of learning which it once was, than a great business enterprise. On the other hand, there is much to be said in rebuttal. In speaking the other night at Wellesley, President Eliot of Harvard, who has done more than any one else to formulate the case for the colleges, called attention to the many ways in which Harvard contributes to the support of the community, and pays for the privileges and exemptions which it obtains. The college contributes like any private citizen or corporation to the maintenance of gas, electric light, and water companies. It pays its share of assessments for sidewalks, sewers, and highways. It pays taxes on the several million dollars' worth of real estate, in Boston and Cambridge, held by it as an investment, and it must deduct from legacies and bequests a substantial percentage for the support of the government of the United States. So far as its "business" is concerned, however, the college has nothing from which it can pay taxes. It has no salable product, and produces nothing which has immediate pecuniary value in itself. No student pays to the college anywhere near as much as it costs the college to educate him. As to the "burden" which the presence of an institution with a large amount of exempted real estate is said to impose upon a community, President Eliot asked whether Boston Common is a burden on the city, and whether anybody living in Boston would exchange the Common for a group of ordinary houses and stores. He raised the further question whether a public reservation is a burden on the community where it exists, and pointed out that, if it is, the people of Massachusetts have been engaged in a very extraordinary process during the last ten years, as they have been providing themselves with such reservations at a great cost all about the State, and particularly in the metropolitan district. Not only is a public reservation not a burden, but it is a clear advantage to the community. Dr. Eliot applied the same test to the square on which Bunker Hill Monument stands, and the ground on which the State House stands, only to reach the same conclusion.

It seems to us that the real point at issue in the matter of taxing college property has changed somewhat in recent years. On the whole subject of exemptions, whether educational, charitable, or religious, there have long been, and will probably long continue to be, two diametrically opposite views. The practical question now is, rather, whether the benefits of the college are any longer so far localized that the town or city ought to bear the entire burden of exemption, whatever that burden may be. There can be little doubt that towns like Brunswick in Maine, Hanover in New Hampshire, Amherst and Williamstown in Massachusetts, are rendered many degrees more attractive, more desirable as places of residence, and consequently of higher assessed valuation, because of the presence of colleges in them than they would ever have been without. But should the whole burden of exemption fall upon the town? It was around this point that much of the debate in the Massachusetts Legislature the other day turned.

The practice of Maine is instructive by way of answer. Until 1889, property in that State held and used for educational, philanthropic, or religious purposes enjoyed the exemption usual elsewhere. In 1889, however, it was provided that, while the exemption should continue to

extend to the personal property of all literary and scientific institutions, and the real estate occupied by such institutions for their own purposes, or by any officer thereof as a residence, any college having real estate liable to taxation should thereafter be entitled to have the amount of such taxes reimbursed from the State Treasury, to an amount not exceeding $1,500 in any year. The claim to reimbursement was not to apply to real estate purchased after the passage of the act. Under this law the colleges retain, unimpaired, the income from their real and personal property, while the community has also the privilege of taxing certain specified parts of it. In other words, the Maine statute recognizes that the benefits of the college are not localized, but diffused throughout the State; and that, while they may well be acknowledged by actual exemption from taxation, the burden of such exemption should be borne by the State. Whatever its theoretical value, the plan has the merit of being a satisfactory practical adjustment.

THE FAMINE IN INDIA.

NEW HAVEN, April 25, 1900.

Two aspects of the present famine in India have received constant attention from well-meaning writers in the daily press. If the observations of these philanthropists have not been profound, they have at least been meritorious, in keeping before a light-hearted public this distressful subject. But now that the time has come to act on the many suggestions offered, it may be well to inquire what without prejudice is best to be done and how to do it. The second question, that of the origin of the famine, is at this time quite secondary, but as it has not only been mooted, but been made a pivotal point of attack on English methods in India, this aspect also deserves attention, especially as it may influence contributions to the relief fund.

First, however, for the matter of greater moment. The clerical editor in Kansas who, though advised against the measure, persuaded the farmers of that State to ship corn to India, undoubtedly thought he knew what was best for the country. Others have followed suit. More corn is to be sent. What good will it do? If these benevolent persons would follow up their generous gifts, they could easily satisfy themselves of the comparative futility of their efforts. Expert advice has not been lacking, but it has been ignored. What are the simple facts? Corn shipped now cannot possibly be landed in India before the monsoon rains set in early in June. When landed, how is it to be distributed? Apart from the delay, apart also from the freight charges, which will have to be paid for shipping, there is another consideration. Let us imagine this corn actually landed and sent up country to this or that missionary. How is the missionary in turn to distribute it? One of the chief causes of present and future distress is that the cattle, also starved, have died. Now all country transportation is by bullocks. Imagine the good missionary with a car-load of corn dumped at his door. How is he to get it to the outlying villages, which lie far from the rail, with no bullocks to drag the load? Even if the rains do not come, he will be unable to handle it; but if the monsoon breaks at its appointed season, the roads will be impassable, be the cattle few or many. Further, in the hot damp of June half this unprotected grain will rot and be unfit for use. Finally, and this has been repeatedly urged into the deaf ears of our sapient philanthropists, there is no lack of grain, there is no scarcity of supply in India. Food is there in abundance—not Indian corn, which the peasants do not know how to use, but their own grains, rabi and jôwari, with which they are familiar.

Why, then, are the peasants starving? For the plainest reason, because they have no money to buy this grain. It is held by merchants, who have enough for the multitude, but will not give it away; nor may the Government compel them to do so or connive at looting it. If any charitable folk will help the natives of India, and great indeed is their need, let them cable money, not send corn. Cash can be cabled at once. Within a few days it is in the hands of the remotest agent or missionary. In a few hours he can turn it over to the villagers, and the latter have but to take it to the local grain merchant (no village is without one) and supply their wants. These are the common-sense facts of the case. They were foreshadowed three years ago when the local grain-merchants shut their granaries and the people starved at their doors, while American corn was slowly sailing across the ocean. What the people want is money. Money cabled now can at once be converted into grain, of which, we repeat, there is plenty. Corn shipped now will arrive too late, and half of its usefulness will be gone before it is distributed. Of course, the corn will not all be wasted. Eventually it will do some good. Had it been sent four months ago, it might have been of great service, whereas now, as was the case with much of the corn sent in 1897, its main use will be to provide seed for another year. But what is required now is not seed for next winter's harvest. Money with speed is needed to save thousands who otherwise will not live to plant again.

This is the vital question and its answer. To inquire what caused the famine seems almost irrelevant at this time, but there are those who hold England responsible for the famine, and, strange conceit of Christian sympathy, would let the sufferers die rather than aid where England has erred. But let us consider what error there has been.

Three years ago there was a great scarcity, or a little famine. Sensational papers called it a great famine, but they know better now if they did not then, for it was nothing in comparison with the present scourge. Both, however, are due to exactly the same cause. This is neither the establishment of a gold standard, as is maintained by the Spokane *Chronicle* and other Western papers of that ilk, nor the deliberate infliction of famine by the Government, as Anglophobia, in the shape of some of the Eastern dailies, incoherently charges. Drought is the cause. Whenever the monsoon rains fail and the winter showers also fail, there will always be a famine as long as the Hindu *ryot* remains what he is by nature and through inherited inability to escape the moneylender. The peasant works hard, but he is always in debt. Not only can he not save, but he will not. When times are prosperous, he lives as easily as he can; when bad times come, he is unprepared, now as always.

The only difference between the past and the present is that in the old days the peasants died uncared for. To-day help is offered them on Government relief-works, where, if there are not too many applicants, they may earn food. Formerly there were no such works; the native princes left their subjects to die. The great irrigation works were also unknown, and every statement to the contrary is based on ignorance. Irrigation was known, and here and there tanks were built by native rulers. But these tanks dried up in the first drought, and the only irrigation known was that of rill-irrigation by farmers for their own benefit. Let the doubter go to-day to the Punjab, where formerly at every famine the peasants died like flies, and what does he find? An arid desert converted into a grain-raising country by means of immense works which drain the huge rivers of the Punjab and distribute life-giving streams over a vast area. He will find the same system introduced by the Government on the Ganges. But India is a large country, and famine spreads faster than irrigation can follow.

No sillier lie has ever been published than the statement repeatedly made in the daily press that famine was unknown before the advent of British rule. The literal truth is, that famines lasting for years are chronicled through all the centuries of Hindu and Mohammedan rule, and that no adequate public relief was given. This was due partly to inability, partly to indifference. Again, it is said by our local sages that the peasant is now so heavily taxed that he cannot meet famine when it comes, whereas of old he was left a competence. Another historical blunder. Under Mohammedan and Mahrathi rule the peasant was "taxed" by being robbed systematically. Between raids he was free, for every raid left him plundered of all he had. By the time he recovered from the first "tribute," however, the genial Mahrathi held a knife to his throat again, asking for his concealed wealth. This was the constant state of the Hindu peasant. When there was no famine, he was bled, figuratively and literally. When famine came, he was left to die. Even when he was not raided, it is notorious that the land revenue was collected with the greatest rigor under native rule. If the peasant could not or would not pay (under torture), he and his family were sold into slavery. In times of famine things were still worse; men sold themselves for a single meal.

Slowly this has changed under the British Râj. To-day, in the permanently settled tracts, the land revenue represents on an average about one-twenty-fourth of the gross value of the produce. Out of ninety-nine millions revenue (Rx. = Rupees ten) in 1898-1899, the land tax was only twenty-seven and one-half millions. In 1896-1897 seven and one-half millions (Rx.) were spent on famine relief outright, the whole cost of the famine being fourteen millions. Nearly two millions were lost to the revenue through suspending taxes altogether, while one and a third millions were loaned to cultivators. To-day there are over five millions of people supported at Government expense. When did ever a native government assist its subjects in this manner?

Papers that prate of the Famine Relief

Fund, and ask where it has gone, must be lamentably ignorant of the fact that there is no such fund, save as it is taken out of the surplus in prosperous years. The last little famine exhausted the surplus, and left a deficit of five million, but in 1898-1899 thirty-three millions were spent on famine relief (still necessary), building and railroading, all of which are provided for as part of the legitimate expenditures of the so-called fund. And a most praiseworthy feature is this building of railways, for it is a prophylactic against future famine in districts hitherto far out of reach of help.

Centuries of oppression have left the peasant helpless and improvident. The native usurer is his refuge in time of trouble. His grain goes chiefly not to pay the land-tax, but to buy a mortgage and keep the usurer quiet. For the expenses of a wedding or a funeral he will cheerfully double this same mortgage. And he pays 180 to 300 per cent. interest, not on the sum loaned, but on this sum with a cipher added, which the usurer knows how to tuck on and the peasant is too ignorant to discover. No government can put the peasant in a position where a three years' drought will not bring him to the edge of starvation. There he stands to-day, poor wretch, waiting for money with which to buy life. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

VANISHING LONDON.

LONDON, April 6, 1900.

Few people, even Londoners—or, perhaps, Londoners less than other people—realize how entirely the character of London is changing. The growth of the metropolis, the pulling down and putting up, the constant improvements of the last few years, are of a kind usually associated with the go-ahead cities of America or South Africa, rather than the most conservative capital in the world, that is just awakening to the advantage of electric light and traction. The Englishman, if he were told, as I was the other day by an American fresh from a journey through the Western States, that nowhere was there such a fury of building and rebuilding as in London, would probably be as surprised as he is when the foreigner ventures to suggest that the suppression of evidence at the Jameson trial was, after all, not much more creditable than the suppression of evidence at the Dreyfus trial!

But if the Londoner does shut his eyes to the facts before him, there can be no question that, gradually, old landmarks are disappearing and a brand-new town springing up. I say nothing of the Embankment and the changes in the City; they are older than my personal acquaintance with London. I say nothing of the spreading out of the suburbs; it is impossible to keep pace with them. I simply look back to the London I came to sixteen years ago, and compare it with the London of to-day. Then, between Oxford Street and the Strand—as I remember to my cost, for I lived in Bloomsbury—there was but a network of narrow alleys and twisting streets; and Seven Dials, though somewhat reformed since Dickens's description, could still be seen in all its labyrinthine glory, or squalor. Now, the two districts are connected by two wide thoroughfares, Shaftesbury Avenue and Charing Cross Road, and, judging from the grime on the houses that line them, the newcomer to London could never imagine both streets had been opened, virtually, but yesterday. I have seen the beginning and completion of a third, Rosebery Avenue, leading through the wilderness to Islington, of a third, a fourth, still further afield. But to give a list of them all would be to fall into cataloguing, and my object is to point out chiefly what is going on in the very heart, the very centre of London.

When I came, almost the only houses of modern flats—the old-fashioned chambers of the Inns of Court and their neighborhood are a very different matter—were in Victoria Street, that dark, dingy, narrow valley where few men could preserve their cheerfulness. Now, there are apartment-houses, or mansions, on the Embankment looking out upon the river, everywhere in Mayfair and Belgravia, in the little streets leading from the Strand, in the quiet, dignified squares of Bloomsbury, which, though never of any great architectural distinction, had a certain stateliness, a certain air that these tall, gingerbread, jerry-built barracks are fast destroying. In Kensington, in Chelsea, even in St. John's Wood it is the same story; the big, ugly modern contrivances shoot up of a sudden in the streets that Thackeray and Carlyle knew and loved, and all the old character goes from them for ever. There is no use in protesting. The modern flat is by far too useful and often admirable an invention. Only once was a protest made and heard—when, a few years ago, a private company was asking Parliament for the right to fill its shareholders' pockets by turning the river front, beyond the Houses of Parliament and that beautiful little old corner of Westminster just back of the Abbey and the Dean's Yard, into a checker-board of mansions. But, as a rule, the gain in comfort so outbalances the loss in picturesqueness that opposition would seem as foolish as Ruskin's crusade against the railroad.

But when it comes to really the greatest innovation of all, one cannot look on quite unmoved. One accepts with equanimity the widening of the lower end of Parliament Street, now in progress, for, as it was, the street was too new to have the sanctity of association, and the Houses of Parliament are worthy of the noble approach hitherto denied them. On the Strand, however, one is on holy ground. It may not be as old as Fleet Street or Holborn, it may be without the old City limits, but it is old enough—"the ancient Strand," Mr. Henley calls it—to be one of the best-known streets by name in Europe or America. Whoever has heard of London has heard of the Strand; whoever loves London loves the Strand. In some ways it has changed enormously. The palaces that Pepys passed on his way to Whitehall have gone; there are hardly any buildings left that Dr. Johnson would recognize—only the two churches that stand in the middle of the road and obstruct the traffic. But, in its main characteristics, it remains as it has been during many long generations. It leads to the City—that is, to the busiest, wealthiest, most powerful business quarter there is the world over, and it is still as mean in its proportions as the High Street of a sleepy country town. It is one of the very few direct lines of communication between East London and West, and the route of endless omnibuses. During the day, it is thronged by an army of business men and clerks hurrying to and from work; in the evening, by an army of theatre-goers, and yet it is still so narrow that the best-trained police to be found anywhere cannot prevent a ceaseless succession of blocks. It is shabby beyond words; its shops are shabby, its houses are shabby, its theatres are shabby, the people who crowd it seem shabby in sympathy. It is, in fact, as absurd a street as you could imagine. But then, it is the Strand, and no lover of London would have it otherwise. It is as characteristic in its way as are the Boulevards of Paris or Unter den Linden of Berlin.

And now, the Strand—the ancient Strand—is doomed, though the name no doubt will survive. It has been easy to see that for long the County Council has had the evil municipal eye upon it. The slightest chance or excuse to widen it has been greedily seized. Already, before the Hotel Cecil and at the corner of Wellington Street, where there is such a mass of cabs and carts and 'buses going to and coming from Waterloo Bridge, the old line of frontage has been abandoned, and the space saved thrown into the roadway. But, to-day, whoever walks on eastward will see that all along the northern side of the street there is a wall of scaffolding, behind which houses, one after the other, are tumbling. From the Gaiety Theatre to the Law Courts, from St. Mary-le-Strand to St. Clement Dane's, the work is busily being pushed that will transform the Strand as one knows it into a street as like the streets of any other big town as possible. For a time there was talk even of Wren's churches going. But the County Council, to give it its due, is not a bigger vandal than it can help. Has it not just taken over as a public monument the old house in Fleet Street that passes without any reason for the "Palace of Henry VIII. and Cardinal Wolsey," and really does date back to the reign of James I.? And so, fortunately, it has been decided to spare the churches; they can be used as safety islands to divide the two streams of traffic; and they will leave to the Strand what little distinction it can hereafter boast. But think what is to go. In the first place, the character of the street, which counts for so much nowadays when Budapest is but an eastern Chicago on the Danube, and Rome but a southern Paris in the Campagna. Already, Mr. Nutt, whose shop was a rendezvous for scholars of all nations, has flown to Long Acre. Behind the scaffolding is Holywell Street, the old lair of the seedy, whiskey-drinking, always-in-debt, now out-of-date journalist, the haunt of the book-collector and lover, where rare bargains have been picked up—among others, bound with an insignificant tract, that little Elzevir cook-book said to have sold once for £600 at a sale—Holywell Street of unsavory reputation, but picturesque, with its gables and overhanging stories, one of the few genuine bits of old London. And Holywell Street is not to be merely rebuilt; it is to be destroyed. And so is gabled Wyck Street. And in the course of a few years, with all the haste of County Councillors eager for reform, an irreproachable boulevard from Holborn will just about here meet the Strand, and electric trams—think of electric trams near the Strand!—will whirl away the business men and the clerks and the theatre-goers. And, no doubt, it is a mere question of time before the same transformation will follow in the West Strand, and, from end to end, the "long, lean, lanky

street" will have blossomed forth into a handsome wide avenue, the pride of the contractor, but where Dickens and even Mr. Henley would be as complete strangers as Pepys and Dr. Johnson.

I suppose it is as impossible to blame the County Council as it was to find fault with the Roman authorities a few years ago when they pulled down the old houses on the Tiber. The objection in both cases is purely sentimental. But sentiment counts for more and more in these matters, probably because every year now limits the chances for its exercise. I, for one, can look at that wall of scaffolding along the Strand with as little philosophy as at the glare of academical mosaics in the domes of Wren's cathedral or the restorer's neat façade at Peterborough. The work is passing all but unnoticed. A stray paragraph in a newspaper has commented upon it now and then, but London, busy about South Africa, has had no time to heed it. I have therefore come home from a walk through the dishonored street all the more eager to remind Americans that, if they would see the real Strand, they had best make what haste they can, for its days are numbered.

N. N.

Correspondence.

PORTO RICO OR PUERTO RICO?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you inform a bewildered citizen of the official spelling of this word? The protracted controversy which has been carried on in the columns of various newspapers seems to leave the matter still undecided. We have been told that we must write "Puerto Rico," but no sooner have we become accustomed to the new spelling than we are told, by equally trustworthy authority, that the official spelling for the word is "Porto Rico." There has been, however, a varying usage in the different departments of our government. At present the wind seems to be blowing in the direction of "Porto Rico," which has been, I believe, the uniform usage of the *Nation*. I am prepared to abandon my old mumpsimus, but fear lest my new sumpsimus may itself soon prove to be an error.—Truly yours, F. L. P.

Chicopee, Mass., April 25, 1900.

[Congress has, in the new enabling act (so to call it), fixed the denomination as Porto Rico, and we think advisedly. It has long been the English name for the island, and it harmonizes with both the English adjective Porto Rican and the Spanish Portorriqueño. For the rest, it is far more important to do justice to the islanders than to gratify their sentiment for a vowel sound.—Ed. Nation.]

HEROIC PEACE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "In order to get rid of war we must make peace heroic," wrote John Hinton. "By not seeing the nature and significance of our common life it is sordid; and with that there exist heroic forms of activity [war, etc.], which are mischievous. How evidently these are two halves that need union; let the heroism be in the common life, and the mischievous forms of it will cease. The union here is in the common life being noble; which it must be when it is seen what it is, and what it allows scope for and demands."

To breed new ideals in a race, there is the rub. The heroisms of war are plainly seen and passionately applauded, our love for them seems instinctive, but can we not seriously teach the new thought about life? Can it be made plain to boys and girls that civilized society affords scope for just as noble and heroic action as the field of war? Some time, perhaps, we shall come to teach boys and girls who are learning the history of their country that it would have been a glory beyond any one nation had ever risen to, if we had given Spain half the cost of our late war to relinquish her claim to Cuba, and had spent the remaining half in healing the ravages of war, in succoring the naked and starving, caring for orphans, establishing schools, and cleansing cities. John Sherman declared that Spain was on the point of conceding. There seems little doubt that a quixotically generous offer would have been accepted. And why quixotic, when all the bloodshed, misery, bitterness, and inhumanity of war would have been avoided?

To speculate on the alternatives of history is not futile for beginners, for else they are apt to think the march of events has been inevitable and fatal. The dominance of the human will should be the fundamental principle of historical teaching. To every boy and girl should be made plain that individual human wills, characters, and passions determine events; that each boy himself shall be a maker of peace or war.

But would dollars told out across the sea redound to our credit as do crashing battleships? Would 3 per cent. loans, and stamps on cosmetics and pills, stand for enterprise, discipline, dash, bravery, and courage? No Hobson, no Sampson, no Dewey? Yes! if our youth could be made to believe in the strenuous self-denial, the splendid patience, the mutual reliance, the daring, the endurance, the honor that go to the making of a hundred million dollars in the field, in the factory, in the mine, on railroads and perilous seas; could see all the plain folk bending, sweating, bearing, braving the elements to share their loaf with Cuba; could see that dollars are not mere gold and silver coins bagged in bankers' vaults, to be hauled forth at the fiat of those in authority. Put the actualities of war, its trickeries, treacheries, and brutalities, along with its virtues, against the heroic endurance and skill manifested in common life, and mete out glory and honor to strenuous, downright manhood—who doubts where the laurels and medals and crosses would go?

Heroic activity makes instant appeal. To do away with war we have got to make the sacrifices of peace equally noble. Mothers, teachers, preachers, poets have got to sow new ideals. An appeal to the pocket, to prudence, thrift, and common sense will not do. Human nature is not made that way. Common life must be revealed as just as arduous and heroic as war, calling for just as great physical endurance, just as powerful mental and moral qualities; in truth, that to have achieved the results of the Spanish war by the methods of peace would have been just as much harder as it would have been nobler, and to the leaders who had attained such ends should fall laurels more enduring than those which greeted Sampson and Dewey.

Samuel M. Ilsley.

Santa Barbara, Cal., April 20, 1900.

WHAT ARE THE BOERS FIGHTING FOR?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reading the last lines of that excellent article, "Some Historical Parallels," in your issue of April 19, "We can hardly accept Canon Wirgman's view, that 'The British Empire is waging a holy war for the cause of freedom and justice to the native races of South Africa,'" I began to suspect that you had not read the proclamation of President Steyn of the Orange Free State to the Afrikanders of Cape Colony, a part of which appeared in the *Independent* of last week. Here it is: "Do you wish, Afrikanders, to see this frightful abomination of a negro sitting with you in Parliament? It is what will happen to you, what will happen to us also, if you allow England to get the upper hand over us in this war." In that proclamation Steyn conjures up the spectre of equality with the negro race as his strongest argument for the war against England. This settles the question. The Boers are fighting for the maintenance of inequality among the native races of South Africa.

As this very important point has generally been overlooked by authors and newspapers, I shall beg leave to set it forth plainly before your readers, and to point out its direful and oppressive results for these unfortunate races. My main authority for the facts advanced is the February number of the Paris *Bibliothèque Universelle*.

Inequality of races is embodied into the Constitution of the Transvaal republic: "There cannot be equality between the white and the colored people, neither in the State nor in the Church." And this is the definition that the Constitution gives of the words "colored people": they are "those who have among their ancestors, unto the *fourth generation*, a man who did not belong to the white race." This inequality of race is still such a fundamental principle among the Boers that the Volksraad, the Transvaal Parliament, rejected a motion dispensing the native pastors and teachers from wearing the metal badge, which every black living in a city must wear, to show that he is employed by a white, in default of which he is sent to jail as a vagrant. The mover suggested that a written passport should take the place of this badge, but it was feared that such a concession would seem to establish the equality of a category of the blacks with the whites, and the motion was rejected. (Pretoria *Press*, weekly edition, August 29, 1898.)

What are the results of this constitutional inequality? The first is, that *the black man has no right before the law:* the magistrate may, at his will, accept or dismiss his complaint. Besides, an offence done to the prejudice of a black is less punished than the same offence if a white man is the victim of it. In a Volksraad sitting of June, 1899, in the course of a discussion of a law on the deprivation of civil rights, the Attorney-General gave to the Deputies the following explanation: "All sentences for murder are not infamous. A man will perhaps be sentenced to jail for

six months for having killed his black servant by dint of blows; it is quite evident that this will not deprive him of his rights as an elector."

Another result of the inequality is that *the black has no right to possess, nor even to rent*, the smallest portion of land in his own country. Some blacks are allowed by Boer farmers to cultivate a little piece of ground, but on condition that they shall perform all the base services (*corvées*) which may be required of them. All the natives who are unable to find a place on the Boer farms live in territories set apart for them, but from which they may be removed, at the Government's will and pleasure, after three months' notice.

A third result of the inequality is that *the black is liable to taxation and to statute labor, at will.* While the Boer who does not own a farm pays only two dollars tax, and the Boer farmer nine, the black, who may be only a day laborer, pays a tax of thirteen dollars. Last year the blacks were required to pay fifty dollars per head for the taxes of the current year and for those which they had not paid during the years of famine. The State commissioners, who receive from fifteen hundred to two thousand dollars salary a year, besides 5 per cent. of all the taxes and fines collected by them, manage to add a good deal to their income, and this is how: When a black cannot pay his tax, he is compelled to go and work at the mines. Recently 400 of these insolvent blacks entered Pretoria, guarded by police officers, who were taking them to Johannesburg. Now the companies which are short of hands pay a premium of five to ten dollars per head to the recruiter who brings them workmen. The Commissioners act as recruiters and pocket the premium. At the sitting of September 25, 1899, a member of the Volksraad declared that he knew a Commissioner who secured in this way a yearly income of $50,000. (Pretoria *Press*, weekly edition, of the same date.)

The three preceding results of inequality affect the black as an individual. Let us see how he is affected tribally. When a tribe, driven to despair, rebels, or refuses in a body to pay the taxes, an armed force pounces upon it, burns its villages, carries off its crops and herds, and the whole population is made captive, as a war booty, and divided between the men who took part in the expedition. These prisoners must serve for five years without wages. If they attempt to run away they may be shot down with impunity. This happened in 1894 in the southern part of Zoutspanberg, and in 1898 in the northern part of the same district.

Such is the legislation and such is the practice of the Boers to this very hour. It is feudality pure and simple. The farm-owners are the lords, the blacks the serfs bound to the soil, incapable of possessing any land, liable to taxation and to statute labor at will; the Commissioners represent the bailiffs who ground down those under their jurisdiction, in the name of the sovereign. Do not these few facts justify Canon Wirgman's view? And is it not evident that, in the case of this unfortunate man, your readers are called upon to choose not so much between Britons and Boers as between *freedom* and *oppression?*

L. C. Roux.

Saxton's River, Vt

THE ANTIQUITY OF CHESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my studies of the Talmud I have just come across some curious notices on the game of chess. The Talmud, more exactly called the "Babylonian Talmud," is a report compiled about the year 485 A. D. of the discussions which took place in the Jewish schools near the site of Babylon, from about 227 A. D. to the date of compilation, upon the Mishna—that is, on a collection of the Pharisaic Oral Law made in Palestine about 200 or 220 A. D. There is a question raised in the Mishna, Treatise Ketuboth (Marriage Contracts), on the right of a wife whose dowry comprises four slave women to be free from all household work and "to sit in a chair." The patriarch Simon, son of Gamaliel, objects that to do so would drive her into morbid listlessness—as ladies in those days lacked the resource of novel-reading, lawn-tennis, etc. Now when this passage comes up for discussion in the Talmud (Ketuboth, 61b), it is said she might play with little pups or at "nadrshir." This is evidently a corrupt reading for Ardeshir, the first King or Shah in the new Persian dynasty, under whose rule the Babylonian Jews lived, and the word indicates a game in which a "king" plays the foremost part. But Rashi, the great commentator on the Talmud, a rabbi living at Troyes in central France, who died in 1102, and whose comment on this subject we may place about the year 1090, leaves no doubt on the question. He says *ad locum*, "Nadrshir is what we call 'escaques,'" the Old-French form of "échecs," the German Schach=Shah.

Other lovers of the game, who read this communication, will please try to find equally authentic but older notices of chess.

Yours, etc., L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., April 23, 1900.

THE EPICENE PRONOUN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Has attention been called to Shakspere's one use of *it* as an epicene pronoun? Neither Abbott nor Franz (in his recent 'Shakespeare-Grammatik') makes note of it. In "Midsummer-Night's Dream" ii, 1, 170-172, *Oberon* is made to say,

> "The juice of it on sleeping eyelids laid
> Will make or man or woman madly dote
> Upon the next live creature that *it* sees."

C. Alphonso Smith.

Baton Rouge, La., April 25, 1900.

"SURE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To what extent, if at all, is the word *sure* now employed adverbially in the United States? Both Miss Austen and Byron used it occasionally, though it appears to have been condemned as "vitious" by Johnson. Has our Irish apologetic or explanatory use of *sure* any hold upon you except as an Hibernianism? Has it any justification in older English, as have some of our supposed insularisms? Dr. Joyce suggests that, like some other of our "vulgarisms," it is an effort to supply in English a locution common in the Irish language.—Yours,

Alfred Webb.

Dublin, April 21, 1900.

Notes.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, expect to publish about May 20 a 'History of the University of Pennsylvania, from Its Foundation to A. D. 1700,' with biographical sketches of the trustees, faculty, first alumni, and others, by Thomas Harrison Montgomery. Only 750 copies of the book, an octavo of about 600 pages, printed from type, will be issued, to subscribers.

'The Cobra's Den,' a new volume of sketches of life and work among the Telugus of India, by the Rev. Jacob Chamberlain, M.D., D.D., will be published at once by Fleming H. Revell Co., in two large volumes with copious illustrations. Also, 'Arabia, the Cradle of Islam,' by the Rev. S. N. Zwemer, F.R.G.S.

A popular 'History of the Church of England,' by William Boyd Carpenter, Bishop of Ripon, is in the press of E. P. Dutton & Co.

Prof. Frank Moore Colby's 'International Year-Book,' or compendium of the world's progress, for 1899, is about to be issued by Dodd, Mead & Co.

Nearly ready is 'Studies in English Language and Grammar,' by Prof. George Lyman Kittredge of Harvard and Sarah Louise Arnold, Supervisor of Schools, Boston, which will bear the imprint of Ginn & Co. They have also in press 'Rome: Its Rise and Fall,' by Prof. P. V. N. Myers of the University of Cincinnati, an expansion of his text-book on Roman history.

Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Uncle Sam Abroad,' University Extension lectures on the diplomatic and consular service of the United States, by J. E. Conner.

'Wuthering Heights' and vol. v. of the "Haworth Edition" of the Brontë sisters is now reached in the Harper issue. Mrs. Humphry Ward's estimate of Emily Brontë's genius is by no means slighting, as one might have gathered from English comments on it. She speaks of her early attainment of "mastery," as compared with Charlotte, and is not at all grudging in her recognition of the passion and poetry wrought into the romance of the proudest and most fiercely strong of will of the three sisters. The interesting announcement is made in this volume that the "Haworth Edition" is to conclude with a reissue of Mrs. Gaskell's 'Life of Charlotte Brontë,' edited by that Brontë expert Mr. Clement Shorter. His accumulation of material will there be fully and advantageously drawn upon.

There are not wanting great names to the sixty-second volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), which extends from Williamson to Worden, but mediocrity prevails. Still, one who grazes leisurely in it will meet with about the usual assortment of curious information not easily procurable elsewhere. Here, for example, is Field Marshal Viscount Wolseley's Cromwellian ancestor, Sir Charles. And in another sphere of human interest, there died in 1855 Charles Windeyer, "first recognized reporter in the House of Lords," who was pursuing his calling surreptitiously when Lord Eldon's robe caught his notebook, audaciously resting on their lordships' bar. Eldon was a stickler for non-reporting, but he courteously picked up the leaves fallen within the bar and returned them, and that was

the end of a prohibition already relinquished by the Commons. Personages having a cisatlantic relation are relatively numerous —Governor Winslow of Plymouth Colony, the elder and the younger Winthrop, General Wolfe, John Woolman, the ornithologist Wilson.

The 'Battle of Tippecanoe,' by Capt. Alfred Pirtle, is the latest publication of the Filson Club of Louisville, Kentucky, which has now published fifteen works by its members, all pertaining to the early history of Kentucky and the Ohio valley, beginning with a memoir of John Filson, the first historian of Kentucky, from whom the club was named. In this volume of 158 pages Capt. Pirtle has made a careful review of the circumstances leading to the expedition of Gov. Harrison against the Indians under Tecumseh's brother, the Prophet, as well as of the expedition itself and the battle. Three fine photographs of the battlefield (now preserved as a park by the State of Indiana) are well reproduced in half-tone, full page, and make a panorama of the field as it now appears. The Club's publications are all large-paper quartos, printed in old-style pica on antique laid paper, and the typography would do credit to any press. The works are serious studies, by competent men, of topics of real historical value. John P. Morton & Co. of Louisville are the printers to the Club.

It can hardly be expected that treatises on the examination of the eyes should interest the general public, except as indicating the degree to which science and accurate work have brought forward this branch of medical practice. Dr. A. Edward Davis's text-book on 'The Refraction of the Eye' (Macmillan) has, to quote from the author's preface, been written "to the end of demonstrating the clinical and practical use of the ophthalmometer, and of recording the advances made in the science and practice of the Refraction of the Eye." It is intended especially for the beginner, and we should commend it without qualification were it not for its positive statements with regard to the "utter uselessness of a myriatic in fitting glasses in the vast majority of cases, even in young subjects." Admirable as the book is in other respects, this is, we think, a serious objection, and marks a step backward and not forward.

Dr. W. P. Letchworth's 'Care and Treatment of Epileptics' (Putnams) deals in a practical form with a subject which should lie near the heart of every citizen, namely, the duty of the pubic with regard to the care of epileptics, and the manner in which these duties should be performed. Authoritative opinions as to the responsibilities of the state in this matter find expression from many quarters. Among others, Prof. Binzwanger, the well-known author of the recent voluminous and painstaking treatise on epilepsy, published in Germany, declares that the institution, in some form, is the place for all epileptics who do not show themselves readily amenable to medical treatment. Most thoughtful physicians, even if they do not go so far as Dr. McKim, the writer of the recent work on 'Heredity and Human Progress,' demand that the state should protect the community against the degenerate as well as against the criminal, so far as this protection can be accomplished by legislation. On this ground, as well as for the sake of the sufferer himself, the amplest means should be afforded for happiness and useful activity apart from those with whom he cannot associate on equal terms. The taxpayer should not shrink from the cost of this separate maintenance, but, fortunately, it has been demonstrated that the epileptics, like the feeble-minded, under skilful leadership, can earn a good deal for themselves and gain thereby in health and independence. Dr. Letchworth studies with care, and on a basis of ample knowledge, what has been done in general and in detail in this direction, both in this country and abroad, and points out what may yet be done, drawing a picture wherein the wretchedness of many epileptics outside of the institution, and their relative and even absolute happiness within it, are contrasted in a way to appeal strongly to the wealthy, the generous, and the public-spirited.

We read in the *Library Journal* for April an obituary sketch of William Kite, for more than thirty years librarian of the Friends' Library in Germantown, Pa., who died on February 10, in his ninetieth year. "His special hobby was to build up a library *without fiction*," and, being seconded by the managers of the above institution, he excluded not only novels but periodicals like *Harper's*, the *Century*, the *Atlantic*, because of their fiction department. It is added that he himself never read a novel in his life.

Among the miscellaneous contents of the Consular Reports for April is a note on the railroad construction in Asia Minor, with a useful map of the railways in operation, the recent German concessions, and other proposed lines. Of these the most promising appears to be that from Samsun on the southern shore of the Black Sea through Sivas to Bagdad, which would open up a country vastly superior in agricultural products to that through which the German line is to run. Our Consul-General to Siam reports a great amount of building in Bangkok at the present time, which, if it continues, will transform the place from a vast collection of thatched bamboo huts to a city in large part made up of brick, iron, and tile. Our Minister to China writes that, upon a petition of the Society for the Protection of Game in China, the Tsungli Yamen has prohibited the exportation of pheasant skins, in order to prevent the extermination of the bird, for whose plumage a great demand has recently sprung up in Europe.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April contains a minute account of the life of the country woman in Palestine, which is especially interesting for the numerous facts adduced to show that the Canaanite of the time of Abraham and Ruth has been "transformed with very slight changes into the modern Fellah." Her duties in both the house and the field give her greater freedom and self-reliance than the townswoman possesses, and she "certainly is esteemed by her husband a good deal more than is her sister in town." In a sketch of the history of modern colonization in Palestine, mention is made of the reclaiming of unhealthy districts by the planting of immense eucalyptus groves; in one place there are three-quarters of a million trees. Besides the usual reports of excavations, there are short articles on the vocal music of the fellahin and the dimensions of the coffer of the Great Pyramid, with notes on inscriptions.

Dr. Edgar James Banks, director of the proposed excavation of the ruin round Mugheir, or Ur of the Chaldees, in Babylonia, issues from 10 Appian Way, Cambridge, Mass., the plan, which may also conveniently embrace the excavation of the neighboring Nowawis, ancient Eridu. The chances of a rich return are excellent, according to the best authority. Whatever Abraham's birthplace yields will be deposited with the Smithsonian Institution at Washington, and permission to dig will be asked for by the director (late U. S. Consul at Bagdad) as soon as $5,000 of the desired $50,000 is pledged.

Rural education, or instruction which shall give children an intelligent knowledge of the common things that surround them in the country, is recommended in a circular sent by the Board of Education to the teachers of elementary schools situated in the agricultural districts of England and Wales. Practical agriculture is not to be taught, but children should be trained to recognize plants and insects useful or injurious to the farmer, and to handle the simpler tools used in garden and farm work in the cultivation of a school garden. There should be given "lessons on the spot about animals in the fields and farmyards, about ploughing and sowing, about fruit trees and forest trees, about birds, insects, and flowers, and other objects of interest." School excursions under the guidance of teachers to places in the neighborhood are recommended for the purpose of awakening and quickening the observing faculties. "This sort of teaching will, it is hoped, directly tend to foster in the children a genuine love for the country and for country pursuits."

The death is announced of the Danish sculptor Georg Christian Freund, born in Altona, February 5, 1821. In 1836 he went to Copenhagen, where he studied under his uncle, the famous Herman Freund, whom he did not follow in treating Old Norse subjects, but won his chief success in modelling children and women, especially young mothers. His name is closely connected with Thorvaldsen's by his work on the decorations of the Thorvaldsen Museum, and by his reproductions in marble of many of the older master's works. He also restored his uncle's great frieze Ragnarok, in the original production of which he had assisted. This last unselfish effort, which consumed five years, is sometimes attributed to the Norwegian sculptor Stefan Sinding.

—The third volume of the publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts makes a handsome book of 576 pages, and covers the transactions for 1895-'97. Though somewhat belated, it brings a rich store of material. While the subjects of the papers are for the most part local, they have been treated by experts with a breadth of view that gives them a general readability. The two papers by Andrew McF. Davis are of this class, for his account of the Provincial Banks contains the record of an experience in paper money and interested banking which may serve as a warning to all efforts to manipulate the value of currency by legislation; and his examination of the case of Frost vs. Leighton shows that the decision of Marshall in Marbury vs. Madison was foreshadowed in the experience of colonial Massachusetts; for the Superior Court of Judicature of the Province twice refused

to carry out a royal order issued by the King in Privy Council, giving as a reason that the charter of the province did not confer upon them powers which would enable them to obey the order. Of equal interest are the careful studies by John Noble on the "Trial and Punishment of Crimes," in the early years of the colony; on the "Court Files of Suffolk," and on the "Libel Suit of Knowles vs. Douglass." The curious proceedings of the college authorities involving the adventures of a turkey and some students should not be neglected, for they illustrate the social life of the time (1685).

—A mere list of the papers will not give an idea of the variety of contents. The essay by Prof. Goodale on "Early New England Plants" is of scientific value, and that by Robert Toppan on the "Failure to Establish an Hereditary Political Aristocracy in the Colonies" is a social study by one steeped in colonial history. It contains scant mention of Virginia, where the aristocratic feeling was fostered by the existence of slavery and by the purchase of the higher offices. Albert Matthews exhibits the use of the word "campus," and some letters from a Loyalist to his wife touch upon Boston when it was passing from the colonial stage, and not very peacefully. Henry Edes contributes a long letter from Henry Dunster on the early history of Harvard College. This very important document is reproduced in facsimile, and the folds, stains, and even the wire-marks of the paper are evident. An index of more than eighty pages is a model of its kind, evidencing excessive care in determining names and dates, and much enhancing the value of the book. When the year-books of the patriotic societies are compared with such issues as this volume of the Colonial Society, the wonder grows that more is not done in making available the large mass of floating manuscript material to be found in every State.

—Some books inevitably suggest comparison with others, and Mr. Quiller-Couch's 'Historical Tales from Shakespeare' (Scribners) is one of these. Who can hear the title, 'Tales from Shakespeare,' without thinking of Charles and Mary Lamb? Lest it be thought that a living writer is trying to crowd out an old favorite—indeed, a classic—we hasten to say that Mr. Quiller-Couch has written the present volume with no irreverent thought. He simply begins where the Lambs left off, and casts into prose the plays which they discard as being unconnected with their immediate purpose. His aim, too, is more didactic than theirs. While they sought merely to please, he wishes to instruct and to arouse enthusiasm. He would persuade his young audience "that history (in spite of their natural distrust) is by no means a dull business when handled by one who marvellously understood the human heart, and was able to put life into the figures of men and women long passed away." "What of Shakspere's historical trustworthiness?" it may be asked. Mr. Quiller-Couch touches upon this subject, too, and commits himself to the opinion that "nowhere, in spite of many inaccuracies, can historical pictures be found so vivid and in the main so just as in these historical plays of Shakspere." Occasionally he admits, as in the case of Joan of Arc, that a glaring injustice has been done by the poet, but grave misconceptions of this sort are set right in the narrative. The book contains "Coriolanus" and "Julius Caesar," besides the English historical plays from "King John" to "Richard the Third." Throughout, the necessary historical explanations are brought into the text, and at one point the aid of a genealogical tree is not disdained. Mr. Quiller-Couch has been very successful in turning dramatic dialogue into conversation which is vigorous without being undignified. Unlike the Lambs, he uses words which form no part of Shakspere's vocabulary, but he is not flippantly "up to date." The least satisfactory part of the version is the paraphrasing of set speeches or monologues, like the harangue of Antony over Caesar's body, the outburst of Henry V.—"Who's he that wishes so"—and Clarence's dream. Here the task is too much for even an essayist of Mr. Quiller-Couch's attainments. At one or two places, however, snatches of Shakspere are given; *e. g.*, the patriotic passages, "This England never did, nor never shall," and "This royal throne of kings, this scepter'd isle." The conception of the book is good, and Mr. Quiller-Couch has carried it out in an extremely clever, spirited manner.

—Parts xxiv. and xxv. of Poole's Historical Atlas (Henry Frowde), bring that great work within measurable distance of completion. Part xxiv. comprises three maps, of widely varying subject. Of these the most important contribution is that of Europe 1863-1897, by Prof. Prothero, which shows the various changes of boundaries, and is accompanied by a considerable sketch of the period that would make, perhaps, a dozen 12mo pages. Mr. R. S. Rait's two maps of Scotland—the one showing the Parliamentary representation down to 1832, and the other the principal clans and families—are very interesting; in particular the second, which is further enhanced by the insertion of the principal battlefields of modern Scotch history. Mr. T. A. Archer contributes to this number a map of Syria during the period of the Crusades, 1096-1291, with an inset of the kingdom of Cyprus. Part xxv. includes the Rev. J. P. Whitney's Germany at the Peace of Westphalia, 1648, with a useful inset showing the Circles. Mr. H. A. L. Fisher continues his Revolutionary and Napoleonic series with a map of the French Empire in 1810, with its 130 departments marked on the map and listed, with the corresponding provincial and territorial names of the old régime, in the letterpress. He seems to have omitted Golo and Liamone in lettering the map, and the island of Capraja altogether. Mr. H. E. Egerton continues his series of maps of the western hemisphere with a plate containing two large and two small maps: the United States after the Treaty of Paris, 1783; the French Proposals of 1782, according to Jay; the two lines of frontier agreed to, in October and November, 1872, respectively, by Mr. Oswald—the first line after the map in Fitzmaurice's Life of Shelburne, the second after Mitchell's map in the British Museum, "but without reproducing its geographical errors"; and, finally, an inset showing the boundary established by the Treaty of Washington of 1842. In general, these maps are rather more satisfactory than their predecessors in the series, though Mr. Egerton has compensated for the omission of the errors of Mitchell's map by the insertion of certain errors of his own. According to his map Kentucky was admitted to the Union in 1872, instead of 1792, as correctly given in the accompanying letterpress. West Virginia, again, would seem by the map alone to have been one of the thirteen original States. The battle of Trenton was fought December 26, not, as appears here, December 25—an error which seems slight in itself, but was really one of the decisive circumstances of the affair. It was William I., King of the Netherlands, not Leopold I., King of the Belgians, who arbitrated the Northeast Boundary question, and this was done not in 1831, but in 1827. Both of these mistakes occur in the preface. And finally, not to multiply details, it would have been far better, historically, to have indicated the claims of the thirteen States on the territory outside their borders than to sketch in the States created out of that territory later, as is done here.

—The great Thomas a'Kempis, besides having his golden book "reprinted more than ten thousand times in all the languages of the world," has now, in his honor, a superb marble monument erected in the Church of St. Michael at Zwolle, Over-Ijssel, Netherlands. As late as 1895, foreign visitors inquiring for the shrine of the great Thomas, and naturally expecting it to be magnificent, were very apt to be met with a smile, and to be waved aside, with reference to a certain box of bones and the broken bits of gravestones. A neat pamphlet of twelve pages, giving the whole history of the Agnietenberg, or the graveyard in which stood the cloister where Thomas a'Kempis spent most of his life, with an account of the erection and dedication of the monument, proofs of the authenticity of a'Kempis's authorship, and a large photograph showing the art work, is in our hands. The commission formed in 1890, and the jury of award, composed of eminent men in the Netherlands, agreed upon a marble tomb-monument of old Netherlandish and Flemish architecture of the fifteenth century, of polychrome marble as to the base, which contains inscriptions in gold, and of pure white marble in the parts which contain the figures and decorative work of arches and ornate finials. Within the sarcophagus are contained the bones of the good monk, which were removed in 1672, together with the two gray stones which had enclosed them at head and foot. On the base or platform of the monument are inscribed "Honori non memoriae Thomae Kempensis cujus nomen perennius quam monumentum," and the text from the Vulgate, "Qui sequitur me non ambulat in tenebris." The list of the subscribers shows a wide range of royal, noble, learned, artistic, and general lovers of art, of history, and of this, one of the most famous of the brethren of the common life. Concerning proofs of the authorship of 'Het Boekje der Navolging van Christus,' the writer of the monograph recalls the fact that, among the manuscripts of the Royal Library of Brussels, there are, in one bundle, the first of the four books of the 'Imitation of Christ' and nine other manuscripts, all in the same handwriting, and enclosed with the words, "Finished and completed by the hands of Brother Thomas a'Kempis in the year 1441"; the last tract in the bundle having been finished in that year. In 1879 a reproduction in facsimile of the autograph manuscript of 1441 was published, with an introduction in French by Charles Ruelans, the 'Imitation' having been written in 1420 in the cloister of Agnietenberg. The work on the monument was done by F. W. Mengelberg of Utrecht.

BANCROFT'S SEWARD.—II.

The Life of William H. Seward. By Frederic Bancroft. With portraits. In two volumes. Harper & Bros. Post 8vo, pp. 553, 576.

The extent to which the personal love of power and desire of eminence enters into the motives of public men may be debated endlessly. Mr. C. F. Adams, in the just published life of his father, says with honest frankness that the Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs, published in 1835, "secured for Mr. Adams what he then deeply hungered for—a degree of personal recognition." A state in which its able men have no hunger for personal recognition, is in deadly peril. A cynical epicurism would seem to be all that is left to it. In the group of acknowledged leaders of the political anti-slavery movement preceding the civil war, no one was wholly devoid of self-love, or, even, perhaps, of vanity in regard to his relative importance. Mr. Seward's character did not compare unfavorably with that of others. His genial sociability might more freely reveal what more reticent men would hide; but his generosity, his placability, and his good faith, gave him a personal character not inferior to the rest.

Parliamentary struggles have their tactics and their stratagems akin to those of war. In each there is a conventional standard of what is fair and unfair. As a leader, it fell to Seward to direct many a contest in which advantages of position were sought or crafty plans of his opponents were to be brought to naught. He acquired a reputation for skill which defeated opponents were pretty sure to call trickiness. This is illustrated by the debate on President Pierce's message concerning the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in 1855. Looking, as Mr. Bancroft says, for an issue that might unite his party and call attention away from the Kansas troubles, Pierce asserted that Great Britain had organized a new colony in Central America contrary to the treaty, and the Democracy was ready to threaten war. Although Mr. Seward had in 1853 opposed a similar agitation started by Cass and Soulé, he now accepted the Democratic contention that a new aggressive movement had been made by England, and advised that notice of intervention be given, to be followed by actual intervention within a year if the assumed new dominion were not discontinued. This "stealing their thunder" disconcerted the Democracy, and the matter was dropped. Mr. Seward's belligerency was no more heard of, either. Mr. Bancroft says of it that, "by pretending to be more bent on war than the President, Seward destroyed the anticipated monopoly." But he goes further, descanting severely on the inconsistency, and suggests gratuitously another motive than that which Seward avowed, which was "to keep some of our Republican friends from falling, or rather jumping, into the pit that the President had dug for us so skilfully." This new motive is supposed to be Seward's desire to promote his nomination for the Presidency by pleasing Republicans of Democratic and Know-Nothing antecedents (i, p. 488). Mr. Bancroft says further, that

> "Sumner jocosely characterized the performance as helping the Democracy play Alcibiades's trick of cutting off a dog's tail so as to give the people of Athens something to talk about; and he added that Seward had furnished 'a new argument to those who say that he leaps upon every hobby without regard to principle'" (i, p. 489).

As Mr. Bancroft had charged Seward with garbling a paragraph in the treaty, this use of Sumner's authority is somewhat astonishing. The reference is to E. L. Pierce's Sumner, and, on turning to it, we find that, within five days after Seward's speech, Mr. Sumner, writing to C. F. Adams on February 5, said of it, "Seward's speech is said to have killed all idea of war; by invoking war, he has made it impossible for this Administration to press it. I have been on the point of speaking on the question fully, but I cannot now regard it as a reality." This Mr. Bancroft omits. A month later, writing to John Jay, Sumner says of the war issues which Seward had killed, and on which he had thought of speaking fully, "Never at any moment have they seemed to me to have any vitality. I have thought it a mistake on the part of Seward to take part in them, and thus help magnify them, or at least draw to them public attention, which is precisely what the Administration desires." Sumner evidently had forgotten that he had written to Adams a month before that it was Seward's speech that had taken the vitality out of them, which could hardly be what the Administration desired. It was here that he added: "There is no honesty in the way in which these questions have been pressed," *i. e.*, by the Administration, and he now calls it "the old trick of Alcibiades." When Mr. Bancroft says that Sumner "*added* that Seward had furnished a new argument" to his detractors, he is making an excerpt from another letter—to Mr. Adams, not to Mr. Jay; nor at that time, but a fortnight before. To speak of the mosaic thus constructed as Sumner's characterization of Seward's "performance," is a singular use of historical material, and the more so because, if the whole of Sumner's opinion were wanted, the next page of Pierce's book furnishes another letter to Mr. Adams, dated March 29, when, under Seward's leadership, the war issue had been buried and the great debate recalled to the Kansas question, promising "a true fusion with a real chance of success." In this Sumner also said, "Seward will make the greatest speech of his life; he is showing new power daily. I heard one of his speeches in caucus and was electrified by it; it was powerful in its eloquence."

The winter following Lincoln's election was a critical time in Seward's career, as it was in the history of the country. He had swallowed his own disappointment, making no public sign, and had given Mr. Lincoln the support of an advocacy which, for freshness of view and persuasiveness of appeal, equalled any efforts of brain and heart he had ever made. But when the campaign was won and Congress assembled, actual secession of States and the helplessness of the President were the terrible facts staring us in the face. The awful problem had two parts, How to bridge the chasm of ninety days till the new Administration should assume power? and What policy should it adopt when the responsibility should be assumed? Bridging the chasm was no trifling task. They were not the least intelligent and able among Republicans who reckoned imminent the danger that before March the capital would be in the hands of the insurgents, with all the archives and the material organization of the government. At an early day of the session, Seward was aware that he was to be Lincoln's Secretary of State, and he remained the sole member of the prospective cabinet till the winter was nearly over. He saw that the true policy for the nonce was to have no policy, but to preserve a peaceful status, and to cultivate love of the Union wherever, North or South, that sentiment could be invigorated. The hope that a sober second thought in the South would repudiate secession was the one possibility of peace. Persistency of secession meant war. The decision of Buchanan to have the peace last his time, and to hand over the government to his successor at the Capitol, was encouraged because it helped bridge the interval. When Black and Stanton and Dix entered Buchanan's Cabinet, Seward cultivated relations with them and earnestly cooperated with and encouraged their loyal purposes. He favored Congressional committees to consider the means of avoiding the strife. He did not oppose the Peace Conference called by Virginia. He applauded every expression, in whatever form, of the desire to preserve Union and peace. He worked assiduously to engage leading men in the border States to advocate peace and Union. His speech of January 12, which Mr. Bancroft calls "as wise, as patriotic, and as important a speech as has ever been delivered within the walls of the Capitol" (ii, 16), was the eloquent presentation of these sentiments and of his own readiness to go to the verge in meeting "prejudice with conciliation, exaction with concession which surrenders no principle, and violence with the right hand of peace." The basis of peace which he suggested was the same which he had received from Mr. Lincoln and had presented in the Senate Committee of Thirteen. It was wholly consistent with the principles on which the Republicans had fought the campaign, except that in the arid territory between Mexico and Kansas a contingent concession to Douglas's followers in the North (nearly as numerous as Lincoln's) was offered, subject to the action of a constitutional convention to be called after secession and disunion should be given up. Underlying this was a more or less explicit faith in Webster's "law of nature" which would prevent slavery from taking root there.

It would be hard to improve the first current statement Mr. Bancroft makes of Seward's conduct and words in this trying time; but when this is done, there comes the inevitable special pleading to show possible lower motives, and to conclude that therefore Seward acted from them. Again Mr. Weed is brought on the stage, and we are told that as Mr. Seward must have had certain definite aims, "it will be less difficult to indicate what they were after we know whether he and Weed were substantially of one mind" (ii, 26). True, Weed had said that he spoke only for himself, and Seward had, on December 4, repudiated responsibility for Mr. Weed's "well-intentioned but rather impulsive movement"; but Mr. Bancroft falls back on the argument that, "so far as is known, he never directly affirmed that he was opposed to Weed's opinions." What matters it that Seward had said (and Mr. Bancroft quotes it) that "when he desires to be heard, he is in the habit of speaking in his proper place for himself"? Mr. Bancroft replies that "this is not considered final," for "Seward was determined to conceal his opinions." If we were to say, Let us agree, then, that we don't know them, and look to his acts, our author replies, No, we must look to Weed's opinions. And this is

after we have had full comment on Seward's January speech, and his correspondence with Lincoln as well as with others is before us! But what *were* Weed's opinions and of what date? Mr. Weed edited a daily paper and expressed various opinions in the course of that winter. Mr. Bancroft gives us very little help, and we feel far less sure that we know, after reading these pages, what Mr. Weed thought than that we understand Mr. Seward. Indeed, there is almost no effort at all to state definitely or to analyze Mr. Weed's views, much less to show that they were continuous through the winter, progressive or otherwise. The end seems to have been reached with the conclusion that Seward agreed with Weed, whatever the latter believed, and therefore Seward is discredited. This would not be worth the space given it if the culmination of the curious method were not found in dealing with Mr. Seward in the first weeks of the new Administration, before his supposed conversion by the bombardment of Fort Sumter.

Taking Seward's public speeches and his correspondence as our guide, his position on the 4th of March was this: He hoped the secession rage would pass away if a carefully pacific policy were pursued. Such a policy would consolidate the North. It would possibly keep the border States from seceding. His conclusion was, cultivate Union sentiments, and, if war must come, let the secessionists be plainly the aggressors in the military conflict. Before Judge Holt left the War Department, he informed the new President that Anderson reported that he was getting short of provisions, while he and Scott believed that a large land and naval force would be necessary to relieve the fort. After some days of inquiry and study of the situation and several cabinet meetings, Lincoln, on March 15, asked the written opinions of his cabinet on the subject. All but two thought it necessary to evacuate the fort, and, of the two, one (Chase) said he would not favor the attempt to hold it if it involved the "enlistment of armies and the expenditure of millions." Seward's opinion repeated the doctrines we have stated as his. As to the fort he said: "If it were possible to peacefully provision Fort Sumter, of course I should answer that it would be both unwise and inhuman not to attempt it." As to the border States, he said their disposition at the moment was to adhere to the Union unless some popular exasperation should be aroused. Our aggressive military operation would do this. Yet the Administration must maintain the Union, "peacefully if it can, forcibly if it must—to every extremity." He would put the odium of a military conflict on the seceders, accepting war when it comes. He would persevere in this policy "for a short time longer." He would assemble the navy on the coast, collect the revenues on the water, and "defer military action on land until a case should arise where we would hold the defensive."

Besides Fort Sumter, we held three forts in the Gulf, all in Florida. The seceders had occupied all others. The three were Fort Taylor at Key West, Fort Jefferson at Tortugas, and Fort Pickens in front of Pensacola. The two first named were separated from the mainland by the broad Florida Channel, and Pickens was on Santa Rosa Island, where it could be reinforced without necessary conflict with the Confederate forces. After the change in his cabinet, Buchanan had ordered all three to be reinforced and provisioned. The garrison for Pickens on March 4 was on the U. S. S. *Brooklyn*, off the fort, kept from landing by a "quasi-truce" between Buchanan and the rebel authorities. Meanwhile Lieut. Slemmer, with a handful of men, held the fort. On the 11th of March the new Administration ordered the landing to be made, and, although there was an annoying hitch in obeying, the reinforcement was in fact made under that order. It was made without hostile interference, and the fort was securely held throughout the war.

With these facts firmly in mind, we are prepared to estimate Mr. Bancroft's attack upon Mr. Seward's good faith in dealing with the rebel Commissioners who were in Washington. For brevity's sake we may pass by the efforts of these Commissioners to obtain an audience with the Secretary of State, which was refused, and come to March 15, when Mr. Campbell of Alabama, later the Confederate Assistant Secretary of War, appears as an intermediary. Mr. Bancroft enjoys the wit of Lincoln's designation of professed loyal men in the South as "white crows," but he omits to tell us that Mr. Campbell was a bird of that feather. He refers to him in this matter as Justice Campbell of the Supreme Court, as he then was, and as Lee and Johnston were then officers of the United States Army. The fact and the omission are important, as Mr. Bancroft's attack upon Seward's good faith is chiefly based on recollections Mr. Campbell put in print a dozen years later. On the same 15th of March Mr. Seward wrote and put on the department records a memorandum of his refusal to have diplomatic intercourse with the Commissioners or to recognize them. Keeping within strict diplomatic usage, he did not even communicate this to them by note, but caused them to be informed that they could get a copy by calling for it at the department. The same date was that of his written opinion about Sumter, called for by the President. The same day he wrote home calling the question about "Davis's ambassadors'["cabinet work" and therefore secret, and saying, "My duties call me to the White House one, two or three times a day." So constantly and closely was he conferring with the President.

After an interview with Mr. Seward, Judge Campbell made a statement to the Commissioners, which he reported to Seward as being that he "had entire confidence that Fort Sumter would be evacuated in five days, and that no measure changing the existing status of things prejudicially to the Confederate States is at present contemplated by the Administration." Reasons why the Commissioners should not press for an answer to themselves were added, and Campbell concluded by saying that he cautioned them "not to speak of our intercourse, and not to express any surmise as to the source from which my assurances were derived. I [Campbell] did not mention any name to them." The original note Campbell handed the Commissioners is still more guardedly in his own name in every clause.

The importance of the details of form cannot be overlooked by anybody at all acquainted with diplomatic history. Lest even an informal conversation with the Commissioners should be claimed to be some recognition of the Confederacy or of the official character of the men themselves, Mr. Seward refused to see them or acknowledge their communication in writing. In permitting Judge Campbell to state his own belief, he was forbidden to state the grounds of it or whence he had got it. They must act on the fact that he believed what he said, or not act at all. Seward did not ask any promises or pledges, because that would also be an agreement between parties of whom he must be one—precisely what he refused to be. Campbell wrote to Jefferson Davis himself, on April 3: "I have no right to mention any name or to pledge any person." Those he communicated with had no right to know how he obtained his information. They might assume, if they liked, that he was hid in a closet and overheard Lincoln and Seward talk, or that he had a confederate who stole copies of letters, *à la bordereau*. In short, Mr. Seward had taken the most thorough means known to diplomacy to convey to an enemy a fact which he thought would have an effect favorable to his own cause, without leaving the possibility of any claim of pledge, or even of communication, on his part. He took the risk of the Commissioners' freedom from pledge enabling them to do what, in fact, they did—advise their Government to send at once a force large enough to capture Fort Pickens. In the face of all this, Mr. Bancroft champions the Confederate contention that Mr. Seward violated pledges made between March 15 and April 3, when Campbell told the President of the Confederacy himself that there were none, and that he had been authorized to make none!

But how about the *fact* which Mr. Seward allowed Campbell to communicate? Treat it as we should a similar case between Mr. McKinley and Mr. Hay to-day. The presumption is that the Secretary expressed the purpose of his chief, by his authority. Whoever controverts this must establish it by positive preponderant evidence. It was Lincoln through Seward who spoke, allowing his purpose of withdrawing Anderson from Sumter to be known. The withdrawal could only be by Lincoln's act. It would be worse than puerile, it would be idiotic, to say the thing would be done before a letter could reach Montgomery, unless that was the President's existing intention. Couple with this the fact that Seward would not settle the question of a personal interview with the Commissioners till he submitted it to Lincoln. Can we believe the mere form was matter for consultation and not the substance? Add that Seward was going to Lincoln several times a day; add his established habit of careful co-operation shown in every step since December, and doubts vanish. To suppose Mr. Lincoln during March "had halted between two opinions and had acted on none," as Mr. Bancroft does (ii, p. 134), is more derogatory to him than any other hypothesis, besides contradicting the contemporaneous evidence. He intended to withdraw the garrison and to preserve the peace for the time, by letting it be known; but he and his Secretary had so guarded the revelation of that purpose as absolutely to retain his right to change it at any moment, without asking anybody's leave or giving anybody notice. To say that they were bound to give such notice to the Commissioners is ridiculous; but unless giving it to Campbell was for the purpose of passing it on to the Commissioners, what is the pother about?

Lamon's errand to Charleston was Mr.

Lincoln's own, and gave an opportunity for one of those bits of amateur diplomacy outside the State Department which naturally annoyed Mr. Seward. Gen. Crawford, who was in Fort Sumter, says the garrison, from Anderson down, understood from Lamon that they were to be withdrawn. But Lamon was tempted to negotiate with Gov. Pickens about the kind of ship which should be sent, and the fat was in the fire. He was not authorized to touch this subject, and now for the first time in the whole transaction an acknowledged agent of the President made representations which might involve an obligation. Lincoln repudiated his authority to have any communication with Confederates on the subject of withdrawing the garrison, but we find no denial on his part that such had in fact been his intention. He solved the difficulty with scrupulous honor by saying he would give Gov. Pickens notice if he should decide to attempt throwing in relief to the fort.

Capt. Fox's plan for sending in a ship at night seemed worth trying; the general agitation of public opinion seemed to run in the direction of an effort to relieve Anderson; Lincoln determined to try it, as he had a right to do. Seward was vexed, and his vexation came to the surface in his now famous "Thoughts for the President's Consideration"; but he at once settled to his work again, and the President and he were like hand and glove till assassination struck at them both at once. The rebels made the question of prolonging the peace policy a mere academic one. Their attack on Sumter was the military aggression for which Seward had counselled waiting. It united the North as he had predicted. Douglas and his million backers supported gigantic warlike armaments to uphold the Union. The Republican party gave way to the Union party, and the old name was not revived till the war was over. Seward's practical mind dropped the debate whether a postponement of the collision would have resulted in reunion, for the juncture had now come in which he had said he would maintain the Union by force "to every extremity." There is evidence that Davis yielded to the hotheads' exhortation to precipitate the conflict and prevent a reaction, and we know that Toombs, his Secretary of State, said of it, "It is suicide, murder, and will lose us every friend at the North."

PRACTICAL ÆSTHETICS.

Proportion and Harmony of Line and Color in Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture. An Essay in Comparative Æsthetics. By George Lansing Raymond, L.H.D., Professor of Æsthetics in Princeton University. Author of 'Art in Theory,' 'The Representative Significance of Form,' 'Poetry as a Representative Art,' 'Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture as Representative Arts,' 'The Genesis of Art Form,' 'Rhythm and Harmony in Poetry and Music,' etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

It is in this imposing manner, with the prestige of a professorship in an important university as well as that of a doctorate and of a long list of previous works, that Prof. Raymond introduces the seventh volume of his amazing series of works on Æsthetics. It has been a common scoff at critics that they aspire to instruct the masters in their own art, and to tell them how their work should have been produced; and the answer of the critic, if he were possessed of any modesty or humor, has been that he sought to teach not the artist, but the public—that his aim was the elucidation of the good or the bad in existent work, not the formulation of rules by which good work might be produced or even bad work avoided. Either a congenital lack of humor or the acquired habit of pedagogy has prevented Prof. Raymond from taking this view, and he boldly proclaims his intention of helping art and the artist. His aim is "practical," he says. He refers constantly to the necessity of a sound theory as a basis for good production, and is so sure that he has supplied this theory that, while he hardly expects "artists and critics and patrons of art" to recognize him "as one who, in all that he has written, has been mainly anxious to be helpful to them"; yet, "whatever they may think, he is certain that he will prove helpful in reality, in case" they pay any attention to his teaching.

Albert Dürer said: "Whosoever taketh council in the arts, let him take it from one thoroughly versed in those matters, who can prove what he saith *with his hand.*" This is strong doctrine, and the test too severe, perhaps, to be enforced. A professor of æsthetics deals, necessarily, with many arts, and to ask him to prove his competence in any one of them by the actual creation of a work of art would be to ask the manifestly impossible; for he who can practise any art has other things to do than to profess æsthetics. But we may at least demand of him who writes of art some fair degree of information, and may refuse to listen to the theories of one whose surprising ignorance glares from every page. Even the teaching of college youth requires some knowledge, and here we have the avowed purpose to teach the teachers and to be schoolmaster to the masters; and this avowal is made by a man who blunders wherever blundering is possible, and often where it might be thought impossible. That this characterization is justified, we shall proceed to show by a few citations, and we shall carefully avoid all matters of opinion, and confine ourselves strictly to matters of fact, of science, and of history—things provable and certain, and about which, though ignorance may be excusable, dogmatic ignorance is not.

On pp. 170 and 171 of this volume there is a discussion of the architecture of the Paris Opera-house, which contains the statement: "This front would have been more successful, perhaps, if these rounded pediments at either side of the second story had been half-domes, corresponding to the large half-dome in the centre of the building," etc. There is a *whole* dome over the auditorium, but no half-dome on the façade.

From p. 300 to 308 there is a brief history of painting, which is wholly delicious, but from which we will make but two extracts: "In the treatment of his [Lionardo's] coloring there was gradation, too, which had not been seen in the works of his predecessors"; and: "The foremost among these followers [of Rubens] were Van Dyck, . . . Teniers, . . . and Rembrandt"!

These are recondite matters of special knowledge. Let us take a matter or two of common observation: "Objects in sunshine at this time [noon] show bluish and cold tints; while those in shadow show the opposite" (p. 320). This will prove news to the painters of the open-air, as will the following upon aerial perspective: "As objects recede in the distance, they grow more dull in color, and, in the extreme distance, change their color, passing from one containing more light into one containing less light; bright red, for instance, passing into darker red and brown, yellow into orange," etc. (p. 321). One cannot argue with this, one can only tell Prof. Raymond that colors become paler in extreme distance, not darker. Having described a state of facts that does not exist, he gives as a reason for this state of facts another alleged fact which also does not exist. "These changes in colors take place in the distance," he says, "because less light falls upon the objects there"!

But it is in discoursing of the human eye, and of perspective, that Prof. Raymond is most astonishing. As proof that an image is actually formed upon the retina, he gravely says (p. 21): "Indeed, merely by looking into the eyes of our fellows, we can sometimes see in them an image of the external world as perfect as a reflection in a mirror." Since what we see *is* "a reflection in [or rather from] a mirror," this is hardly surprising, but what has it to do with the image on the retina? We can see the same thing on a glass marble, or a brass ball. Does Prof. Raymond suppose that the reflection on the lens of a camera is the same thing as the image on the screen at the back? If he does, we recommend to his observation this simple distinction, that the image on the screen is upside down, while the reflection on the surface of the lens is right side up.

But the Professor is inexhaustible in this sort of thing. Hear him again. The eyes rotate, he says (p. 237), "whenever the axes of the two eyes converge—*i. e.*, whenever, in order to see distinctly and specifically, as distinguished from indistinctly and generally, the two eyes move away from each other—not towards each other, as some might suppose, forgetting that the lines of vision—*i. e.*, the axes—of the two eyes cross as they pass outward. See fig. 4, page 22." Fig. 4, being taken from Le Conte's 'Sight,' naturally shows nothing so absurd, and it represents only one eye. If, as a child, Prof. Raymond never held his finger in front of his nose in order to "look cross-eyed," let him try it now, and he can readily satisfy himself that, "in order to see distinctly and specifically," the two eyes do *not* "move away from each other."

Now hear the explanation of the perspective convergence of parallel lines: "They converge thus, of course, because the spherical shape of the eye causes the lines or axes of vision as they extend outward to radiate, and thus to render visible, when far enough away, not only an object which is exactly in front of the eye, but also much that is on both sides of this object" (p. 234). Starting with this radically false conception, we have a lecture on perspective which is wrong from end to end. "Horizontal lines," we are told (presumably lines parallel with the picture-plain, or, in other words, horizontal lines at right angles with the line of vision), "if above the level of the eye, will, at the place directly in front of us, curve upward in the image," and as an illustration of this: "In fig. 81, p. 155, the summits of the two steeples are on a level. A line drawn from one to the other is that which represents the horizontal; but notice, if actually drawn between them, what a

sharp curve it would necessitate" (pp. 234, 236). On this the following observations may be made: (1.) No two points can possibly necessitate a curve as the line drawn between them. (2.) In the illustration, the front of the church is not at right angles to the line of vision, and is therefore in perspective without regard to the principle invoked. (3.) The illustration is from a photograph, and the camera is not spherical. Although it may surprise Prof. Raymond to be told so, it is nevertheless true that perspective has no more to do with the sphericity of the eye than with the theory of tides. Perspective is the mathematical projection upon a plane surface of solid objects beyond it; and whatever effect the sphericity of the eye may produce upon the image of the natural objects, it will also produce upon the image of the perspective representation. Therefore, lines straight in reality are properly represented by straight lines in art.

We pass from the question of Prof. Raymond's blundering as to facts, and give a specimen of his confusion of thought. The Greeks sometimes gave to both the stylobate of a temple and to the entablature an upward curve. Why?

"If, from a little distance, we look at a horizontal line before us and extending on both sides of us, in the degree in which this line is long its central point in front of us will seem to curve away from us, and, in the degree in which we stand lower than the line, it will curve *upward*. If this be true, it follows also that, in case a building be both above us and broad, and the centre of the horizontal line be not seen to curve upward, it will appear to do the opposite, that is, to curve downward. Again . . . a horizontal line appears to curve *downward*, when lower than the level at which the eyes are directed. When looking at a temple, they are instinctively directed towards some level above the stylobate; hence its platform would appear to sag downward if not slightly curved upward." (Pp. 255, 256. The italics are ours.)

Here is, indeed, a good rule that works both ways! Whether the line appear to curve upward or downward, the remedy is clearly proved to be the same. But one shudders for the intellect of the students in Prof. Raymond's classes, obliged to try to understand this explanation.

We do not pretend that these examples of blundering, false statements, and false reasoning, have been "chosen at random." On the contrary, we have carefully selected them as the most flagrant and the most easily exposed. There are many more, some of them only the more dangerous because less obvious; but it would take more time and space than the thing is worth to show them up.

VILLAGE LIFE IN CHINA.

Village Life in China: A Study in Sociology. By Arthur H. Smith. Fleming H. Revell Co.

This monograph of exceeding value is by a witty Yankee who has lived long in China. He has already written a book which, of all others in the library on China, best enables one to understand the Chinaman as he is. He acknowledges that the vastness of the country and the numbers of the race require one to be very modest when making generalizations. Yet his main conclusions are corroborated by those who have lived longest among the Chinese, dwelt with them in closest harmony, and succeeded in working with them with the most helpful results. After reading, we are impressed with the terrible facts that the average Chinaman has lost mental initiative, and that the moral forces which once shaped China, having utterly decayed, are to-day inert. The normal Chinaman, moulded by the influence of a millennium or two of traditions, never seriously disturbed, is incurious. He does not care. He will not be bothered by doing anything out of his routine. He does not want to know what happens in the next province, or the country beyond, or in the world. If, as in 1894, there is a war, not between Japan and China—for there never was such a thing—but between two or three Chinese provinces and the whole empire of Japan, the interior Chinaman has no interest in the matter, save as it may possibly, if the Japanese win, increase his taxes. Indeed, the only Chinese in the empire who are alert, inquiring, eager to know what the world is doing, and especially what China and the rulers of Peking are thinking of, are the converts—that is, the pupils of the missionaries or of those intelligent foreigners who have some other care concerning the Chinese servants than mere exaction of labor and payment of wages. Out of Chinese official life or from the literati it seems impossible to get honesty or virtue in any vital sense. The earnest, thinking men of China know that her vital lack is neither capital nor machinery, but men. They realize that the Chinese system does not produce men of conscience and of sterling character. They know that it has hitherto been impossible to secure any such persons, except by importation. How can it be otherwise in the future?

Dr. Smith's judgment is that of a cautious expert who has analyzed the Chinese social system and shown its issues and results. To the general reader and inquirer into sociology this book has the value which comes of a very minute, patient, and detailed study of a vital but much neglected subject. Most of the writing on China is like the big bulky thing itself, repulsive, monotonous, unrelieved by wit or a fine style. Dr. Smith has both. His special charm is that his fitly chosen words, usually taking their color from the Chinese background, brighten his pages, even as his wit and humor relieve their weight. He speaks of most efforts to get at the real population per square mile as "a mere pagoda of guesses." He declares that the "three harmonies" of Heaven, Earth, and Man are at present out of sorts with each other. "What is imperatively needed is a reconciliation. This can never be had until the Chinese come to a more accurate appreciation of the limits of the power of each of the triad." There are, on these lively pages, hundreds of quotable felicities which illustrate both the literature of knowledge and the literature of power.

Contrary to the notions of China current among us, the number of great cities is not, relatively to the whole population, anything like as large in China as in western lands. Even the district cities are often merely large villages. At least three-fourths of China is rural. When we think of the vast numbers isolated during tens of centuries from other lands and from the world, we need not wonder at the complexity and the conservativeness of Chinese civilization.

It would be hard to tell what the author does not describe in detail, for he ransacks the house and town. The one thing made clear is that for dulness and monotony Chinese villages may take the palm above all that exist in countries laying claim to civilization. He treats of construction, nomenclature, roads, ferries, wells, shops, theatres, schools, and colleges—mentioning the recent attempted reforms and the arrest of them by the Empress Dowager—temples and religious societies, coöperation in various forms, and social observances, such as weddings and funerals. Five chapters are devoted to village family life. This the author, with sympathy, but with a detail of knowledge that would delight a housekeeper, analyzes. He shows how morally impossible it is to expect reform and improvement of social life through the principles and system now in vogue. Yet, while making this judgment after long observation, accumulated data, and patient and impartial reasoning, Dr. Smith declares that, "in spite of all apparent evidence to the contrary, there is adequate reason to believe that Chinese social morality at its best is fully equal to that of any western land." One chapter is pathetic in its revelations as to the everywhere prevalent "instability from family disunity." He declares that the collocation of so many human beings in one compound family on the Chinese (or patriarchal) plan is one which no society in the world could endure, because it is more than human nature can bear. So long as this principle, which nominally holds many families under one head, exists, those perpetual Chinese quarrels which are so objectionable by reason of their suddenness, their violence, and their publicity, will continue to make life a needless burden, while the individuality and freedom absolutely necessary to progress will be kept in paralysis.

Very naturally the critic and intelligent reader turns with eager interest to the final chapter to learn the author's answer to the question, What can Christianity do for China? Here we are well rewarded, for we have the writing, not of an unseasoned zealot busy at oratory, with an eye to the secretary at home and to stimulating collections for foreign missions, but of a patient student, who, to long observation and wide experience, adds a knowledge of history. His belief in the potency of Christianity as that of "an unwasting and secular force" is based upon the conception of it as a moral power "producing certain definite, though small, results during a certain period of time, and of a nature adapted to produce indefinite similar results in unlimited time." So far from indulging in the rhetorical gush, so persistently and perniciously common, on which time has again and again set its ban of disapproval, Dr. Smith points out that under no circumstances can the moral power of Christianity produce its full effect in less than "three complete generations," by which time Christian heredity will have begun to operate. It would be well if both the promoters and the critics of Christian missions would keep this principle in view.

With clear apprehension of the difficulties, Dr. Smith points out how Christianity can improve the Chinese family—by demanding better care of children, creating more sympathy between parents and offspring, introducing training as well as government, revolutionizing the system of education, making the home as well as the school an ally, teaching the Chinese child his own tongue in a rational manner, rousing the

conscience, and by providing intellectual and spiritual education for girls as well as boys. He believes that the education of Chinese women is one condition of the renovation of the empire. To-day the typical Chinese mother is "an ignorant woman with babies," but "no nation or race can rise above the status of its mothers and wives." Christianity will tend to a more rational selection of partners, will postpone marriage to a suitable age, and will make wedlock a sacred solemnity instead of a social necessity. By abolishing polygamy and concubinage, it will cut the taproot of a upas tree which now poisons Chinese society. At present the husband and wife are merely "commercial partners in a kettle of rice." By dividing the large compound family organization of the patriarchal type, it will leave each son free to work out his own destiny. It will introduce an entirely new element into the friendships of the Chinese, which are too often based upon the selfish considerations suggested by the maxim of Confucius, "Have no friends not equal to yourself"—against which the teachings of the New Testament run counter.

Searching history for precedents of conversions of empires, Dr. Smith reckons that, from the general opening of China, fifty years would suffice for a good beginning, three hundred for a general diffusion of Christianity, and five hundred for its obvious superseding of all rival faiths. Using a different forecast, however, he recalls the fact that spiritual development, like that of races, is slow in its inception, but, once begun, it takes little account of the rules of ratio and proportion. The forces of Christianity being now far greater than ever before, the world visibly contracted, and the age in which we live highly vitalized through communication and transfusion of forces, Dr. Smith sees the ultimate Christianization of China, believing such vision to be "sober history, rationally interpreted." With many questions and problems in China the all-comprehending problem is how to set Christianity at work among the Chinese.

Resurrection. By Leo Tolstoy. Translated by Mrs. Louise Maude. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Tolstoy's well-known views about the reconstruction of society through a general acceptance and practice of the teaching of Jesus Christ are very fully expressed in his latest work, 'Resurrection.' This teaching, the nations calling themselves Christian have long tacitly decided to be impracticable; yet it is perhaps natural that a man always profoundly interested in the riddle of life, pondering it chiefly amidst those social conditions which most put the profession of Christianity to shame, should, in his old age, demand nothing short of revolution and realization of a divine ideal. Tolstoy's belief that the revolution is always possible (flourishing as it does in defiance of most adverse conditions) is itself an evidence of controlling spiritual force, yet it seems more closely to ally him with the angels than with men, and is hardly an argument in favor of the perfectibility of common human nature. It does, however, add fervor to an appeal for similar faith, and force to those instances which he chooses for demonstration of the presence and power of God in man.

The method for developing his moral ideas that appears instinctively to have presented itself to him is at once philosophical and artistic. A question of conduct, of right and wrong, wide in application as human life, is discussed through a situation which has no exceptional features, and solved by the awakening of a soul which had long seemed dead, yet was only sleeping. In the first half of the book the Russian *milieu* imposes no local limitations; it is external and accessory, increasing the strain and pain of spiritual conflict, but never pinning us down to contemplation of a Russian soul. A wide generalization is perfectly comprehended in a special instance; the soul history of a world of men, having been searched and seen and understood without doubt, is finally cast, by a constructive imagination and a stern, impressive sort of literary art, into the story of Prince Dmitri Nekhludoff.

Tolstoy plunges into the story with the swift, dramatic stroke of a novelist so sure of his art that he feels no concern about it. In the first paragraphs God's beneficent intention is symbolized by the beauty of morning and spring, and man's stupid malevolence by the spectacle of soldiers with drawn swords conducting Maslóva, the prostitute, from prison to court, to stand her trial for robbery and murder. Maslóva's past is then sketched in a bare, direct way, an awful presentment of the havoc wrought by sexual passion. Society's injustice to women is marked by the picture of Nekhludoff, who has never been punished for the seduction of Maslóva, and who, during ten years of selfish and prosperous life, has managed to forget all about her. In describing the trial, Tolstoy lapses into bitter satire of processes and persons peculiarly Russian, but, with the recognition by Prince Nekhludoff, the juryman, of Maslóva, the criminal, he returns to his motive. Slowly, painfully, most reluctantly, Nekhludoff's atrophied soul awakes and forces him to see himself as the author of Maslóva's shame, to know that he in the first place is responsible for all that she has suffered from society and may yet be condemned to suffer by the law. After the awakening comes the battle, and the soul does not win in one dramatic moment. All the claims of the animal, of habit, of a great artificial society, are arrayed against it, but, in the end, the spirit does win, and the author vindicates his assumptions of the presence of God in man and the power of man to redeem himself.

When Nekhludoff voluntarily departs with Maslóva for Siberia, the moral idea seems to us to have been completely expressed, and the story told. But Tolstoy has still a great many social wrongs and abuses to condemn, and at this point he changes his method so absolutely that the change cannot be accidental. He may have felt that, so far, he has been delivering his message with too much art, too much technical skill; that, therefore, his sincerity may be questioned, and that, instead of working for serious moral regeneration, he has worked only for intense and transient emotional excitement. At all events, the rest of the book is fragmentary, the work not of a philosopher and novelist, but of a moralist and reformer seeing nothing in life but certain defined evils. The Russian dominates the man, and discussion of the universal spiritual gives way to denunciation of Russian class tyranny, official injustice, and very detailed accounts of the filth of Russian prisons. Nekhludoff, in journeying to Siberia, sharing the prisoners' hardships, listening to their tales, retires behind race barriers. With the destruction of artistic unity and force, the impressiveness of moral idea diminishes. By localizing the field for moral endeavor, the stimulus to that is minimized. We others cannot alter Russian society and cannot clean Russian prisons, therefore let us dismiss these startling pictures of hopeless misery from our minds as quickly as possible. It is true that we take leave of Nekhludoff announcing moral principles of general application; nevertheless, we feel that their practice may not be so imperative for salvation if we happen to have been born something less than a Russian prince.

Littérature Russe. Par K. Waliszewski. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1900.

A History of Russian Literature. By K. Waliszewski. London: Heinemann; New York: Appletons. 1900.

Interest in Russian literature among English-speaking nations is not less extensive and genuine than among the Germans and the French, and the protagonists in the arena of Russian letters. Turgeneff, Dostoyevski, and Tolstoy have been accessible to English readers for a long time. More than thirty years ago Ralston laid even Russian students under obligations by his masterly study of Russian folklore, and of late similar discussions have appeared from the pens of Caster, Morfill, and Miss Hapgood. Yet, in spite of this intimate acquaintance of English scholars with literary Russia, no comprehensive work on its modern period has been written by an Englishman. The very thorough yearly reviews in the *Athenæum* have been furnished by the Russians Krapotkin, Milyukov, Bogdanovitch, while Prince Volkonski's 'Pictures of Russian History and Literature' is almost the only book that gives an authoritative view of the writers of the last thirty or forty years. It is, however, the reproduction of a series of public lectures which, notwithstanding their pleasant style, suffer from a prejudiced eclecticism such as might have been expected from the social position of their author.

It is, therefore, unfortunate that the latest work in the English language should not have proceeded from one who is either a native of the country under discussion, or intimately acquainted with the mental habits and literary traditions of the English race, but should be merely a translation from the French of a Polish historian who made France his home. Not that the book has no merits, for it is well written and is sufficiently complete for the English reader, but that it necessarily enlarges upon matters that must be foreign to the average Anglo-Saxon, and omits to enter into details as to which his ignorance demands especial enlightenment. If no original writer could have been procured to treat the subject, a mere compilation from the works of Pypin and Skabitchevski would have been more acceptable than this much-filtered work; for, though original and fairly just, it reflects too much the mind of a cosmopolitan, with a predilection for French letters, to be palatable to any but Frenchmen.

The historical treatment of the subject, and the short chapters into which the book is divided and subdivided, are to be highly commended; not less agreeable is the Bibliography attached to the work. Less laudable is the uneven, almost whimsical,

treatment of the separate authors, of whom we have sometimes their entire biography, and again hardly anything but their names, though an equally close study was merited. The greatest faults are a too subjective attitude towards Russian literature, and the lack of sympathy with many of its productions. Thus, Waliszewski does not think it improper to insert an appeal of five pages to Tolstoy to desist from his religious propaganda and to stick to pure art. The 'Word of Igor's Armament' does not, according to him, deserve the high repute which it enjoys in Russia and elsewhere, but is nothing but a great abundance of forms with a complete penury of ideas. Turgeneff, too, is to be lowered in our estimation because there is not in his works a single female figure to be compared to Gretchen or Juliet. Gogol's 'Inspector' has no great value, and no originality whatsoever. These are all dicta with which not only Russians, but foreigners as well, cannot agree. Waliszewski's negative view of Russian letters arises mainly from his eagerness to explain them as imitations and reflexes of French and English originals. He scents now an influence of George Sand and Victor Hugo, now of Molière and Shakspere. But here he commits a grievous error. That Russian literature is not autochthonous, we stand in no need of his assurance. Besides, we have an admirable work by Veselovski in which due allowance is made for all Russian obligations to the literatures of the world. Had Waliszewski merely stated them, we should have no quarrel with him; we should rather have preferred to see the differences brought out more in relief than be compelled to dwell on the resemblances which are a matter of course.

Barring these serious defects, the book will perform a useful mission by directing attention to the whole field of letters, and will be especially appreciated by those who already possess some acquaintance with it, and who have studied the Russian mind from the works of Ralston, Wallace, and Vogüé.

The Moorish Empire: An Historical Epitome. By Budgett Meakin, for some years Editor of the *Times of Morocco.* London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1899. Pp. xxiii + 576. Numerous illustrations, maps, and charts.

Did John Lackland really appeal for help to Morocco? Why did Chaucer's Knight go there, and where were those lists in which he fought for our faith? On what terms was Elizabeth with Morocco? We know how, to balance Spain, she coquetted—one of her multitudinous coquettings—with the Grand Turk. Does Cervantes speak in earnest or in irony where Don Quixote approves of the expulsion of the Moors from Spain? How did Morocco strike Addison's father when he was chaplain—an onerous task—to Kirke's Lambs in Tangier? Such links between land and land appeal to us all, but how much do we know in this case about the other end of the link?

This book gives us the other end, accurately yet without dryness or technicality, and is full of interest to any one who has interest in Europe. The first of three volumes which are intended to give a complete view of Morocco, historical, geographical, and sociological, it divides into three parts, (1) a history of the country from the time when it was Mauretania till now, when it still exists independently by grace of European squabbles; (2) a history of the external relations of the country, the corsairs and their Christian captives, Chaucer's Knight who had "riden in Belmarie" and other Christian soldiers of fortune, the long slow story of the gain by treaty of foreign rights and privileges; (3) a descriptive bibliography of all the books used by the writer, selected from Dr. Robert Brown's great 'Bibliography of Morocco.'

On Mr. Meakin's work as a whole there can be only one judgment. There was ample room and growing need for such a *Thesaurus Mauretanicus*, and, in spite of little defects here and there, the need has been fairly met. The style is rather lumbering in places and bears the stamp of the English provincial newspaper. Sometimes, too, the extreme compression of historical passages has produced obscurity. Of Muslim history outside of Morocco, and especially of the history of Muslim theology, Mr. Meakin has evidently not made any special study. Thus, his identification of the Shi'ites and the Mu'tazilites on p. 35 is a strange bit of confusion, and equally so his view of the Sunna on p. 38. We cannot believe that the word Sunnī is not known in Morocco nor the religious history which lies behind it; that it is of Persian origin, as we are told, is, of course, absurd. Further, some study of Goldziher's 'Zahiriten' would have put point into the notes on pp. 66 and 78; the omission is the more surprising in view of Mr. Meakin's general carefulness, and his knowledge of Goldziher's essay on the theology of Ibn Tūmart in *ZDMG*, xli. The system, too, of transliteration we have absolutely failed to fathom; yet it is explained in detail and with evident satisfaction. Whatever the system, certain words are evidently wrong in form.

But weakness in such details seems almost inevitable in English books, and is noticeable in this case only as the writer has made excellent first-hand use of the Arabic sources for the history of Morocco. He has also made use of two more recent Arabic historians, Ez-Zaïáni (whatever that form may stand for), whose work comes down to 1812, and an-Nāsirī, whose book (printed at Cairo in 1895) comes down to 1894. This latter historian has independent value for the period from 1812 down, and also for the last rulers of the Banū Marīn. From all these, and from his European sources, which are also excellent, Mr. Meakin has built up a masterly and exhaustive history of Morocco, which is unique outside of Arabic. He is not a simple compiler or chronicler, but has caught the methods of the scientific worker. From point to point the evidence of coins and inscriptions is used to check the written records, and European and Arabic sources are balanced one against the other. To the history an admirable chart of comparative chronology is prefixed, extending from the year 81 of the Hijra to the present time, on a scale of about one inch to the twenty-five years. Only those who have attempted something of the kind can know what labor this must have meant.

One of the best chapters is on the fate of the empire. The forces at work are clearly seen and impartially set forth. In intervention from without there can be little hope—there is no sympathy here with "the grasping heathenism miscalled patriotism"; and from within there is no hope—the Moors themselves are too well satisfied with things as they are. "According to native ideas, Morocco is, but for the absence of a really bloodthirsty Sultan who should make his subjects and all the world tremble, in a really prosperous and fortunate condition. Its only plague spot is the presence of the ever-multiplying Nazarenes." Yet, by the slow working of spiritual and educating forces, something may be accomplished. It is refreshing to hear a man who has the courage to speak out thus:

"It is a popular custom of travellers to disparage missionaries . . . Let their work be difficult, their faith a mockery to those who share it not, their object hopeless, their achievements insignificant, or, it may be, illusory; their faults apparent, their methods absurd: the missionaries, of whatever creed, are the noble few who live for the future, and no seed that they sow is lost. Every pure and earnest life lived, whether by a missionary or by any other, . . . will tell on the nation. Every foreigner who visits or resides in Morocco has a responsibility towards the Moors—a mission from God if he fears his God—a life to live, and a truth to proclaim in dealing with the natives, and on every one such, man or woman, hangs to some extent the fate of the Moorish empire."

We look with interest for Mr. Meakin's future volumes. They are certain to be good, but we would entreat him to reconsider his transliteration, either to explain it further or to abandon it altogether; and, above all, to give some time to Muslim theology and law. This last is imperative if his third volume, on things social and religious, is to rise to the true height of its argument.

Practical Agitation. By John Jay Chapman. Scribners.

It is hard to give an idea of the drift of this volume of essays except in the author's own language, and, as he very justly observes, every book wears a slightly different aspect to every new mind. But if we let him speak for himself, these essays "are an attempt to follow the track of personal influence across society." The results of the discussion are summarized in the concluding chapters, and, turning to these, the lesson which Mr. Chapman desires to enforce seems to be that influence on character is always a matter of character—virtue is "a mode of motion," by which virtue itself is transmitted from organism to organism; while vice is another mode of motion of an opposite kind. Hence, to accomplish practical ends by agitation, courage and sincerity are the mainsprings of any machinery that we set in motion, and with every concession to evil there is a loss of motive power. Nothing is needed to make the world perfectly good and happy but to observe that eternal law of agitation which Mr. Chapman preaches.

Stated in this way, the matter may seem self-evident; but, stated in Mr. Chapman's way, and with his unusual force of language and readiness of illustration, his exhortations appeal to the heart. This is because his application of the law of virtue is new and original. He applies it in the field from which our habit is to exclude it—that of politics. What do we need in politics? Obviously honesty, for, according to Mr. Chapman, we are at present engulfed in dishonesty.

"Well, what makes people honest? Honesty. Does anything else spread the influence of honesty except honesty? . . . You cannot imagine any situation where your own total force, in favor of honesty, will consist of anything else than honesty."

Then all we have to do is to be honest, and the Tammany-Platt world of which we are a part will be on its way to disappearance. On the other hand, do we wish to bolster up corruption? Invite Platt to breakfast; be seen "colloguing" with Croker. "Every little helps," in proportion to your influence. The moral law exists even in New York.

For consequences, as a true moral agitator Mr. Chapman cares nothing; he has the boldness to call attention to the fact which casuists have slighted, that though you may save a life by a falsehood, what you have promoted is life-saving, not truthfulness. Of course Mr. Chapman is extravagant. The man of the world, especially if he is concerned in political business, will resent what he says, the cynic will laugh over it; the young and inexperienced will be made hopeful by it. It is one-sided; it is paradoxical; it leaves out half of life; it takes no account of the circumstances, which proverbially alter cases; and it is the sort of thing we expect to hear in church, and not applied uncomfortably to journalism, or politics, or every-day life. Nevertheless, it is true.

The Management and Diseases of the Dog. By John Woodroffe Hill, Fellow of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, etc., with illustrations. Fifth Edition; to which are added the standard of points for judging dogs, and a table of medicines and their doses. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

This volume should be in the hands of every intelligent owner of a dog, as it is the work of an educated and practical man who is able to describe with simplicity and accuracy the causes, symptoms, and results of the great number of diseases to which dogs are subject. His advice for treatment and for the administration of medicines shows not only a knowledge of his subject, but a common sense and humanity not always in evidence in medical works. The arrangement is excellent, and makes it easy to find the particular thing one wants. The dog has long been, and is still to a great extent, left, when in need of intelligent care, to the mercies of such of the ignorant and vicious as have mostly proved themselves unfit for any other vocation. The possessor of Mr. Hill's book can find the most approved methods of treating any disease he is likely to meet in his canine household (and we learn there are thousands of them), and also is told the most sensible and rational methods of averting disease. The chapter on "rabies" is especially good, and while it does not attempt to give any cause for the malady except the bite of a rabid animal, states that there are undoubted cases of spontaneous generation. While undoubtedly "every dog has its day," the day is no more likely to be one of the dog days than any other day of the year, so far as going mad is concerned, and Mr. Hill also states emphatically that "the rabid dog never, in any stage of the disease, exhibits a dread of water; neither will the sight or sound of it produce spasms. On the contrary, thirst is present throughout." This chapter alone, in its destruction of popular fallacies, and in its minute description of the symptoms and treatment of the disease, is so truly useful that it should be in every family of a community in which dogs are kept, for one is quite as likely to be bitten by the mad dog of his neighbor as by his own, if not more so.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Equal Moral Standard for Men and Women: Paper read at International Council of Women. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Baker, R. S. Our New Prosperity. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Charlette, J. Millionnaire. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50.
Gerrare, W. The Story of Moscow. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Hauff, W. von. Der Scheik von Alessandria und seine Sklaven. Macmillan. 60c.
Innes, A. D. Cranmer and the Reformation in England. Scribner. $1.25.
Jokai, M. A Christian but a Roman. Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Newcomb, C. B. Discovery of a Lost Trail. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Raine, A. Garthowen: A Story of a Welsh Homestead. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Stockton, F. R. Mrs. Cliff's Yacht. Scribner.
Thomas, H. W. The Last Lady of Mulberry: A Story of Italian New York. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 10, 1900.

The Week.

Both Bishop Potter and Gen. Otis favored us with important deliverances about the Philippines last week; and if the news contradicted them on the spot, that was not their fault. The Bishop was particularly strong on the temperate habits of our soldiers in Manila. He "did not see one" drunken American soldier during his long stay of six days in the Philippines. In view of the fondness of drunken men for the society of bishops, this is strong testimony. President Schurman, ex-Consul Edwards, and newspaper correspondents thought they saw drunken Americans, though they may have been mistaken. But the courts-martial can hardly have been which found Major Kirkman and Lieuts. Gregg and Bailey guilty of "drunkenness in the streets of Manila," and sentenced them to dismissal from the army. It was unlucky that the records in their cases should have been given out in Washington on the very day of Bishop Potter's tribute to the temperance of the army. If officers are drunk in public, what are we to expect of the men? Gen. Otis's opinions were even more disastrously confronted by the dispatches. As a constitutional pessimist—for so the author of volumes of rose-colored and discredited reports amusingly describes himself—he declared that "the thing is entirely over." He could not see where it was possible for "the guerillas to effect any reorganization." Yet in the same issue of the *Sun* which contained the special dispatch reporting his views, there were telegrams telling of "a renewal of fighting in the Philippines," the outbreaks being described as "severe," the rebels said to be "recruiting," fighting at one point "all day," and organizing "mounted bands of 100 men" to scour the country. Evidently the censor is badly needed to reinforce the orator.

The anomalous character of American rule in Porto Rico is illustrated by the fact that Mr. Allen, the new Governor-General, took on May 1 an oath to support and defend the Constitution of the United States, although it is contended by the Administration which sends him there that the Constitution does not apply to the island; and that he addressed the people as "fellow-citizens of Porto Rico," instead of the United States, which they had expected to become. Barring these disagreeable features of the ceremony, however, everything about the inauguration of the Governor was most encouraging. The message which he carried from the President was a welcome one—that "it is his intention to give to you, so far as all officers are concerned, whether selected from your own numbers or from the United States, men of character and standing, who are enthusiastic and diligent and industrious—men of high sense of honor, who will not seek to advance their own fortunes at your expense, and who will not allow others to do so; men who will see that justice and straightforward honesty will be meted out to all, and who will have a sole regard for the welfare of Porto Rico and the honor of the American Government in its relations to it." Gov. Allen declared himself in full accord with the spirit of this message, and he offers in his own person a fine illustration of the principle. If the President and the Governor between them succeed in filling the other offices with men of the same type as Allen in the chief place, Garrison as Auditor, and Hollander as Treasurer, a promising start will have been made.

It is encouraging to learn, on the authority of the Postmaster-General, that the ruling principle which has guided all the postal work done by our Government in Cuba is "to make a Cuban service for the Cubans." In an article published by *Collier's Weekly*, summarizing the work done in the island by his department, Mr. Smith says that, while it was necessary to send American experts to organize and direct the system, and to train the natives for efficient participation, the purpose has steadily been to send as few people as possible from this country. There are now 750 persons employed in the postal service in Cuba, and only 104, or less than one-seventh, are Americans. Most of these are in the department headquarters and the Havana post-office, 251 of the other 272 offices being in charge of Cubans. In the twenty-one outside of Havana which now have Americans acting as postmasters, Mr. Smith says that native subordinates are being instructed, who will be given charge as soon as they become qualified. "In making every plan," the Postmaster-General adds, "it is borne in mind that the system is made for the Cubans, and not for the United States, and that at an early day they may be called to administer it altogether." This is the right principle, and its application should help in the solution of the Cuban problem.

The best that can possibly be said for the action of the House in passing the Nicaragua Canal bill on May 2 is, that it gave expression to the obvious desire of the people of this country that an Isthmian canal be constructed. But the vote was, nevertheless, ill-timed and ill-mannered, in flat defiance both of an existing treaty and of common sense, and is, therefore, a specimen of that reckless legislation which brings the United States into contempt, and tends seriously to impugn the good faith of our public men. The mere fact that the weightiest Republicans in the House—Messrs. Burton, Cannon, Hitt, Littlefield, McCall, Adams, and Dalzell—felt constrained to speak and vote against the bill, is a sufficient measure of its folly. Of course, it is freely said that the thing will go no further. The Senate is depended upon to block the indefensible measure. Most of those who voted for it did so on the distinct understanding that there was no possibility of its becoming law. But this adds only one touch more of recklessness to the whole proceeding. Why trifle with the national honor, if nothing was to result except the demonstration of willingness so to do? Why ignore propriety and elementary business principles, only for the sake of showing how rash and inconsiderate the House of Representatives could be? All the excuses offered but make the matter worse. Both parties are playing for position, as respects the canal plank which each expects to put in its national platform. There is no doubt that the President—that is to say, Senator Hanna—decided that it would be "good politics" to pass this bill through the House, thereafter to be strangled, and gave the necessary orders to the party cattle. The action is intended for campaign purposes alone. But how can we expect foreigners to understand this?

The arguments against the bill are simply unanswerable. They were presented in the House by Mr. Hitt, chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, Mr. Cannon, chairman of the Appropriations Committee, and Mr. Burton, chairman of the River and Harbors Committee. Law, decency, business sense were arrayed against the bill, and it was defended only by waving arms and loud shouts. Mr. Hitt showed to demonstration that the bill, even in its amended and trickily ambiguous form, is directly in violation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty—a treaty still binding, just officially recognized as in force by our own Government. Mr. Cannon pointed out the way in which Mr. Hepburn was making it possible for Nicaragua and Costa Rica to charge any price they pleased for the desired strip of territory, and cited even Admiral Walker as to the indecency of acting before the report of the Canal Commission was made. Mr. Burton offered several amendments, designed to make the bill square with the treaty and with engineering and with official propriety, but they were all contemptuously rejected. The House was

in for a Nicaragua Canal debauch, and have it the members would, knowing that the White House looked on approvingly.

It seems now that it was Russia, not Germany, who was going to buy the Danish West Indies from the Standard Oil Company. The reporter made the mistake of saying Germany, because he had not at first reflected that "the ways of Russian diplomacy are much darker and more silent than those of German diplomacy." But they will have to be mighty dark and silent to deceive the New York *Times* reporter. He will make these diplomats bolt from their subterranean burrows. For our part, we maintain that it was the Sultan who was about to buy the islands, and that his commission to the Standard Oil Company was to be his way of paying the missionary indemnity. But we admit that this dark and silent plan has been broken off by the fearless exposure of the *Times*. Meanwhile, it is reassuring to learn from Secretary Root that his war-cry at the Grant dinner was not directed at Germany, for this nefarious transaction of the islands, or for any other. In fact, Mr. Root explains, he had no particular nation in mind. He just let off his whoop on general principles—it was merely "academic," he says. This is a much more elegant description of his proceeding than that applied to it by the Brooklyn *Eagle*, which said that it came at "the alcoholic stage of a public dinner." We shall have to be on our guard hereafter when diners reach the academic stage.

The President's appointment of Mr. Dole as first American Governor of the Hawaiian Islands is eminently fit. There is an upstart and hot-headed faction among the Hawaiians which has taken offence at President Dole's conservative ways, and would have been glad to see him replaced by a man more after its own heart. It is said to have maintained a lobby at Washington to prevent the nomination of Mr. Dole. But President McKinley has wisely decided to respect the wishes of the more intelligent and stable elements of the population, and to continue at the head of affairs a man who, both as judge and as President, has shown himself steady and safe. The real difficulties of Hawaiian self-government lie further on; but, in the preliminary step of selecting a Governor, no mistake has been made.

Massachusetts continues to be very fortunate in having Governors who recognize the obligation of the Executive to thwart measures which are pushed through the Legislature by the party machine, or which make their way through both branches because the lawmakers are afraid of the "soldier vote," or of some other organized element in the electorate. Mr. Crane, who began his first term in January (every Massachusetts Governor is expected to hold office for three years), has shown his worthiness to rank with Wolcott and Greenhalge, to run no further back. The Legislature recently passed a bill to "get around the civil-service law," by allowing the appointment of all firemen in Boston to the regular force without passing an examination. The Governor wrote a message which in a few sentences exposed the injustice of such an assault on the merit system, and the Legislature promptly backed down; the Senate, in which the bill had originated, casting only 5 votes out of 25 in favor of overriding the veto.

It is pleasant to find President McKinley also making use of the veto power. He grew up in a State which has never given the Executive this right, and both nature and habit have inclined him always to accept this view that the Governor—or the President—does not properly share in the law-making power. But he has just vetoed a bill, and one of the sort that it was very easy to sign, too. A perfectly proper measure, originating in the House, to rectify the boundaries of the Navajo Indian reservation, so as to restore to a few white men the ranches which had been inadvertently included in it, was amended in the Senate so as to open, under the mining laws, a part of the reservation where gold is supposed to exist, and the House agreed. Mr. McKinley, however, has refused his approval to the outrage. He points out that it would inevitably be regarded by the Indians as a breach of good faith, and insists that "they should be dealt with in a manner calculated to give them confidence in the Government, and to assist them in passing through the inevitable transition from wards of the Government to a state of civilization and full citizenship." This is sound doctrine, and peculiarly timely when we are taking on so many more "wards of the Government," in different parts of the world.

Nebraska may pretty safely be put down in the Bryan column after the action of the Republican State convention on May 2. The success of the Populists in the past has been due to the badness of Republican rule rather than to any merit of their own, and this badness has grown out of the control of the party organization by corporation influences of the most obnoxious sort. Senator Thurston has always typified these influences, and a few weeks ago he made himself more offensive than ever by deserting his duties as a national legislator at Washington, and going to Nebraska to appear before the Supreme Court as counsel for the Standard Oil Company, when that corporation was charged with violating the anti-Trust law of the State. To cap the climax, he followed up this performance by demanding that he be sent to the national convention as a delegate from a State whose Republicans profess in their platforms to be "down on Trusts." There were indignant protests from the party press, under the lead of the Omaha *Bee*, the chief Republican organ, which declared last week that the party would "invite disaster" if it should at the same time "condemn the Trusts and endorse the Trusts by placing the attorney of the Standard Oil Trust at the head of its delegation to the national convention." But Thurston had too strong a hold to be dislodged, and the disaster was invited by a vote of 609 to 500.

There is no doubt that among the Bryanites themselves sentiment is now rapidly growing in favor of cutting loose from "16 to 1." The absurdity of a party's tying itself to an out-of-date theory, which the nation has evidently rejected, is coming to be seen, not only among the men who control the party machinery in the East, but in the States of the Middle West, and to some extent in the South. There are reports of a powerful movement to eliminate from the Kansas City platform the whole matter of free coinage at a fixed ratio, and to substitute a vague deliverance in favor of "bimetallism," such as used to be a great favorite with Republican conventions out West a few years ago. Bryan himself, however, is represented as clinging desperately to the old plank. In fact, he seems as bent in May, 1900, upon pushing "16 to 1" to the front as McKinley was upon making his campaign exclusively on the tariff issue in April, 1896.

Gov. Roosevelt's political education is proceeding apace. That is the true inference to be drawn from his consenting to make party spoils of the responsible and delicate duties of the transfer-tax appraisers, and allowing Platt to fill the new offices with a set of machine politicians. True, he insisted upon "naming" a friend of his own for one of the "places," but the rest he flung as unblushingly as Croker could to the party wolves. The time has passed, however, for reformers to get excited about these performances of the man who once led the whole choir of reform. Their true rôle now is to watch, with amused interest, the stages of his political evolution. Time was when Theodore Roosevelt, as Gen. Harrison said in Carnegie Hall, wanted to reform everything "right away," and thought everybody else terribly slow. But, under the skilful tutelage of Platt, he has learned those great principles of temporary surrender to the devil which he now takes every occasion to expound as the true method of attaining political salvation. No speech of his,

no Cromwell article, is now complete without warnings against those ineffably silly reformers who do not see that real reform is necessarily nine-tenths corruption. Some carping critics have found in these reiterated assertions of the Governor that it is the highest duty of political man to make compromise with sin, an apologetic note, as if the new Roosevelt were conscious that he stood condemned by the old Roosevelt that Harrison knew. But apology is not in keeping with the frank simplicity of his character as we see it. Platt has shown him the more excellent way of using the patronage of office, and Gov. Roosevelt, while acting on the Senator's instructions, is merely paying public tributes to the teacher at whose feet he is now sitting.

Gov. Roosevelt did well in refusing to approve the bill relieving school trustees from the legal obligation to purchase furniture made in the State prisons. Had he signed it, the manufacture of such furniture in the prisons would have been stopped, a quantity of expensive machinery would have been made useless, many more prisoners would have been condemned to idleness, and in subsequent sessions of the Legislature other bills would have been passed which would have destroyed the whole system of employing convicts. But the message in which the Governor explains his action is extremely weak. He states that the decrease in the number of prisoners since 1895 is the consequence of the abolition of the contract-labor system, a proposition which is entirely unsupported by either experience or reason. He favors giving up the present use of machinery in the industries carried on in the prisons, regardless of the fact that in that event the cost of producing school furniture or any other staple articles of manufacture would be so great as to make it impossible to compete with outside manufactories. The public institutions of the State are required to use the articles produced in the prisons only when they are as cheap and as good as those offered in the outside market, and if the prisoners are not to have the aid of machinery, the cost of their products would render them unsalable. It is true, as Gov. Roosevelt says, that the people of this State do not expect to make a profit by running prison factories. If they ever had any such expectation, they must have long ago abandoned it in despair. But they have a right to ask that the heavy charge of maintaining convicts in idleness, or of relieving them from the duty of supporting themselves by productive labor, shall not be increased, as Gov. Roosevelt would have it.

In July, 1896, the Treasury estimated the "per capita" circulation at a trifle over $21. The monthly report just issued, as of May 1, 1900, places the figure at $26.58. This is not very near to the fifty dollars per head demanded at Omaha in 1892, but the gain is material. In fact, the actual addition to the currency, outside the Treasury's reserve, during the last four years, foots up $450,000,000. This gain will probably be admitted, in any quarter of trade, to have been "sufficient to meet the demands of business and population"; at all events, money rates have declined in the face of a $3,000,000 export gold engagement. This being true, it is somewhat interesting to observe that, of the $450,000,000 increase in circulation since July, 1896, $315,000,000 came in the shape of gold; and that, of the increase in gold, $200,000,000 is directly attributable to the excess of gold imports over exports in the period, the rest coming directly from new gold production in this country, which has reached, in the three past years, to nearly $20,000,000. Not only, in short, were our mines exceptionally active, but as soon as our internal and foreign trade, which was dull for numerous very obvious reasons prior to 1896, started up into vigorous activity, our circulating medium responded automatically to the call, as it always will if left unhampered. It is true to-day, as the Populist of 1892 imagined, that money in the pocket of the average citizen has increased—rather more rapidly, in fact, than the net increase would have been if the Silver-Purchase Law had never been revoked. But the reason why his pocket-money has increased is perfectly plain. In the bounty of nature, he has had more than before to offer in exchange for it.

A decision of great importance to the Church of England has been rendered by the Primate, the Archbishop of York concurring. The decision prohibits the "reservation of the Sacrament" in all its forms, and will force the High Church element to come to an equally important decision on its part. Hardly any practice was more violently opposed by the early Protestants than that of reserving the Sacrament by the clergy. It was believed to imply the existence of especial sanctity in the priesthood; a Catholic assumption which the robust spirit of the Reformation fiercely antagonized. The modern Anglican spirit, however, is very different, and the tendency to introduce the Catholic ritual has become very strong. Some of the manifestations of this tendency, such as the use of incense and portable lights, have been already pronounced illegal, and the position of the High Church clergy is becoming more and more untenable. It was believed that, while the reservation of the Sacrament for the purpose of adoration would be forbidden, the practice would be allowed for the sick and dying, but, as the decision is reported, it makes no exceptions. The great problem of disestablishment is thus steadily forced forward, and it may now at any time become the question of the day in English politics.

Gen. Roberts's advance progresses favorably, and if his transport does not break down, there is no reason why he should not be in front of, if not in, Pretoria in six weeks. With his superior force he should be able to turn the intermediate positions held by the Boers. They, in fact, show no signs of being able to make a resolute stand unless it be at Pretoria. As long as the military outlook is thus flattering for the British arms, the War Office will not suffer too severely for its muddling with the military dispatches. It was roughly but truthfully said in Parliament on Friday, by a Conservative member, that the Government might have been thought to have a case in the Spion Kop matter if it had not undertaken to state it in the Commons. Then it was seen that Lord Lansdowne had no case at all. The reduction of the normal Government majority by 45 on the vote taken is a significant index of the feeling, even among Conservatives, that the whole affair was wretchedly handled.

Quite a flutter was caused by the unexpected success of the Nationalists in the Paris municipal election. It seemed as if the boastful Jingo and anti-Dreyfus party—the Merciers and Déroulèdes—had more hold on the electorate than people dreamed. But the returns from similar elections in the interior show that the Nationalists have not gained the confidence of the conservative dwellers in the small towns, and indicate once more how poor an index to the political sentiment of France Paris has become. The present French Government is essentially one of peace and conciliation, and finds its support among the steady-going Republicans of the provinces. With a *bourgeois* President at the head of it, it makes its appeal to the *bourgeoisie* of the country, and, so far, has met with astonishing and gratifying response. When we recall the fact that the Waldeck-Rousseau ministry was formed confessedly as a stop-gap government, to pull the country through the Dreyfus agony, its continuance in power all these months is a surprise, and speaks much for the skill and tact with which it has managed to hit the sentiment of the country between wind and water. For the rest, the municipal election in Paris was a good deal of a comedy. Never were parties so split up, so divided for the purpose of being fantastically recombined. One candidate for civic honors announced himself as a "Republican-Nationalist-Socialist." Another summed up his political opinions as those of a "Liberal-Republican-Anti-Semite." Still another ran simply as a "Frenchman."

THE GREAT REPUBLICAN IF.

The important Constitutional question raised by the conquest of Spanish possessions by the United States has been passed upon by the United States Circuit Court in Minnesota. A writ of habeas corpus was applied for by one Ortiz, a Porto Rican, who was arrested, tried by a military commission, and sentenced to imprisonment in February, 1899. The writ was refused by Judge Lochren, on the ground that the military commission had jurisdiction until the treaty of peace with Spain was finally ratified, which did not take place until April 11. But Judge Lochren found occasion to hold that by the cession of Porto Rico it became an integral part of the United States, and that the Constitution thereupon, *ex proprio vigore*, extended over the island and its people. The precedents, as we have pointed out, are overwhelmingly in favor of this doctrine; but the point does not seem to have been necessarily involved. Nevertheless it is satisfactory to have a judge whose standing is as good as that of Judge Lochren declare himself in favor of maintaining the principles of Constitutional government.

Put on as bold a front as they may, the Republican managers have all along had moments of sinking and qualms about their policy of Imperialism. Judge Lochren's decision reveals again the death's head at the Republican banquet. The party is committed to a plan which may be declared illegal by the Supreme Court. In other words, it must write its platform this year in the conditional mood. *If* the Court will permit us, we shall do so and so. But if it will not? That is the terrible contingency which will take the heart out of Republican campaign oratory and make the shouting hollow. No party can arouse enthusiasm over a great perhaps.

That the whole fabric of their Imperial policy may go down on the verdict of a majority of nine judges, the Republicans do not deny. How nervous and alarmed they are over the awkward possibility that it will, they show in many ways. One of them is the extraordinary pains they are taking to keep a case involving the issue out of the hands of the Supreme Court as long as possible. Litigants sure of their ground do not thus desperately strive to delay trial. Moreover, in their sneers at Judge Lochren, the party organs avow the low motives which they hope to see operative in the highest court of the land. He, they say, is "a Democratic judge"; his law is found only for the purpose of embarrassing the Administration. The inference is clear that when the case finally comes before the Supreme Court, partisan considerations are expected to twist the law so as to aid the Republicans. This new form of insult to an august tribunal the Imperialists may well be allowed to monopolize. If they could have their way, there would be fresh point to Selden's old gibe, "We know what judges will do." Into this base canvassing of the Supreme Court, not according to weight of legal learning or conviction or character, but according to political sympathies, we have no wish to go. The only point we insist upon here and now is that, on their own showing, the shadow of a *grand peut-être* rests upon all the great swelling words of the Republicans concerning our Imperial destiny.

Just why it is so, was left clear by admissions of Republican leaders in Congress in the course of the Porto Rico debates. That small island they cared nothing about; but beyond it, and legally in the same status, lie the Philippines. The thought of free trade with that archipelago appalls the stoutest Republican heart. "Why," said Senator Foraker, "if we are not allowed under the Constitution to levy duties upon Philippine products, and treat the natives like aliens, the annexation of the islands is a great calamity, and we must hasten to get rid of them as soon as possible." The loud amen was heard from Republicans in either House and from the party press. That is to say, if Imperialism threatens the protective system, overboard it will be flung, and the party will not first look to see if a hospitable whale is there to take care of its Jonah.

Pause a moment to note what a beautiful comment this makes upon all the brave words of the Republicans about national duty and honor. The defence of the Philippine adventure has passed through three stages. First, it was all humanity, with incidental glory. Then it was business and profit. Finally, as the country has seen that there was neither glory nor cash in the affair, the defence has come down to noble appeals to live up to the national obligations we have assumed. We may have been asses, as Bishop Potter admits we were, to go to the Philippines, but we should be poltroons if we came away. Our honor is involved. We should be disgraced in the eyes of the world if we were now to withdraw. What, haul down the flag? What, scuttle? You can hear the choking indignation. But, bless these bursting orators, one little decision of the Supreme Court would make them bawl for scuttling and hauling down as loudly as they now do for being true to our imperative duty to stay. If our heroic sacrifices of men and money to subdue the Filipinos are to result in our being compelled to admit their goods free of duty, they may go hang for all we care. Japan may take the islands, or Russia, or Germany, or even England; or they may stew in their own grease; America will have absolutely nothing to do with them if they take away one jot or one tittle from the sacred system of protection. That is flat. The Republican party is going to be very stern and high-minded in doing its duty by the poor islanders, even at great cost—but *if*—and there's uncommonly great virtue in this if—their products cannot be tariffed in our ports, why, Republicans are determined to take the cash and let the credit go.

In a word, the new idols of the Republican party have not supplanted its old idol, Protection. Imperialism is but a gilded toy compared with the dear old grinning monster before which the party has gashed and cut itself all these years. If the two cannot peacefully divide the Republican worship—if one has to be smashed—Imperialism will be the fetish to be cast out, so as to leave Protection without a rival near the throne. And if the Supreme Court gives the word, the Republican managers will take the lead in the very act—withdrawal from the Philippines—which they now denounce as one of shameful cowardice and dishonor.

HOW DEPENDENCIES ARE RULED.

The Congress of the United States has had occasion during the present session to constitute governments for Porto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska. The case of Porto Rico, however, monopolized public attention. A few persons, perhaps, noticed that bills were passed concerning Hawaii and Alaska, but the mass of the people were completely indifferent as to the nature of these bills, and would not have cared if they had failed of passage. It has always been the case in England that a discussion of Indian government empties the House of Commons, and only experts pretend to keep in touch with colonial affairs. After the novelty has passed away, our Congressmen will probably turn over the management of our dependencies to the various bureaus that have come to direct their administration, and the wheels of government will drop into permanent ruts. Hardly any one in Congress now takes the slightest interest in the dealings of our Government with the Indian tribes, except when some scheme for their spoliation is brought forward which is too rank to be ignored. The abuses have become so strongly intrenched as to be secure. Public opinion simply cannot be aroused. The Indians have no representatives in Congress, and there is much money to be made by administering their affairs. When such conditions exist, corruption is unavoidable. There are a good many persons very deeply interested in jobs; there are very few persons so unselfish as to be determined to thwart them; and the people at large are incapable of forming an intelligent opinion one way or the other.

If we compare the treatment of the three Territories for which Congress has just legislated, we see how little part the interests of their inhabitants played in the final determination. The extraordi-

nary vicissitudes of the Porto Rican bill reflected the influence of American interests, not of those of the inhabitants of that island. The vital consideration, from the point of view of both parties, was the event of the coming political campaign in this country. A few statesmen were profoundly interested in the constitutional question involved, but they regarded chiefly the ultimate effect of a colonial policy on the nature of our own government. The leaders of the Administration were absorbed in calculating how far it would be safe to go in lowering duties, without alienating protectionist voters. The leaders of the opposition were chiefly concerned to have the bill so constructed as to make as much trouble as possible for their adversaries. In this case, fortunately, the open display of the sordid motives of the protectionists shocked the humane sentiments of our people, and brought about a compromise which was reasonably favorable to Porto Rico. But even this compromise left the control of the government of the island in the hands of American officials, whose salaries are to be paid by the Porto Ricans. The President of the United States fills all the important offices, and practically controls the disposition of franchises.

In the case of Hawaii, the influence of American political theories was, for a number of reasons, more potent than that of party considerations. The public took no interest in the matter, and there was no public opinion to be deferred to, nor were many votes to be lost or won. No question of tariffs was involved, and it was perfectly clear that Hawaii was already governed in an orderly manner. The bill originally introduced by the Hawaiian committee, whose members were familiar with the situation, was substantially in accordance with the desires of the American element. It provided for the continuance of the existing government, by means of a restricted suffrage, and by the practical limitation of appointments to office to resident Americans. But the measure was torn all to pieces by Congress. The prohibitionist sentiment was gratified by a provision that saloons for the sale of intoxicating drinks should not be allowed, and it was only in the last stages of the contest that this matter was committed to the proper body, the Legislature of Hawaii. The property qualification for voters was abolished, and the poll-tax requirement met the same fate, the democratic prejudices of this country overriding all considerations of Hawaiian expediency.

Of course, the practice of importing laborers held to service for a term of years had to go, a reform for which the Hawaiian planters were prepared, having supplied themselves with laborers in advance. But Congress was not content with this, and not only prohibited the importation of contract laborers, but also nullified all existing contracts made with them. Chinese immigration was prohibited, and the Chinese already in Hawaii were forbidden to enter this country. The control of franchises was transferred to Congress, and corporations were forbidden to acquire and hold more than a thousand acres of land, vested rights being preserved. A vigorous, and for a time successful, attempt was made to have the Territorial offices turned over to our politicians, but finally Hawaii, more fortunate than Porto Rico, was allowed to have its rulers appointed by the President from among its own citizens, and to have them paid by the United States. The worst evils of carpet-bag government will thus be avoided.

It seems impossible to predict what the future of Hawaii will be under this form of government, for the reason which we have assigned, that it is the embodiment of American political theories. The suffrage is restricted to citizens who can read, write, and speak English or Hawaiian, which seems to leave the control of the government in the hands of the natives. But the Portuguese and Japanese are very numerous, and, if they choose to qualify, they are numerically able to take control. The American element will be apparently in the situation of the white people of the South after the civil war; but it is improbable that Congress will tolerate the expedients by which the Southern whites have established their supremacy. Commercially, the future of Hawaii depends on the sugar industry, and no one can tell whether that industry can be carried on without contract labor. The history of Jamaica is full of warning. It may be repeated in Hawaii; but the ruling element there has only itself to thank if the administration of the government by Congress be less satisfactory than it was when it had it wholly in its own hands.

The condition of Alaska has long been a scandal, and the bill finally passed by Congress at least provides for the administration of justice in that Territory. It contains a civil code of procedure, and provides a judiciary, with a corps of attorneys and marshals. But this bill was not allowed to pass without placating the prohibitionists, although hardly any one supposes that the liquor traffic can be annihilated by being made illegal. The measure contains no provision for a Territorial Legislature, and creates a very crude system of taxation by means of licenses. Its fate long depended on the result of a conflict between mining interests, certain enterprising Lapps having anticipated the American miners in the Cape Nome region, and the latter being resolved to oust them. It is hard to tell from the provisions of the bill how the question will be determined, and the whole measure is evidently tentative in character. It shows, and the debate on its passage shows still more clearly, how impossible it is for such a body as Congress to govern remote regions with much regard to local conditions.

THE STRIKE EPIDEMIC.

The month of May has often been distinguished by unrest in the industrial world. The severe conditions of winter are over, and, with the onward rush of spring, there is a universal impulse to increase activity and to enlarge life. It is the period of hope and bright anticipations, and all laborers feel that if they are to better their condition, this is the season to accomplish it. Not long since, a universal strike on the 1st of May was urged by the international union of laborers; and while the plan was too extensive to be successful, the date chosen was the natural one. The demand for farm labor is then urgent, and the great industry of building is normally at its highest pitch of activity. The general demand for workmen is thus intensified by the absorption of the unemployed, and the conditions of the labor market, as a rule, are at such a period more favorable than at any other season to an advance in wages.

For other reasons the disposition of laborers to strike is at present peculiarly strong, and the extent to which strikes are taking place has become very great. These strikes are no doubt regarded with much alarm in many quarters. The Republican politicians are especially concerned. Their mainstay in the coming campaign was to be the prosperity of the country. Every one was supposed to be "feeling good"; to have a deep, underlying sense of comfort, which would cause him to reject counsels of discontent. Workmen in general, they argued, were making good wages and working full time, and they would of course feel that their prosperity was due to the beneficent administration at Washington. But the widespread disturbance in the world of labor upsets these calculations, and demolishes the theory on which they rest. Perhaps the workmen ought to be contented; but the fact that they are so generally striking work proves conclusively that they are not.

No doubt there has been a general, possibly a universal, advance in money wages within the last two years. But American workmen are a rather intelligent class. They showed in 1896, when the Democrats promised them higher wages in silver, that they understood how unsubstantial such an advance might be. They reasoned that the price of everything for which they paid out wages would be higher, and they concluded that such prosperity would be illusory. Many of them reason in the same way now. They consider that the advance in the price of the necessaries of life has been greater than the advance in wages, and that they are really not so well off as before. They cannot live so well as they could when times were no-

minally less prosperous, because everything costs so much more. It cannot be denied that the retail prices of many staples of consumption have risen more than wages. Workmen no longer live by bread alone, and while many articles of food are relatively cheap, many other articles universally consumed by the working classes are relatively dear.

We incline to the opinion that working people do not sufficiently consider the increase in the volume of employment. The activity prevailing in nearly every department of industry proves conclusively that a great many more workmen are now fully employed than were employed two or three years ago. Good workmen are employed more steadily, and poor workmen find at least something to do. In the aggregate the difference is very great. The fund actually devoted to the payment of wages in this country is much greater than ever before. Granting that the purchasing power of the day's wages of the individual workman has somewhat decreased, the number of days' work has increased so much as to leave the balance in favor of the laboring class. And this is the rule in times of prosperity. Such times, in the common estimation of mankind, are always times of rising prices, and it seldom happens, and for a number of reasons it seldom can happen, that the rise in wages comes so quickly or goes so far as the rise in general prices, nor, it may be added, does the decline in wages follow a different rule. The quantity of employment measures the participation of labor in general prosperity better than the rate of money wages.

It is doubtful if such considerations appeal with much force to ordinary laboring men, for it is easy to see that the cause of their present discontent is not actual suffering. They complain not so much of positive as of relative lack of prosperity. The terrible strikes of 1877 were due, to a great extent at least, to the poverty and distress of many laborers. They could not live with any degree of comfort on the meagre and irregular wages which they were getting, and they struck in desperation. No such conditions prevail now. The working classes, as a whole, are comfortable. But they are undeniably, and we should hesitate to say either unreasonably or unjustly, affected by the boasts of prosperity with which our newspapers teem. They read of the wonderful increase of our commerce, of the vast advance in railroad earnings, of the colossal profits of the iron companies, and the fabulous gains of the Standard Oil magnates, and they are angry. No doubt envy has much to do with their attitude. The humbler class of capitalists, men not worth more than a million dollars, perhaps, may be seen to shake their heads at the existence of the great modern fortunes. No man, they will say, ought to be so rich, no man is so able as to deserve such inordinate rewards; and what moderately rich people think when they look at the multi-millionaires, poor people think when they look above their own ranks. They see that men of dishonest character and bad morals, men even of questionable business sagacity, are realizing enormous profits, while the most industrious and virtuous laborer obtains at best but a slight increase in his income. Accordingly they strike for higher wages and shorter hours of work whenever they see an opportunity, and it is idle to suppose that any fancied "gratitude" for producing prosperity so unequally and, as they believe, so inequitably distributed as at present, will restrain them. Let the people who have made great fortunes be grateful to the powers that be; the profits must be more liberally shared with the laborers if they are to be won over.

MILITARY LESSONS OF THE WAR.

The eagerness with which military critics and military attachés have followed the operations of the South African war is due, in part, to ignorance. What we mean is that modern warfare is in the experimental stage. For thirty years the nations have been revolutionizing their armaments, yet in all that time there has not been a great war, with the exception of the Russo-Turkish early in the period, to show exactly how the new weapons and the new tactics would work in practice. On paper, the military experts have been very cocksure; deep down in their boots they have had troubled suspicions that the thing might not come off according to their neat demonstrations. They have longed for a *corpus vile* on which to experiment. The Greco-Turkish war held out hopes of an instructive vivisection, only to disappoint them. Our war with Spain, so far as land operations were concerned, taught little except not to do the things which we did. But in South Africa war on a grand scale has at last yielded the desired lesson in anatomy; and the military men have gathered about the demonstrator as in Rembrandt's picture.

The first inference was a sickening doubt concerning the value of infantry. It seemed as if the Boers were going to force a reorganization of all armies, by their demonstration of what mounted infantry could do. It was not only the British War Office which was surprised and thrown into something like consternation. Military critics in France and Germany began to feel as if the foundations were being destroyed under their feet, and as if they would have to put all their soldiers on horseback. Such mobility, in attack or flight, such power of swift concentration, such command of victorious retreat—what could foot-soldiers hope to do against an agile enemy like that? The British Generals at once laid the lesson to heart, and essayed to meet the Boer tactics by imitating them, putting their infantry in the saddle as fast as possible. Would not all armies have to do the same to an extent never dreamed of before?

Well, the first impressions have been modified as the experiment has gone on. It has come to be seen that the Boer strategy has been so highly successful because so exactly fitted to country and people. The nature of the territory operated in and the lifelong habits of the burghers defending it have made their case so exceptional that lessons of universal application cannot safely be drawn from it. Even as it is, the Boers have shown the defects of their qualities. They have not displayed the power of disciplined infantry. They have been distinctly weak on the offensive. If their mounted infantry had been trained cavalry, they could have punished Buller and Methuen terribly. But when horses are ridden only up to the edge of the battlefield and there left, you get neither the morale of infantry nor the crashing stroke of cavalry. On their side, the British have found the same disadvantages in the use of mounted infantry. It has not been successfully employed in important attacks. The reason is that inbred custom cannot be changed in two months or six. If men have learned to attack as infantry, they cannot suddenly attack as cavalry. For scouting and skirmishing, for rapid concentration, as of Methuen's mounted infantry at Modder River, foot-soldiers temporarily on horseback have, no doubt, a greater part to play in future wars than has been assigned them in the past. But, on the whole, the relative importance and proportions of the two arms of the service will remain in military theory very much as they have been.

The enormous power of defence which goes with magazine rifles in the hands of well-intrenched men has certainly been put beyond question by repeated demonstrations on the Tugela and Modder Rivers. What was clearly foreshadowed at Plevna has now been completely established. The great extension of the zone of fire and the rapidity of discharge make charges on fortified positions truly historic—things of the past. But here, too, some rather rash conclusions have been drawn. It has been argued that the defence is now so much stronger than the attack that the superior numbers of an assailant can be disregarded. England, it has been said, could easily, with her small army, repel the most formidable invasion—from Germany, for example. H. W. Wilson has triumphantly argued that the German army could never force the French line of defence. This, however, is not so certain. If a small intrenched force can hold off a large attacking army, it will likewise be true that the attack can also hold the enemy with a thin line, similarly intrench-

ed, while detaching superior numbers to turn a flank or cut communications or threaten elsewhere. In the long run, as Lord Roberts has shown, a superior force must recover its advantage even when attacking against long-range guns served with smokeless powder.

Among the minor military lessons of the war is the extreme difficulty of reconnaissance in case of defended positions, and the uncertainty in estimating the effect of preparatory fire. It is not merely Boer "slimness" which brings this about, but the increased range of weapons and greater skill in intrenching. An enlarged use of the war balloon in reconnaissance would seem to be indicated. High explosives have proved disappointing. Lyddite knocked holes in the Mahdi's tomb at Omdurman, but does not seem to have distressed the Boers more than ordinary shell or shrapnel. The comparative immunity with which determined men can cling to skilfully constructed trenches under a terrific artillery and rifle fire has been one of the distinct surprises of the war.

As regards the rôle of officers, high and low, South Africa has shown how modern warfare compels a combination of individual initiative with harmonious coöperation in a general plan, as never before. Wellington commanded at Waterloo about the same number of men as Buller on the Tugela. But Wellington's front was only two miles long, Buller's twenty-five. The Duke was practically in touch with every part of his line. Sir Redvers, as we see from the Spion Kop dispatches, had no sure means of knowing what was going on. The field telegraph is intended to take the place of the old galloping aides, but, in the rapid changes of a battle, cannot be made instantly serviceable. The result can only be to compel commanders to take subordinate officers fully into their confidence as to the general movement, and then leave them a large discretion in working out the details. The same principle must be applied to the rank and file. It must be made less of a machine, and more like a collection of thinking units. It has even been argued that a Colonel would do best who should give his regiment no precise orders, but simply say, "Boys, I want you to take that kopje, and will just leave it to you to get to the top the best way you can." This would tend to make war of the nature of a "popular uprising," as Capt. Lee called the spontaneous movement of the American army to take San Juan hill. But even the exaggeration suggests the truth—that individual initiative and resource, both in officers and men, count for much in the arduous conditions of the new warfare.

OPENING OF THE EXHIBITION SEASON IN LONDON.

LONDON, April 26, 1900.

The disastrous effect of the war upon artists has been a fruitful theme for the winter's gossip. But now that the spring has come and exhibitions are opening, it is hard to see what difference it has made. With the two most serious losses of the moment, the war has had absolutely nothing to do. It is because the international exhibition of the year is in Paris that there will be none in London. This is to be regretted, for already, in the two years of its existence, the International Society, with Mr. Whistler as President, has done more to expose the old, deep-rooted Academical superstition than any movement yet started among artists in England. It has closed its doors, presumably, only for the moment, but it is a pity there should be an interruption, however short, to the good work it is accomplishing. The death of Mr. R. A. M. Stevenson is the second loss to which I refer. It is a positive calamity to criticism in this country, and, therefore, to art as well. There is no critic who could so ill be spared.

He was one of a very small group of writers upon art—and their number is rapidly diminishing—to whom training and experience gave the right to speak. Nothing could be more perfunctory and amiably inane than the average criticism that appears in the London daily and weekly press. It is the work, as a rule, of men who really know nothing about art, and care less. But Mr. Stevenson did know. He had begun life as an artist. He had studied in the schools of Antwerp and Paris; he had lived in Barbizon, and it was the fact of his living there that attracted his more famous cousin, Robert Louis Stevenson, and so led to the latter's delightful essay on Fontainebleau, which breathes more of the true inspiration of Millet's village, the true spirit of Rousseau's forest, than almost any description of that much written-about haunt of the painter. And Stevenson (R.A.M.S.) cared—he cared enormously; he cared for nothing else, you might say. There was no man with such a vivid, wonderful imagination, such a love of theorizing; those who knew both cousins do not hesitate to attribute to his influence and to the stimulus of his extraordinary mind much of the work accomplished by Louis Stevenson. He was no less wonderful as a talker; as everybody by this time has heard, he was the "Spring-heeled Jack" of the memorable Essay. Both of these gifts he brought to his study of pictures when he turned critic; his imagination, his delight in analyzing and speculating about everything, enabled him to look with freshness and inexhaustible zest at performances from which the less fortunately equipped critic turned away, jaded and in despair. Nothing could have been more illuminating, more helpful, than to walk round a gallery with him. He was always making you see things from a new point of view, always interesting you, despite yourself, where you had fancied interest to be an impossibility.

I do not think he was ever quite so illuminating and wonderful in print. He first wrote for the *Saturday Review*, when writing was irksome to him. He gave up his post on that paper to become Roscoe Professor at University College, Liverpool. Then, when he returned to London, and took up the old work, but now for the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the Manchester *Guardian*, writing, I think, had become reduced too much to a question of bread and butter. He was not a man to be restricted by the ordinary conditions of life. It often seemed to me that he should have been pensioned by the state, simply that he might spend his life going about talking like another Socrates, for the charm of his talk was too great and too rare to be sacrificed. However, a little something of it was felt in his writing. He managed, at a time when few people in England sought in painting anything but "literary" qualities, to write entertainingly about it entirely from the artist's standpoint. His articles were a revelation. It is curious that they should have been, as a rule, so kind. His own artistic creed was so entirely different from that of many of the artists whom he criticised, there was so much that must fairly have set his teeth on edge, that it would not have been surprising had he occasionally lost his temper in the headlong fashion of Ruskin. But he had no inclination for controversy—that is, in print, though, once embarked upon it, no man could be more ingenious and persuasive. He was no crusader, no knight-errant of art, though when he did take up arms, no man could hit so well and so hard. I remember especially his notice of the Royal Academy a couple of years ago, in which, his patience exhausted, he said in a few plain, incisive words the things that other critics had been trying to say for years. I am afraid his newspaper articles will never be collected, and, after all, it is just as well they should not; they were of too ephemeral a nature. But he published three fairly short essays in book form, that remain as a faint reminder of the genius and brilliancy of a remarkable man. One has for subject the 'Art of Velasquez,' another is on Rubens, and the third is on the 'Devils of Notre Dame.' No one has written upon Velasquez with such admirable insight, such perfect sympathy, such delightful lucidity. This, to my mind, is Stevenson's masterpiece, and should be in the hands of every student who visits the Prado.

It would not be easy, in any case, to speak of the London galleries this year without at least a word of regret for the man who made one's task in them so much lighter. But it must be confessed, that, so far, they have not offered one anything engrossing enough to overshadow his loss. The New Gallery, as usual, opens the season, and the New Gallery, wavering between its old traditions and the newer fashions, has fallen between the two. The memory of Burne-Jones lingers, and certain of his followers, kept within restraint during his lifetime, have now broken out on a scale that is appalling. Huge canvases, covered with affected forms and strident discords, are but an indifferent homage to a painter who, whatever his faults, had a very genuine feeling for decoration and color. On the other hand, there has been an effort to attract some of the younger men, fresh, apparently, from the Paris studios. But I do not see the gain if the New Gallery is turned into a sort of sham Salon. Some of the older contributors continue to send—Mr. Watts, for instance; and his work, though it has lost in fire and vigor, must still command respect. But, otherwise, I scarcely found anything of real note, anything of more than local interest, except the portraits by Mr. Sargent, and the landscapes by Mr. Stott, and, perhaps, one or two others.

Mr. Sargent's work is always a challenge. It interests, even when it does not satisfy or please, and I am afraid this spring he

has reserved his most striking canvases for the Academy. The "Hon. Victoria Stanley" is the portrait of a child; and children, though he has at times painted them very charmingly, evidently do not amuse him as keenly as those sitters in whom years and experience have developed strongly marked character. But there can be no question of the vivacity of treatment in this little girl, in white frock, with cap and jacket and stockings, who holds a hunting crop in her little hands, and stands so well on a floor seen in even more abrupt perspective than usual. Time, I think, will help the picture. As it is now, the child, in her dazzling white and scarlet, seems to me to jump out too abruptly from the shadowy background; and you feel this the more because Mr. Sargent has seldom suggested with so much truth the air and space in the room beyond his figures. This is a room into which you could walk; it has depth. But the animation expressed in the jaunty little huntswoman leaves nothing to be desired. She is alive, every inch of her. And the tender young face is beautifully rendered. It is curious to contrast it, in its fresh flawlessness, with the hard, battered, strong face of Major-General Ian Hamilton, of whom again, this year, Mr. Sargent has painted a portrait; a fine study of a soldier, spare, muscular, keen, and alert. It is little more than a study, but it is very powerful, and, technically, most amazing. Indeed, when you look at the brush marks in the face, when you see the cleverness with which a touch gives the modelling or catches the light—how supremely simple a matter it is when Mr. Sargent's hand is at the other end of the brush—you realize why his influence is proving so disastrous. As too many portraits in the same gallery prove, the attentive student fancies he has caught the trick; he sets to work, and produces, as a result, a tangle or puzzle of brush marks that mean nothing but his own inability to see things or say them for himself. It is a relief to turn to two simple, straightforward portraits by Sir George Reid that do not pretend to be anything more than the sound, solidly painted studies of character they really are.

Mr. Edward Stott is an artist with whom every year means an advance. He has steered clear of the mannerisms in which the study of Monet has landed many of the most promising of the younger landscape painters. He has avoided the decorative convention which has been the pitfall of the Glasgow men. I do not know whether he paints directly from nature, or whether nature confuses him, as it did Delacroix, so that he is forced to work from memory. But I do know that he sees everything through the medium of a poetic temperament, and so unerring is his sense of selection that what he gives on his canvas is far more right than Nature herself. And this he accomplishes by the simplest means. He is never grandiose, never "romantic," in the old-fashioned sense. He does not seek deliberate picturesqueness. But he is thrilled by the loveliness of sunlight at noon falling on the pure and tender flesh of the boys bathing, or by the radiance of sunset transfiguring the tired laborer at the end of the day's work; these have been his motives in the past, as they are, with a slight variation, of the three pictures now at the New Gallery. A girl in a scarlet apron stands in a tranquil orchard, and her rustic homeliness is glorified in the play of light and shadow. Vague, weary figures finish their task in the gathering darkness, while the cottages beyond rise, white and ghostly, against the luminous apple-green of the evening sky. Cattle lie at rest in placid pastures, and, far away on the horizon, in sullen splendor, burn the last fires of the setting sun. What could be more simple as subjects? And yet, by his careful study of light, of atmosphere; by his successful endeavor to give the general aspect of the scene as he saw it—as a whole, that is, and not disturbed by a hundred irrelevant little details—by his fidelity to the rhythmical facts of nature, he has made of each a poem as haunting as some of those simpler little lyrics of Verlaine. Mr. Stott has never been better than this year, and it makes one hope for still greater things from him in the future.

There are other good landscapes—a stately, sombre "Evening" by Mr. Peppercorn; strong studies of sunlight by both Mr. Mark Fisher and Mr. Bernard Priestman; a sad sketch of the Dorsetshire Downs by Mr. Arthur Tomson. These are the few pictures that reconcile one to an exhibition that seems to grow drearier and more dull with every year.

N. N.

NAPOLEON'S EAGLET.

PARIS, April 17, 1900.

There is hardly a more popular name at present than that of M. Rostand, author of "Cyrano de Bergerac." This singular drama, founded upon the adventures of one of our most unknown and eccentric writers of the seventeenth century, excited in the general public a sort of enthusiasm. It is very animated, in some parts very clever, in other parts very absurd; but this absurdity became an element of success. The extraordinary talents of Coquelin, who played the part of *Cyrano*, counted for a great deal in the success of the drama—in fact, one can hardly imagine it without him; and I should be very much surprised if the popularity of the drama outlived the actor. M. Rostand became notorious at first by a pretty and imaginative comedy, "Les Romanesques," admirably played at the Théâtre-Français. There was in it much grace and youth, and a sort of unreality which had some charm. I confess my great preference for the "Romanesques" over the noisy and coarse "Cyrano"; but there is no discussing with success and with the taste of the public.

The latest drama of M. Rostand's, the "Aiglon," has, I am sorry to say, cost him such effort that he is now almost dangerously ill. His health, which is never very good, has been endangered by the fatigue of the rapid production of the play, which Sarah Bernhardt wished to have ready for the Exposition, and by the fatigue of the rehearsals. The subject, in some respects, was tempting; the son of the great Emperor Napoleon dying, in the prime of youth, in Vienna, under the eyes of Metternich; the contrast between the future promised to the "King of Rome" and the dulness of the palace of Schoenbrunn. It is easy to imagine that a poetical mind could find elements of deep interest in such a destiny. Unfortunately, the element of action is wanting in a life so soon cut short; there is nothing in it which everybody does not know beforehand; every spectator of the "Aiglon" knows how the drama will end. M. Rostand was obliged to introduce some dramatic complications and incidents in his play, but we feel at once that they are very artificial. The historical documents which he was bound to consult are very scarce. The Count de Montbel, one of the last ministers of Charles X., took refuge in Vienna after the revolution of 1830. He had occasion to see the Duke of Reichstadt and the Chevalier Prokesch von Osten, who was the confidant of the Prince, and who may be considered the tool of Metternich. The information which M. de Montbel was able to give on the subject of the young Prince may be regarded as an echo of Prokesch, and consequently of Metternich.

Prokesch was born at Grätz in 1795, entered the army, and made the campaigns of 1813, 1814, 1815. In 1818 he published his first work, 'The Battles of Ligny, Quatrebras, Waterloo.' This military memoir, in which Napoleon was judged with some impartiality, made a great noise. He afterwards became professor of mathematics at the School of Cadets in Olmütz, and aide-de-camp of Prince Schwarzenberg; he pursued geodetic studies in the Carpathian Mountains, travelled in Greece, Egypt, Asia Minor. In 1830 he returned to Grätz, and met the Duke of Reichstadt again, at the table of the Emperor Francis I., who was passing through that town. He was placed next to him, and he tells us in his memoir, 'Mein Verhältniss zum Herzog von Reichstadt,' that "this handsome and noble young man, with his deep-blue eyes, his large forehead, his blonde and abundant hair, with silence on his lips, calm and master of himself in his every attitude," produced on him "a very extraordinary effect." He exchanged barely a few words with him during dinner; but, after dinner, the Duke said to him, "You have long been known to me," and warmly shook hands with him. The next day Count Dietrichstein, the Governor of the Duke of Reichstadt, proposed to Prokesch to take him to his pupil. Hardly had Prokesch entered when the Prince ran to him "with all the impatience of youth, his eye gleaming with confidence. 'You are known to me, and I have loved you for a long time. You defended the memory of my father at a time when all were calumniating him. I have read your memoir on the battle of Waterloo, and, in order to master it better, I have translated it twice, once into French, once into Italian.' " From that day a great friendship sprang up between the Duke and Prokesch, who was then an officer thirty-five years old.

Prokesch abandoned the military career for the diplomatic. He rendered great services to his country, became Ambassador (he died as late as 1876, at the age of eighty-one years). His advancement depended entirely on the good will of Metternich. We must not forget this, and we must also remark that Prokesch's memoir on the Duke of Reichstadt appeared only after the death of the Prince, when the unfortunate young man could no longer be a danger in politics, and be used as a tool in France by the Bonapartist party. The memoir appeared with the approbation of Prince Metternich (Prokesch, towards the end of his life, completed it in the edition which appeared in Stuttgart in 1876). With all these reserves, it cannot be denied that Prokesch's memoir is the only historical document on the son of Napoleon which we possess and which has real value. M. de Montbel's book is only a second-hand do-

cument, entirely inspired by Metternich. At the moment when it appeared, Metternich wrote to Baron von Neumann: "You will find my influence in every part of the book whose object is not to render homage to the eldest branch of the Bourbons. This part was naturally reserved for M. de Montbel, and was in good hands. What relates to the major political points of view, and especially all that concerns Bonapartism, was written under my direction."

Marshal Marmont speaks in his memoirs of the Duke of Reichstadt, but these memoirs are not very reliable; Marmont betrayed the Emperor, and was severely judged in the 'Memorial of St. Helena.' He tries in his memoirs to rehabilitate himself; he spoke, he says, to the son of the glory of his father; the son was evidently much affected by his conversations with one of the Emperor's lieutenants; he even gave him his own portrait by Daffinger, with these verses written in his own hand, taken from the "Phèdre" of Racine:

"Arrivé près de moi, par un zèle sincère,
Tu me contais alors l'histoire de mon père.
Tu sais combien mon âme, attentive à ta voix,
S'échauffait au récit de ses nobles exploits."

We must remember that in 1831, at the time when Marmont saw the young Prince, Metternich had no longer any reason for concealing from him the history of his father. A medical consultation had since July 15, 1820, assured him that the young Prince could not live long, and was to die of tuberculosis.

M. Frédéric Masson, so well versed in all that concerns the Napoleonides, concludes from all he knows that, till the Revolution of 1830, or as long as the Bourbons of the elder branch were on the throne, Metternich contrived to keep the Duke of Reichstadt in almost complete ignorance of the history of France from 1796 to 1815. He gave him a purely Austrian education. Napoleon at St. Helena said to Las Cases: "What education will they give him? With what principles will they fill his young mind? If perchance he had a weak head—if he was like the *Légitimes!* If they inspired him with a horror of his father! And what could now be the antidote against such poison? There could no longer be any sure intermediary, any faithful tradition between him and me. Perhaps my memoirs one day and your journal. And still, to overcome the teachings of infancy, the vices of one's surroundings, a certain capacity is required, a certain brain force, a trenchant, decisive judgment; and is this so common?"

Napoleon was not deceived; the education of the Duke of Reichstadt had for its object not only to make him ignorant as far as possible that he was the son of the Emperor, but that he was a Frenchman. The *Légitimes* wished to make him a perfect Austrian. He received a perfect education, in one sense: he was crammed with geography, grammar, philology, dogmatic theology, philosophy, law of nations, civil law, statistics. He was allowed to study history, but he had to learn modern history in such books as the 'Military Life of Field-Marshal Prince Schwarzenberg.' He was brought up under the jealous eye of Metternich, and lived with his grandfather Francis, a kindly man, but one of the feeblest intellects of his empire. His mother, Marie-Louise, had inherited the intellectual nullity of Francis, her father. Heredity had left him nothing of Napoleon, and given him all the characters of the maternal side. He was tall, Napoleon was short; Napoleon had dark hair, he had an abundance of blonde curly hair; Napoleon's eyes were gray-blue, he had very clear blue eyes, of quite a different tone. I have often seen at Chantilly a portrait of him, painted for Marie-Louise and given by her to the Princess de Salerne, mother of the Duchess d'Aumale. It is impossible to find in this pretty aquarelle a single trait of Napoleon.

The legend of a Duke of Reichstadt possessed with a desire to imitate, to avenge his father, conspiring secretly with French emissaries and trying to involve his grandfather Francis in an attempt to dethrone Louis Philippe, must be abandoned; and history must also renounce another legend, which attributes to Prince Metternich a settled plan to corrupt the young Prince, to surround him with temptations and to shorten his life by sensualism. The bare truth is sufficiently dramatic; the contrast between the intellect of the father and the intellect of the son is, to a philosopher, as instructive as the contrast between their historical rôles. The laws of heredity, which worked so much to the detriment of the young Prince's capacity and character, were only too inexorable in a physical sense. A number of his ascendants and relations, on the maternal side, had been the victims of tuberculosis; the Empress Thérèse, the second wife of the Emperor Francis, had sixteen brothers and sisters, ten of whom died before they were ten years old, one at twenty-two years, one at twenty-nine years; two only lived past sixty.

Correspondence.

WILKES'S LAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article published in the *Geographical Journal* for November, 1899, Sir Clements Markham, President of the Royal Geographical Society, made a proposition which will appear strange to Americans. He suggested that the regions surrounding the South Pole should be considered, for reasons of convenience, as divided into four quadrants, each covering ninety degrees of longitude, and to be called respectively, Enderby, Victoria, Ross, and Weddell. The article says: "The Victoria quadrant first presents, for examination, the lands sighted by Balleny and Dumont d'Urville from 118° E. to the Balleny Isands in 162° E., namely, Adélie and Sabrina lands."

It seems proper for American and French geographers to take note of this proposition, the advantages of which are not self-evident, and to assert the rights of discovery which belong to their own representatives. In the article the names of many Antarctic explorers are mentioned, perhaps all those of any prominence, with the exception of that of Commodore Charles Wilkes of the United States Navy.

In the months of January and February, 1840, Commodore Wilkes, in command of the United States Exploring Expedition, sailed along the Antarctic ice between about 65° and 67° of south latitude, and from about 165° to 97° of east longitude, some sixty-eight degrees of longitude. In several places he reported sighting high land, to which he affixed the names of Ringgold's Knoll, North's High Land, Totten's High Land, Budd's High Land, Knox's High Land, and Termination Land. His discoveries gave the first intimation of the possible existence of an Antarctic continent. In the same month, also, apparently some ten days only after Wilkes, the great French sailor, Dumont d'Urville, appears to have touched this land, in about 66° 30″ south latitude and 140° east longitude. It seems to have been at the spot called by Wilkes Piner's Bay, and which D'Urville named Adélie Land.

This portion of the Antarctic, therefore, extending over a distance of some sixty-eight degrees of longitude, was explored by Americans, whose discoveries were certified to by Frenchmen. It is still delineated on maps and atlases only from the charts of the discoverers. It is generally known as "Wilkes's Land"—a name which may be found, for instance, in Stieler's Atlas (Justus Perthes, Gotha, 1866), in Justus Perthes's 'Taschen-Atlas' (1893), in the *Times* Atlas (London, 1895); and, in accordance with the traditions of geography, it is only just that it should bear the name of its explorer. If the division into quadrants should be agreed on, this one should be termed "Wilkes's quadrant," but in any case the part of the Antarctic explored by Wilkes should remain known as "Wilkes's Land."

Yours very truly, Edwin S. Balch.

Philadelphia, May 7, 1900.

DECORATIVE WORK IN THE PENNSYLVANIA ACADEMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent Mr. Frederick W. Coburn fitly characterizes the Art Students' League of New York, but in doing so he seems to imply that decorative work of a practical nature is unusual in an art school.

May I beg to inform you that the lecture-room of this institution has been decorated with mural paintings by the students of our schools, and that this work has been pronounced of singular fitness and beauty by such authorities in that field as Mr. C. Y. Turner, Mr. Joseph DeCamp, Mr. John W. Alexander, Mr. Alden Weir, and many other eminent artists? The room is a spacious one, around the upper portion of which runs a line of large and distinguished compositions upon themes selected by the Instructor in Composition, Mr. Henry J. Thouron, whose work in this branch has won the compliment of imitation in several of the larger schools.

This exhibit of the work of the students in a practical field of art is always open upon the request of visitors to the Academy; and in view of your correspondent's approval of this tendency in art training, I judge that there are many who would care to see the work.—Yours very truly,

Harrison S. Morris,
Managing Director.

The Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts,
Philadelphia, May 1, 1900.

ANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Seeing that *any* is ultimately based on the Anglo-Saxon *án*, 'one,' those who, aware of the fact, would be informed how long, or by whom, it has been employed, either as an adjective or as a proncun, in the plural, have, it must be admitted, a claim to satisfaction at the hands of lexi-

cographers. But where, even among the voluminous dictionaries at present competing for favour, are they to look for the enlightenment they desiderate? This question has, no doubt, often been tacitly asked by the inquisitive, with the result that, if unable to recollect what they have, all their lives, been used to meet with, or if impatient of undertaking personal search, they have hastily concluded that, in correct speech, *any* is and always has been restricted to the singular number. Nor has this conclusion been arrived at in soliloquy only. For instance, in a recent issue of the London *Notes and Queries*, "any men," associated with "those kind" and "each are," is spurned as an "ungrammatical" collocation, "which, it is to be hoped, no persistency of vulgar usage may cause to be accepted as standard English." These opinions, which have been so repeatedly expressed that they must have considerable prevalence, have nowhere, to my knowledge, been formally confuted, easy as is their confutation. To such as entertain them, the particulars about to be given should be demonstrative of their erroneousness. Nevertheless, they will fail to be so, until their notions as to the means of ascertaining good grammar and authoritative precedent shall come to be dictated by right reason.

Allusion is here intended to the conceit, which confronts us at every turn, that, in a matter of language, individual fancy, however little observation it may have been determined by, is sufficient to warrant a decisive judgment.

The superficialists with whom the scientific philologian is here at issue, affecting occupancy of his domain, content themselves with arguing, as concerns *any*, that, since it denotes unity, its plurality, and equally that of *one*, is, in the nature of things, absurd. They have to learn that absurdity is a quality which can only with great hazard be predicated of anything in speech.

Language, and likewise grammar, are what man has chosen to make them, and, like their maker, are subject to perpetual flux. For many visionaries, however, who speculate and dogmatize about them, it looks as if there must somewhere exist a repository of absolute and infallible linguistic and æsthetic principles, of which they are vouchsafed the freedom. Leaving them to derive inspiration from Utopia, or the moon, if so they will, let us turn to *any* considered historically.

Though no proof is here produced that *ænig*, the far-off ancestor of *any*, had a plural, it seems unlikely that Anglo-Saxon wanted a representative of *ulli*. But slight inquiry reveals that *anie*, in *anie othre*, was used as early as 1230. Another of the old forms of the plural, *ony*, appears about 1380, in Wyclif's *ony men*, *II. Peter*, iii., 9, the rendering of *aliquos* in the Vulgate, after the Greek τινάς. Yet *any men* was flouted only the other day, as has been noted above.

From Bp. Pecock, Capgrave, and the *Paston Letters*, it is gathered that the plural here discussed was firmly established in the fifteenth century; and its currency, thenceforward, has been uninterrupted. Among authors of unquestionable repute, on this side of 1750, quotable for it on demand, are, to name a handful, Dr. Johnson, James Harris, Bp. Warburton, Cowper, Bp. Lowth, Goldsmith, William Mitford, Gibbon, Sir William Jones, Burke, Horne Tooke, Dr. Parr, Sydney Smith, Southey, Lord Byron, Thomas Moore, Dean Milman, Coleridge, Shelley, Charles Lamb, Bp. Heber, Hallam, Landor, William Taylor, Dr. Whewell, De Quincey, Bp. Thirlwall, Cardinal Newman, and Lord Macaulay. In the pages of no one of them did it elude a quest of ten minutes. Dr. Johnson has "any precepts" and "any pretensions," in the *Adventurer*, Nos. 119 and 131; Lord Macaulay, "any institutions" and "any powers," in his review of Southey's *Sir Thomas More*.

Nothing more, surely, in the way of practical authority, can be required to justify such a phrase as *any men*. For the rest, *men* does not convey the same idea, and as little does *some men*. English would sorely stand in need of improvement, if we could not say, "Any flowers are better than none."

As old, probably, as the *any* now dispatched, and just as well authorized, is the plural of the same word when a pronoun, as could easily be evidenced. F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 10, 1900.

P. S. Where Capgrave is quoted in my letter about *on to*, *sond*, still heard in East Anglia, should have been printed, and not *sand*. Another of his altered spellings is *sangh*, for *saugh*, that is, *saw*. In the same line, his barbarous *hough* is for *how*. With many writers of former times, a word was best spelled, when it was allowed as many letters as it could hold.

I also wrote *East Anglian*, not *East Anglican*.

From sorting my quotations for *on to* hastily, I missed consigning that from T. L. Peacock to my postscript. For pointing this out my thanks are due to Mr. N. T. Bacon of Peace Dale, R. I. F. H.

April 27, 1900.

Notes.

Rand, McNally & Company, Chicago, have nearly ready 'Twenty Years in Europe,' by S. H. M. Byers, former United States Consul to Italy and Switzerland. The illustrations will be numerous, and more than twenty unpublished letters of Gen. Sherman's will lend value to the text.

A quintuple number of the Riverside Literature Series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) produces a compact, large-type edition of Thackeray's 'Henry Esmond,' at a low price.

'The Civilization of India,' one of the Dent-Macmillan Temple Primers, by Romesh C. Dutt, C.I.E., is an excellent compendium of Hindu history from the point of view indicated in the title. A brief survey of the growth and change of political features is combined with an attractive résumé of the chief literary works, while arts and sciences are represented by a few characterizing paragraphs and illustrations. The latter cannot be said to be good, and had better have been omitted. But the only serious defect we have found is in the matter of pre-Buddhistic dates. The "epic age" is *not* "from 1400 to 800 B. C.," but much later, and the grammarian Panini did *not* live "some centuries" before the fourth century B. C. Subsequent dates, however, as far as we have observed, are correct, and the booklet is in general to be commended, though some latitude must be allowed to the Hindu author's inclination to see better times in the remote past than under English rule.

Sir J. G. Bourinot's 'Builders of Nova Scotia: An Historical Review' (Toronto: The Copp-Clark Co.) originated in a paper read before the Historical Society of that province, and is essentially a chronicle, supplemented by documentary appendixes of some rarity or especial interest. The most readable section is that conveying the author's recollections of the men of the last generation. He saw Judge Haliburton and gives some account of him, but not at first hand. In the case of Joseph Howe and of James William Johnston it is otherwise. Numerous portraits and views increase the worth of this volume for reference, but of two Governors, Cornwallis (the founder of Halifax) and Lawrence, no effigy appears to remain.

The "Monuments Commission" have presented their report upon Gettysburg to the Governor of New York, and it makes three quarto volumes. The first has Lieut.-Col. William F. Fox's historical paper upon New York at Gettysburg, filling a hundred pages. This is followed by the Roster of all the organizations of troops which took part in the battle. Then come the descriptions of the monuments erected to mark positions of regiments, and the proceedings and orations at their transfer, severally, to the public. These make the larger bulk of the report. Col. Fox's paper is a carefully prepared history of the battle, with special reference to the part taken by New York troops. It is illustrated by a series of five good maps and a number of photogravures of excellent views of different parts of the field. All the regimental monuments are shown by photographs. The great number of these inevitably produces the effect of a cemetery, for the different States emulate each other in memorials of all their regiments. It is a pity that there was not a limitation of monumental structures to such as would be appropriate to a park, in number and in kind, marking the positions of troops by uniform unobtrusive tablets, easily found by the help of an indexed pamphlet. The presentation of the report by Gen. Sickles, a corps commander, wounded on the field, and chairman of the commission, is very fitting.

It is not often that the weekly comments of a newspaper writer upon a current war will bear republication, but this is what is done in Mr. Spencer Wilkinson's 'Lessons of the War' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), which is the compilation of his articles in the *London Letter*, upon the South African war, down to the relief of Ladysmith by Lord Roberts's advance into the Orange Free State. Mr. Wilkinson's former military criticisms give weight to whatever he says, and his aim has been to compare, step by step, the action of the British Government and the conduct of the campaign with acknowledged principles of strategy. The reprinting of the papers is a telling example of the "I told you so," on a large scale. The questionable feature of his criticism is that he loads all the responsibility upon Lord Salisbury's Administration, and assumes that the army commanders would have been all right if let alone. This is a too violent assumption. We can understand that he may well adopt a tone of sympathy and charity toward officers in the field, but the campaign has shown such faults of both strategy and tactics in detail, that Wolseley, Buller, and Methuen must be regarded as answerable for them until the contrary is shown. Salisbury, Lansdowne, and Balfour

have enough to answer for without charging strictly military errors to their account.

Mr. J. Willis Clark's 'Old Friends at Cambridge and Elsewhere' (Macmillan) consists frankly of reprinted reviews of biographies and obituary notices, substantially untouched. Though offered in lieu of Memoirs or Recollections, they are singularly wanting in the personal note, and depend for their interest mainly upon the writer's selection from the material before him. Something much more entertaining might have resulted from a recasting of the reviews, but in the obituaries Mr. Clark hardly suggests the capacity for characterization. Whewell, Connop Thirlwall, Monckton Milnes, Edward Henry Palmer, Francis Maitland Balfour, Henry Bradshaw, and Richard Owen are the most famous of the eleven subjects here treated.

Miss Anne Hollingsworth Wharton's 'Salons, Colonial and Republican' (Lippincott) is a rambling discourse of persons and manners "in colonial life and in the early days of the republic." A digest of memoirs and tradition and family letters, it can hardly be called easy reading, and the fact that its index is wholly of names shows that the author's intention was to gratify family curiosity and pride. This is reinforced by a liberal supply of portraits, largely miniatures, which possess the usual interest, and are very well executed. The book is gayly bound.

More showy is 'The Sovereign Ladies of Europe,' edited by the Countess A. von Bothmer, with 153 illustrations (London: Hutchinson & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott). The text smacks of the courtier, but the queens of to-day certainly have solid claims to respect, and occasionally to admiration for personal charm and talent. The late queens of Austria and of Denmark are included in these sketches, of which the literary quality is very slight. There is no index.

In July of last year was held in London an International Congress of Women, and the Transactions, edited by the Countess of Aberdeen, have now been published in seven volumes, compactly but clearly printed (London: T. Fisher Unwin). It would exceed our limits to attempt a summary of the little library. We can only say that one volume deals with the general course of the proceedings, and is embellished with numerous excellent portraits of the delegates and participants, certainly a fine and truly œcumenical array of intellect, character, and social standing—not omitting "Madame Shen, Hon. Vice-President for China." Two volumes are required for papers on Women in the Professions; and one each for Women in Industrial Life, in Education, in Social Life, in Politics—this last the thinnest of all, yet recording the fairness of the Congress in receiving and printing a paper, "The Why and Wherefore of the Anti-Suffrage Movement in the State of New York." This series will be a landmark in the enfranchisement of women.

Very welcome to all who have gardens, or who mean to have them, even if they are only boxes in a city window, will be Mr. C. E. Hunn's 'Amateur's Practical Garden-Book,' which appears in Prof. L. H. Bailey's "Garden Craft Series" (Macmillan). Nothing better of the kind is easily conceivable, and it is astonishing how much information the author has contrived to put into so small a book. Exactly those things are told which experts are so apt to forget to tell amateurs, and the fortunate possessor of this manual will have only himself to blame if he fails of his desire either in shrubs, flowers, fruits, or vegetables. Possibly some more definite information might have been given concerning the hardiness of particular plants in the various climates of our country; but this imperfection, if it be one, does not prevent our hearty commendation of the book. Mr. Hunn, it may be added, is gardener to the Horticultural Department of Cornell University.

'Rural Wealth and Welfare,' by Prof. George T. Fairchild (Macmillan), although it appears in the same series as the foregoing, hardly belongs there, and its title is, in fact, misleading. The book is really a popular presentation of the elements of political economy, which is certainly no more a rural than a commercial science. Farmers will do well to acquaint themselves with the fundamental truths of economics, which are very well expounded by Prof. Fairchild; but they will also do well to understand mathematics and therapeutics. The value of the "Rural Science Series" will be impaired if it become understood that it is not devoted to agriculture.

The Macmillan Co. have published Dr. John MacCunn's 'Making of Character.' Dr. MacCunn is professor of philosophy in University College, Liverpool. His book is not an abstract ethical treatise, but a manual of domestic morality and self-culture. It deals primarily with questions of heredity and environment, but at every step the discussion opens out into practical applications. A thread of strong common sense runs through the book, and this is nowhere more apparent than in a chapter reviewing Mr. Spencer's well-known doctrine of "Natural Reactions": that the child should be allowed to discover that fire burns, etc. Dr. MacCunn is a devout Wordsworthian, and his chapter, "The Education of Nature," is probably the chapter that he wrote with most affection. His illustrative quotations are numerous and very happy. More of them are drawn from Wordsworth, Burns, and Burke than from other writers. The book abounds in suggestions which parents would find useful in the guidance of their children and in the management of their own lives.

In the thirty-first annual report of the Cleveland Public Library Board, noticeable is the statement regarding the operation of the library of the Central High School as a branch of the Public Library; and the suggestion that future city school buildings should be planned with a library-room "which might serve both as a school and a neighborhood library." The librarian relates the extraordinary precautions to prevent the spread of contagion through the library books, but points out that in fifteen years not one of the library force has been afflicted with a contagious disease, as might have been expected were the danger really serious.

In an article on "Friedrichs des Grossen Dichtungen aus der Zeit des siebenjährigen Krieges" in *Die Neueren Sprachen* for February-March, the writer, Dr. Mangold of Berlin, shows how irresistible was the impulse which made the great king utter in French verse his innermost thoughts and feelings amid the vicissitudes of a long and hazardous war. For the eighty-three poems of that period, amounting in the aggregate to between seven and eight thousand lines, are closely related to contemporaneous events. Whatever may be the literary value of Frederick's poetry—and competent judges have spoken of it with respect—the light which it throws upon the character and soul-life of the man makes it a worthy subject of study. Its bulk, however, is discouraging; according to Dr. Mangold it reaches nearly the double of all of Molière's works. The only complete edition, that of Preuss, in 'Œuvres de Frédéric le Grand' (1846-57), is pronounced inadequate, and the bibliography of the subject is shown to be scanty.

The Germans have been giving for some time an unusual amount of attention to Morocco, with a view to business opportunities and colonization—possibly annexation. A series of ten exceptionally illuminating articles on the interior has been appearing in the *Berliner Tageblatt*, signed "Ahasver." The issue for April 8 contains one dated at Marrakesh, and gives a description of the local slave market. It is not what it used to be in the "good old times." Seldom are there more than 100 slaves on sale at a time, and the supply is usually not equal to the demand; consequently, prices are going up. A negro boy of twelve costs $25 to $35, a shapely girl $50 to $70; white slaves are in great demand, and fetch ten times as much as the colored ones. Most of the negroes come from the western Sudan. The slaves are subjected to a physical examination, like animals, and the visitor's feelings are often lacerated by the lamentations of members of a family that are separated from one another for all time. Slaves, however, are not treated cruelly otherwise in Morocco, where they have the status of regular servants. Jews and Christians are not permitted to buy slaves. "Ahasver" expresses the opinion that it will not be possible to exterminate the Moroccan slave trade so long as the country is under a Mohammedan sultan.

—The last issue of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society gives us for the first time in print the original Minutes of the Council of Sir Edmund Andros, Royal Governor of New England. We cannot afford to lose any historical fraction concerning Massachusetts in 1686-7, the supreme crisis in her annals—the great agony when her charter had been torn away. But in regard to these epoch-making months we owe our knowledge at first hand to these Minutes, which have hitherto existed only in manuscript. These notes set down day by day were the protograph, or protevangelium, from which Gov. Andros evolved such gospels as suited his purposes—doctoring them till they became a dainty dish to set before the King, James II., to whom he owed his own creation. These significant missives of Andros are preserved at London in the Colonial State Paper Office, were copied half a century ago for Massachusetts, and laid up in her manuscript archives as the ultimate sources of knowledge. When collated, however, with the Boston copies, the original Minutes made it clear that they had been tampered with. A dozen meetings of his council chronicled in the Minutes Andros left without a syllable of notice. In one case, four pages of the Minutes through his concision dwindle down to two lines. Some details were retrenched as not judged worth transmission beyond the sea, but none will be without honor or meaning in their own country. Among matters discussed were taxation,

currency, church and state, toleration, etc., but space allows only adding a word from the Minutes respecting the printing-press. The *ipsissima verba* on printing we republish because, as reported by Andros, they were much condensed. They are further noteworthy as attesting the alarm which trumpet blasts like Milton's 'Areopagitica' had roused—a panic which had made Gov. Berkeley thank God there was no printing-press in Virginia, and which was in 1690 at Boston to strangle in its first issue *Publick Occurrences*, the first newspaper printed in America. The word *newspaper* is not found in the Minutes. This is not surprising, for it was not discovered till the present year as used in England earlier than 1680. *(Notes and Queries*, 9th S., v. 35.)

—In the Minutes of the 28th of January, 1686, we read (marks of punctuation conspicuously absent): "His Exce takeing notice of the great danger wch might ensue by permitting the use of Printing presses in Boston and the Town of Cambridge unless speedily taken care of and thereupon Ordered that no Papers, books, or Pamphlets be henceforth printed either in Boston or Cambridge untill Licensed according to Law and that no Printer be admitted of and Licensed to Print untill he hath given five hundred pound bond to his Maty in the Secretary's office not to print any unlicensed papers, books or pamphlets. That Copies of Books &c. to be printed be first perused by Mr. Dudley late Presidt and upon his allowance of them for the Press, that one Copie thereof so allowed and attested by him be brought to the Secys Office to be left on Record, and receive from him an Imprimatur." We must add that these Council relics, long lost more hopelessly than the *Mayflower* log, came to the Antiquarian Society's library from an unknown giver, who sent with them a statement that he had rescued them from the flames, and that, if useful for nothing else, they might, he thought, serve to light some Antiquarian pipe, to which purpose they came very near being devoted by himself.

—In keeping pace with the Oxford English Dictionary, one is often struck with words or locutions natural to the mother country, but which could not arise on this side of the water. One such class is in the very front of the April quarterly instalment (Henry Frowde), namely, a combination of *in-* prefix with substantives. A typical example is "in-clearing," as in the citation from Jevons, 1878: "Messengers . . . walking round the desks . . . receiving [the parcels] of 'in-clearing,' or, as they are called in New York, the . . . Debit Exchanges." So W. H. H. Hudson suggests in *Nature*, 1883, "in-circle" for inscribed circle. In-brother, in-burgess, in-case, in-clearer, in-clerk, in-company, in-dweller, in-evidence, in-parts, in-party, in-patient, in-pensioner, are some of a fairly long list little familiar in this country, and not (we feel sure) increased formatively by us, at least in the case of *in-* locative. The interchangeability of *in-* and *en-* exists in both countries, but "indorse" is the American, "endorse" the English usage. Any predominantly Latin tract, like that embraced between *in* and *infer*, is well calculated to show the opulence of the language in synonyms. Thus, for flesh-colored, we have reached out after incarnadine, incarnate, incarnation; and, for inhabitant, after incolant, incolent, incolary, incoler, incolist. If we have relaxed our grasp on this latter group, let not the Anglo-Saxon purist exult. The poet will lament the loss, and, what is more, has the power to repair it. "Inenarrable," better stressed on the second syllable than, with Bailey, on the third, is another obsolete word that one might like to see revived. And speaking of stress, it is instructive to observe the conventional mode, in the same line, of indicating the accent of incande·scing and the line-division in the same place, incandesc- ing. Would it not be better also to hyphenate thus: incande- scing? I·nculcate is preferred to a penultimate stress; i·nfantile, i·nfantine are alone recognized. Again, we have in this vocabulary several instances of the struggle for existence between -able, -ible compounds built respectively on the first and the third root of certain Latin verbs—the third root carrying the day, *e. g.*, inevadible (inevasible), inexprimable (inexpressible), inexhaurible (inexhaustible). On this class of adjectives euphemism has drawn largely for allusion to breeches: ineffables, inexplicables, inexpressibles, unmentionables.

—"Inch," though of straight Latin derivation, being peculiar to Anglo-Saxon among the Teutonic group of languages, is treated as if pure English; this is but the just due of a measure which Piazzi Smyth invested with a semi-sacred character, the metric system notwithstanding. There is no doubt that we aped the Germans in applying "incunabula" to books, first adventured in 1861; "incunable" following in 1886. There is no hint here of a Gallicism on Burney's part when he used "inedited" for unpublished as far back as 1776. Statues were "inaugurated" as early as 1852, when Lord Cockburn said it was "now the fashion [so] to call such proceedings." To use the word merely for begin is grandiose. "Inaugural," meaning the President's message in particular, is American, and we probably used first the verb "incandesce." It was an American trope which Playfair quoted when reporting the Western dictum, "It is cheaper to 'incarnate' Indian corn [*i. e.*, by feeding cattle with it] than to send that bulky grain by railways." We observe that Dr. Murray, by the way, under Indian (North American) takes no cognizance of the time-honored pronunciation *injun*. "Incineration" for cremation is still another Americanism. "Income-tax" we gladly resign to our British cousins, who invented it as a war tax in 1799, reintroduced it in 1842, and have clung to it ever since, though McCulloch in 1846 said it certainly "should not be retained a moment after it can be dispensed with." Johnson, Goldsmith, and Scott gave their sanction to the employment of "individual" in the ordinary sense of person, without reference to class or group contrast; but, says Dr. Murray, it is now used "chiefly as a colloquial vulgarism or as a term of disparagement." However, we seem drawn to it for a neutral expression by the same convenience which the French have found in it. George Eliot's "incalculable son" furnishes a perfect analogy for the much-abused reliable. The extraordinary custodians of the language who every now and again cry out against such constructions as "he has been spoken to," "he was refused admittance," will find them calmly set down here under "indirect passive." Finally, for the regimen of "independence," we observe quotations of *from* (1657-1683, and 1896 by Mr. Bryce in his 'Free State'), *on* (1761), *of* (1768, American), and *upon* (1771).

—Miss E. Main's 'Cities and Sights of Spain' (Macmillan) is intended for people who want to travel in that country unburdened by a courier. The author has made three trips in Spain, and here offers the result of her experience as a supplement to the guide-books, and, to some extent, a substitute for them. She thinks that a good idea of the country can be obtained in three visits, of a month each, and she found travelling in Spain not only feasible for a woman alone, but cheaper than in most European countries; the cost of a five weeks and a half trip being £30, of which £12 was for a first-class ticket—altogether about $4 a day, stopping at the best hotels, too, which average about $2 a day. The food was usually well cooked and abundant, and in only one hotel was it spoiled by the use of the detestable Spanish oil, and that was one managed by an Englishman. Miss Main does not hesitate to declare that the food of the lower classes in Spain is prepared much more invitingly than among the same classes in England. Of wines it is to be feared she is not a connoisseur, or she would not have recommended the Rioja claret, which the present writer has always found to be a vile chemical compound, innocent of the blood of grapes. At Elche she came across a manufactory of tinned fruits and vegetables with a capacity of 25,000 tins a day. The peas are automatically sorted in sizes, which affords a means of testing whether the peas furnished at a restaurant are tinned or fresh. A strange sort of industry was discovered by Miss Main at Murcia. Silkworms that are of no further use in their special line are soaked in vinegar, and their bodies subsequently pulled by girls into fine and almost unbreakable thread, which is used for fishing-nets. In many parts of Spain she noticed that magnificent new highways were being constructed, while electric light is being introduced everywhere, even in the monastery on Montserrat. Amateur photographers and lovers of cathedrals are supplied with plenty of hints, and the book is liberally adorned with pictures, many of them new, while two pages are devoted to illustrations of architectural terms. As a matter of course Miss Main also takes the reader from Gibraltar to Morocco. "Tangier with its northern aspect, its breezy terraces, where you can lounge all day under shady trees, its cool, fresh air, is an untold boon to the parched-up dwellers on the Rock." The ride to Fez can now be made in six days, under proper escort, safety being assured because the Sultan always levies a heavy tax on a district where an outrage is committed.

—Egypt continues to be an object-lesson to the world in successful government. Lord Cromer reports a surplus for the year 1899 of more than $2,000,000, and a considerable decrease of the debt. "The revenue reached the highest figure yet recorded since the British occupation commenced," notwithstanding the unprecedented failure of the Nile flood. This misfortune, which in former days would have occasioned famine and plague, has been attended by no other consequences than those of "temporary inconvenience." The low Nile has, in fact, greatly facilitated the construction of the storage reservoirs, which have consequently

been pushed on with great rapidity. Lord Cromer refers to the friendly relations with Abyssinia, a general basis of a frontier arrangement having been settled with the Emperor Menelek. The reorganization of the Sudan is represented as going on satisfactorily, notwithstanding great difficulties. Among these is the registration of the land; the Dervish habit of exterminating, deporting, and transposing tribes having caused the most hopeless confusion in the ownership of landed property. An expedition has been sent to cut the sudd or barrier of reeds in the White Nile, and it is hoped that a survey will show the practicability of making dams and banks at the southern apex of the swamp-delta, and of deepening a channel of the river. This will not only prevent the formation of the sudd, but will increase the summer supply of water to Egypt by 50 per cent. From another source we learn that the rebuilding of Khartum has progressed so rapidly that what, a year ago, was practically a heap of ruins, is now "a city of broad streets and handsome buildings, of tramways and electric lights." "The Gordon Memorial College, a large red-brick structure with shady galleries and porticos, covering three sides of a square, has far outstripped its scholars, and in a few months it will be ready for work." In striking contrast to this, El Obeid, the capital of Kordofan, but recently a flourishing city of 30,000 inhabitants, when reoccupied in December last "was found to be entirely deserted, save for a single leopard who sat upon the ruins of the principal well."

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

The criticism is sometimes made that American writers who transfer their homes to England are apt to arrest their progress thereby; and either, like Bret Harte, go on repeating over and over the same types of character by which they won their fame, even though the types themselves have become extinct in the localities where they were first described; or, like Henry James, become oblivious of the outer world altogether, and entangle themselves more and more in intellectual subtleties of their own weaving. To this it may be urged, on the other side, that Mr. Howells has encountered, even in New York, the counterpart of both these checks; and either unearths his own characters to repeat their old conversations, or finds in altruism an entanglement as effectual as that met by Mr. James in introspection. This being the case, there is a certain satisfaction in observing one American author, Mrs. Craigie, who goes on maturing even in London. In comparing, for instance, "Osbern and Ursyne," a drama in three acts, by John Oliver Hobbes (Lane), with this lady's earlier novel under the same nom de plume, 'The Gods, Some Mortals and Lord Wickenham,' one finds a distinct increase of power and a diminution of cynicism, although there may be plenty left. One may say that the sun sets in this book at the moment of rising, since the very first line is

"Setting sun and joy of life all quenched";

while the curtain finally falls on the murdered bodies of the two leading characters. Since, however, this final outcome is precisely what happens in two contemporary English dramas, both so remarkable as quite to eclipse Mrs. Craigie's, she must only be pronounced to be so far in the fashion. She has simply lived so long in England as to have brought the English shadow over her—a phenomenon whose existence none can deny who has watched the recent tendencies of London poetry. Why is it that the most hilarious member of the Savile Club can find nothing to paint except battle, murder, and sudden death, when he takes to the drama? In Mrs. Craigie's case this utter sombreness is sometimes relieved by graceful phrases, as when Arlette says to her lover (p. 20):

"My home is in thine heart, and there I'll rest,
As some small sea-gull, nestling on the sea,
Floats o'er the agitations of each tide
With confident peace."

It is certainly remarkable that a veteran poet and a youthful poet should have produced almost simultaneously dramas so remarkable as Mr. Swinburne's "Rosamund, Queen of the Lombards: A Tragedy" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) and Stephen Phillips's "Paolo and Francesca: A Tragedy" (Lane). The very fact of youth has seemingly given Mr. Phillips the advantage with the critics, joined to the fact that Mr. Swinburne's previous tragedies have been rather disappointing. But if the test of dramatic distinction be the creation of marked individual characters and the intertwining of their lives in a manner most ingenious, close-knit, and absolutely original, then Mr. Swinburne's drama must be placed at the head in the comparison with his younger rival, if not, indeed, above all recent dramatic compositions. Not, indeed, that "Paolo and Francesca" does not possess some of these high qualities, only in a less degree. And it has, on the other hand, a greater number of distinctly quotable passages, and something of that Shaksperian relief, drawn from common life, which Mr. Swinburne discards. It is therefore pleasanter reading, if that word can be applied to either book. Even the detached passages which are strongest in the work of Mr. Phillips are often heart-breaking in their sadness, as in this lament of the childless woman (p. 24):

"*Lucrezia.* Bitterness—am I bitter? Strange, oh strange!
How else? My husband dead, and childless left,
My thwarted woman-thoughts have inward turned,
And that vain milk like acid in me eats.
Have I not in my thought trained little feet
To venture, and taught little lips to move
Until they shaped the wonder of a word?
I am long practised. O those children mine!
Mine, doubly mine: and yet I cannot touch them,
I cannot see them, hear them—Does great God
Expect I shall clasp air and kiss the wind
For ever? And the budding cometh on,
The burgeoning, the cruel flowering:
At night the quickening splash of rain, at dawn
That muffled call of babes how like to birds;
And I amid these sights and sounds must starve—
I, with so much to give, perish of thrift!
Omitted by His casual dew!
Giovanni. Well, well,
You are spared much: children can wring the heart.
Luc. Spared! to be spared what I was born to have!
I am a woman, and this very flesh
Demands its natural pangs, its rightful throes,
And I implore with vehemence these pains.
. . . .
O! but I grudge the mother her last look
Upon the coffined form—that pang is rich—
Envy the shivering cry when gravel falls.
. . . .
It is such souls as mine that go to swell
The childless cavern cry of the barren sea,
Or make that human ending to night-wind."

There are in the same drama many equally noticeable passages. Sometimes the immediate effect of the drama is for a moment merged in these, which is never the case in "Rosamund," whose whole structure is absolutely dramatic; and if, in spite of himself, the author sometimes yields to his old magical music, it always has a dramatic place, even with cadences so completely Swinburnian as this (p. 67):

"*Albovine.*
Well, God be good to them and thee and me!
I would this fierce Italian June were dead,
So hard it weighs upon me.
"*Rosamund.*
Now not long
Shall we sustain or sink aswoon from it.
It has but left a day or two to die.
"*Albovine.*
And well were that, if summer died with June.
Two red months more must set on sense and soul
The branding-iron stamped of summer: nay,
The sea is here no sea to cherish man:
It brings no choral comfort back with tides
That surge and sink and swell and chime and change
And lighten life with music where the breath
Dies and revives of night and day."

There is also one of Mr. Swinburne's unmistakably Greek effects in the very last line of the tragedy, where the old soldier and councillor winds up the tragedy with

"Let none make moan. This doom is none of man's."

In Lady Lindsay's 'The Apostle of the Ardennes' (London: Kegan Paul) she sets to music in very fair blank verse the legend of Saint Hubert the Hunter, who turned from his furious hunting after the death of his fair young wife, and became thenceforth the Apostle of the Ardennes, being Bishop at last, and dying in the odor of sanctity (p. 160):

"Yea, where at peace should saintly Hubert rest
Save that it be the core of green Ardennes?
For, when the furtive deer pass down the glade,
Perchance at some small rill to slake their thirst,
They pause, and, large-eyed, gaze with mournful look
As who should say: here sleeps that hermit mild
That was our friend. And flocks of tiny birds
Draw ofttimes near to chaunt his requiem,
And through the blueness of a summer night,
With breast against a thorn, the nightingale
Sings of the birth of perfect life through pain.
So all the wild and forest things know well
That he—apostle of Ardennes—sleeps soft
In some cathedral cloister of the wood."

It is a curious fact that in this book the ordinary narrative and the charming descriptions of nature in the blank verse are far better than the lyric passages. In most narrative poems this is otherwise. By an odd coincidence, a similar appeal for the preservation of animal life is made in the curious book, 'Satan Absolved: A Victorian Mystery,' by Wilfred Scawen Blunt (Lane), a book "dedicated by permission to Mr. Herbert Spencer," in which Satan goes to heaven on the Lord's "day," finds heaven sweet with its old-world furniture and its floors of sandal-wood, and proceeds to give the Deity a plain piece of his mind as to the detestable qualities of the Anglo-Saxon and his love of universal killing; and the author makes his point as clearly in his preface as in his poem. He says, by way of self-revelation:

"He cannot expect but that he may wound by his plain speaking the feelings of those among his readers who sincerely believe that Nineteenth Century Civilization is synonymous with Christianity, and that the English Race, above all those in existence, has a special mission from Heaven to subdue and occupy the Earth. The self-complacency of the Author's countrymen on this head is too deeply seated to be attacked without offence. . . . The destruction of beauty in the name of science, the destruction of happiness in the name of progress, the destruction of reverence in the name of religion, these are the pharisaic crimes of all the white races; but there is something in the Anglo-Saxon impiety crueller still: that it also destroys, as no other race does, for its mere vainglorious pleasure. The Anglo-Saxon alone has in our day exterminated, root and branch, whole tribes of mankind. He alone has depopulated continents, species after species, of their wonderful animal life, and is still yearly destroying; and this not merely to occupy the land, for it lies in large part empty, but for his insatiable lust of violent adventure, to make record bags and kill. That things are so is ample reason for the hardest words the Author can command."

It is a relief to turn from these tragedies, ideal or actual, to a delightful and refresh-

ing volume for the traveller's pouch or pocket, 'The Open Road: A Little Book for Wayfarers,' compiled by E. V. Lucas (Holt). It is of British origin, and the verses and prose extracts are largely from those more recent British writers who are fortunately outdoor authors as well. The admixture—we might perhaps call it a jumble—of verse and poetic prose is quite delightful, although at times disfigured by a little mannerism, and especially so when the editor inserts his own imitations of Whitman. Some of Whitman's best things are here, however, and of other American poets we have Hovey, Whittier, Thoreau, Carman, and Burroughs. Some of the sub-heads are well chosen, as "Spring in the Beauty of the Earth," "Sun and Cloud and the Windy Hills," "Garden and Orchard," "Music beneath the Branch," "A Little Company of Good Country People," "A Handful of Philosophy." The decorative end papers by William Hyde strike the only false note in the book, and make the landscape so formal and uninteresting that even "The Open Road" seems unattractive. It is evident that the editor can hardly be a college-bred man, or he would not have allowed two misprints to creep into the two Latin lines which close Praed's delightful poem on "The Vicar"; but with these exceptions we can recommend the book as a charming companion for the traveller, and especially for the pedestrian or the bicycler.

Mr. Owen Seaman, who had the ill luck to achieve such a success with his imitations of other poets in his 'Battle of the Bays,' that everything else he writes will run risk of failure, now tries his fate again with 'In Cap and Bells' (Lane). His Omar Khayyám mimicry is not so good as Mr. Godley's, but one of his best rhythmical successes is "A Song of Inaction," which Americans can now read without a pang, it being a comment on "the first chapter of the Cuban war" after one of Dr. A. Conan Doyle's "Songs of Action" (p. 35):

There was a sanguinary war out West—
(Wake 'em up, shake 'em up, try 'em on the transports)
There was a sanguinary war out West,
And the troops lay low on the cocktail quest;
Ho, the jolly fighting braves
Playing poker by the waves,
All beside the Cuban Sea!

The leaguer it lolled by Tampa Bay—
(Prog 'em up, jog 'em up, put 'em on the war-path)
The leaguer it lolled by Tampa Bay,
Nipping by night and napping by day;
Ho, the gunners so slack
They can barely lynch a black,
All beside the Cuban Sea!

The regulars danced to the military band—
(Screw her round, slue her round, every stitch a-straining)
The regulars danced to the military band,
Steel on the heel and kid on the hand;
Ho, the men-of-warlike arts
Working havoc with the hearts,
All beside the Cuban Sea!

. . . . . .

They have gallantly weathered the glassy main—
(Row 'em in, tow 'em in, beach 'em through the breakers)
They have gallantly weathered the glassy main,
And they're safe on *terra-cotta* again;
And before the year is through
We may hear of something new
Somewhere by the Cuban Sea!

As a matter of fact, this prediction was fulfilled.

'Lyra Frivola,' by A. D. Godley (London: Methuen), is a really good specimen of that microscopic humor, first amusing, and soon fatiguing, which has its home in the Oxford quadrangles. The best of its fooling is, perhaps, to be found in the "Rubáiyát of Moderations," in which the wisdom of Omar is brought to bear upon the toils of a university examination, as thus (p. 15):

Keep clear of Facts: the Fool who deals in those
A Mucker he inevitably goes;
The dusty Don who looks your Paper o'er—
He knows about it all—or thinks he knows.

A Pipe, a Teapot, and a Pencil blue,
A Crib, perchance a Lexicon—and You
Beside him singing in a Wilderness
Of Suppositions palpably untrue—

. . . . . .

Nay! till the Hour for pouring out the Cup
Of Tea post-prandial calls you home to sup,
And from the dark Invigilator's Chair
The mild Muezzin whispers "Time is Up"—

The Moving Finger writes; then, having writ,
The Product of your Scholarship and Wit
Deposit in the proper Pigeonhole—
And thank your Stars that there's an End to it!

Oxford seems responsible also for a book of sonnets by Edmond Holmes, 'The Silence of Love' (Lane), which is inscribed to that city as "Queen of Romance!" The sonnets are Shaksperian in form, which makes their monotony more marked than in the slightly more varied Italian model; and the reader anxiously asks himself, "If fifty sonnets represent the silence of love, how many would suffice for its speech?" Yet the love itself is sweet, tender, and refined, and reminds one a little of the early sonnets in Lowell's 'A Year's Life,' most of which were finally suppressed by him in later years as juvenile. It remains to be seen whether Mr. Holmes will be equally discreet.

Canon Rawnsley's 'Sonnets in Switzerland and Italy' (London: Dent) exhibits a similar offence as committed by an older offender, whose sonneteering is now multiplied through many volumes. He has, however, brought his work to great perfection, in its way, and fortunately employs the Petrarchan form, while Switzerland and Italy give him a vast variety of themes. Mr. Seaman, indeed, jeers at his monotony of measure, but we should not wish him to cease writing sonnets so long as he can celebrate with such dignity and sympathy "The Lion of Lucerne" (p. 9):

Ne'er saw I, never felt such solemn breath
Of deep compassion breathed from carven stone,
Nor knew how quiet waters could atone
For sorrow by such sending from beneath
Of heart-appealing pity. In its sheath
Of flesh the spear-shaft breaks, and with a groan
The lion's head falls low, the rocks make moan.

The hollow grove is resonant with death.
This is the meed of duty. They who die
Rather than disavow the oath they swear,
For them each year in silent woody places
Trees bend in grief—their valour fills the air.
Clear in death's silent pool we see their faces,
And on life's rock their immortality.

It would be difficult to find a hundred pages of more utter vacuity than Mr. Le Gallienne's 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám: A Paraphrase from Several Literal Translations' (Lane), in which the author exceeds his usual privilege of emptiness. We gladly turn from such a book to the fiery wealth shown in Mr. Tutin's excellent edition of 'Crashaw' (published by the editor at Great Fen Cote, near Bedale, Yorks). Crashaw was omitted from Johnson's Lives, and was practically brought back to fame by the fact that his hymn to Saint Teresa suggested Coleridge's "Christabel." Mr. Francis Thompson also has been among his recent admirers and has evidently felt his influence.

Two recent English poets show traces of temporary residence in America, one of these being Annie Matheson, whose volume of 'Selected Poems, Old and New' (Frowde), shows a singular nobleness and width of thought and profound human feeling—qualities which are all combined, also, in her fine portrait prefixed to the volume. She draws her subjects more often from city streets than from rural solitudes, and joins two continents in this graceful poem (p. 67):

OF THE HUDSON AND THE THAMES.

Now reigns the joyful May time.
The air is blossom-sweet,
As fragrant as the hay-time
When spring and summer meet;
But here in London's very heart, all radiant of spring,
To a bay as blue as Naples a thought has taken wing.

I let the Thames go dreaming
Beneath the crowded ships,
Along the Hudson gleaming
My boat her rudder dips,
And under bright, unclouded skies, where all the world is young,
I meet the faces Memory has often wept and sung.

I clasp the hands I shall not touch
Till deeper seas are past,
I look on eyes that gave me much
When I looked back at last;
Though death has snapped the cable, yet love that understands
May leave the broken message in Love's unerring hands.

The other book which has a certain international character is 'The Living Past, and Other Poems,' by Thomas Seton Jevons (Macmillan), whose contents have partly appeared in the New York *Home Journal*, and on whose pages the cat-bird and whip-poor-will, the cardinal flower and wisteria, appear so liberally as to make the American reader feel quite at home. The poems themselves have a modest and thoughtful beauty.

'Beyond the Hills of Dream,' by W. Wilfred Campbell, has the interest which always belongs to the books of this strong and original writer, and he has more than usual in this volume of that curious instinct of semi-nationality which marks the Canadian. In his poem "To England," he says (p. 74):

"England, England, England,
Wherever a true heart beats,
Wherever the rivers of commerce flow,
Wherever the bugles of conquest blow,
Wherever the glories of liberty grow,
It is the name that the world repeats."

Nevertheless, the rivers of commerce which bear this particular book carry thereby the product of the Riverside Press and of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., American publishers, and it would be difficult to find a more searching cry of discontent than Mr. Campbell sends up in this strong poem (p. 92):

THE LAZARUS OF EMPIRE.

The Celt, he is proud in his protest,
The Scot, he is calm in his place,
For each has a word in the ruling and doom
Of the Empire that honors his race;
And the Englishman, dogged and grim,
Looks the world in the face as he goes,
And he holds a proud lip, for he sails his own ship,
And he cares not for rivals nor foes—
But lowest and last, with his areas vast,
And horizon so servile and tame,
Sits the poor beggar Colonial
Who feeds on the crumbs of her fame.

He knows no place in her councils,
He holds no part in the word
That girdles the world with its thunders
When the fiat of Britain is heard—
He beats no drums to her battles,
He gives no triumphs her name,
But lowest and last, with his areas vast,
He feeds on the crumbs of her fame.

How long, oh, how long, the dishonor,
The servile and suppliant place?
Are we Britons who batten upon her,
Or degenerate sons of the race?
It is souls that make nations, not numbers,
As our forefathers proved in the past.
Let us take up the burden of empire,
Or nail our own flag to the mast.
Doth she care for us, value us, want us,
Or are we but pawns in the game;
Where, lowest and last, with our areas vast,
We feed on the crumbs of her fame?

RAWSON'S FAMOUS NAVAL BATTLES.

Twenty Famous Naval Battles: Salamis to Santiago. By E. K. Rawson, Professor United States Navy. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

The publishers announce that this work is

to take the same place in modern literature that Creasy's 'Decisive Battles' has held for many years; but we have serious doubts as to the soundness of this prophecy, or whether it is justified either by the care shown in the narratives, or by the freshness of the historical material found within the covers of the two volumes that form the work of Prof. Rawson. The sea actions described by him are all in a sense famous, but they are not all great, nor epochal, nor even decisive in the larger sense of the word. It is possible that the author acts upon the remark which he quotes as made to him by Capt. Mahan, that battles are famous only as they are made so by the historian. The narratives have in each instance a page of prelude, with pertinent quotations and paragraphs, ranging in authorship from Herodotus, and Secretary Long's translation of the 'Æneid,' to the navigating officer of the *Olympia* at the time of the Manila fight—and, not to be misunderstood, we must add that there are few persons in the service of the Government who write with clearer diction and greater literary finish than Lieut.-Commander Calkins of the navy. The several accounts, though interesting, show in more than one case a want of care and thorough acquaintance with the facts. For instance, that of the battle of Salamis is lacking in a clear statement of the formation of the Greek fleet either by words or plan, and offers no satisfactory conclusion as to the manner in which the allied Greeks derived so much advantage, with their inferior numbers, from the configuration of the shore line. It is doubtful, too, in treating of the Spanish Armada under the head of the battle of Gravelines, whether Philip II.'s plan, pronounced good by the author, to have the Duke of Parma send an army of invasion from Flanders in flat-bottomed boats across the North Sea, would have been feasible under the circumstances of that day. We hold the Marquis of Santa Cruz to have been justified in whatever opposition he may have made to this plan.

In describing the engagement between the *Kearsarge* and the *Alabama*, the author says that this "possesses not only the interest attaching to single actions at sea, but has an added interest because of the questions of international law connected with it." On page 467 the reader is given to understand that Capt. Winslow endeavored to rake the *Alabama*, but that Semmes perceived and defeated his purpose. If he had consulted the War Records under his charge, he would have found in vol. iii., page 79, the true account of the proposed plan and its result in the report of Capt. Winslow. The fact is, that Winslow's manœuvre was for the purpose mainly and principally of heading off the *Alabama* from securing safety within the three-mile limit; and the attempt to rake was a method adopted to prevent this escape, and force the *Alabama* away from the shore and into following a circular track. On pages 475 and 482 the author seems to accept Semmes's charge that Winslow inadvertently failed to do his utmost to rescue the men of the *Alabama* struggling in the water. This is unjust, and is based upon Semmes's statement alone, which is not repeated or charged by Sinclair. Of the two authorities Sinclair is far the better, for Semmes, in the violence of his prejudices and bitterness of feeling, has made in his book more than one misstatement. There were but two boats left in a serviceable condition on board the *Kearsarge*, and these were promptly utilized for saving the men in the water; the boat of the *Alabama* was also permitted to engage in the same work, and the *Deerhound* was requested by Winslow himself to save life. The presence of the ship amidst the men in the water could have done but little more, and the author is unjust and unwarranted in his statement that "Winslow, in the excitement of the time, and annoyed by the action of the *Deerhound*, committed a grave mistake by not steaming up to the midst of the drowning men."

On page 478 it is stated that the act of paroling the prisoners from the *Alabama* was disapproved by the Secretary of the Navy, but Winslow's full and satisfactory explanation of the matter, which is to be found in full on page 78, vol. iii. of the Naval War Records, is quite ignored. It would be interesting to know upon what authority Prof. Rawson bases his statement that three officers, one after another, appealed to Winslow to fire upon the *Deerhound*. It was fortunate, no matter how deserved, that this was not done. The action of the *Deerhound* has been far-reaching in its consequences. It was a violation of fairness and justice, and discredited the yacht, its owner, and the flag that it bore. This abuse of a humane request has done as much to prevent the extension of the Red Cross work upon the sea as any one thing; and of the various unfriendly acts committed by Englishmen during our civil war this was one of the least justifiable.

When Prof. Rawson comes to discuss the status of the *Alabama* with respect to the laws and usages of nations, his statements are interesting, if not valuable. He says:

"The recognition of belligerency, however, does not involve the recognition of sovereignty. The sovereignty of the Confederate States was never acknowledged by the United States. The *Alabama* was termed a privateer by the foreign press, and that appellation more nearly expressed her status; a privateer being an armed private vessel commissioned by a state to prey upon the commerce of the enemy. Yet the *Alabama* was not a private vessel in the strict sense of the term. She was built by the Confederate Government in an English dockyard, under false pretences, to carry on a war against the Federal authorities, alike against her merchantmen and her men-of-war. From the Confederate point of view she was as much a man-of-war as the *Kearsarge*. On the other hand, from the point of view of international law, her title to be designated a man-of-war was defective; only such vessels as are commissioned by authority of a government and issue from a belligerent port can be so considered. The seal to her misdoing is, however, made final by the fact that her prizes were never taken into port for adjudication; Semmes himself assuming this prerogative. It is apart from this question to state that, owing to the blockade, such adjudication was impossible. Her career was in violation of the customs and usages of war. She therefore forfeited consideration by her acts of a piratical nature."

This, with the following paragraph, which space will not permit us to quote, is neither good international law nor good sense. Built by the order and money of a belligerent Government, accepted by an official agent of that Government, commanded and officered by men holding commissions from that Government as part of the regular naval service, and directed by the belligerent Government to proceed on duty and work legitimate to a belligerent cruiser, the *Alabama* was no more a privateer than a pirate, both and neither of which it seems from the author's conclusions he considers her to be. Nor is the author's conclusion at the end of the narrative well founded that, as a result of the *Alabama's* cruise, the United States announced to the world that, in the conflict with Spain, she would not engage in the practice of privateering. The destruction of merchantmen of the enemy still remained, during that war, a prerogative of our vessels of war when military necessity required it. Military necessity compelled Semmes to destroy his prizes on account of the blockade, as military necessity compelled the French to destroy German prizes in the Franco-German war for other but sufficient reasons.

Space will not allow us to discuss any other of the narratives of this work except that of Manila Bay, which seems sufficiently full of errors to be worthy of note. On page 610, in the early part of this narrative, a reference is made to the five effective vessels of the Spanish fleet at Manila; the number should be given as seven, viz., the *Reina Cristina*, the *Castilla*, the *Don Juan de Austria*, the *Isla de Cuba*, the *Isla de Luzon*, the *Don Antonio de Ulloa*, and the *Marques del Duero*, with a total tonnage of 11,689 tons. Torpedo drills were not gone through with at Mirs Bay by the American squadron. What few ships of the force under command of Dewey carried torpedoes, had to rely upon previous drills at Mirs Bay, which, by the way, the author strangely states as being thirty miles to the southward of Hong Kong. The constant evidence of the author's lack of technical knowledge appears again when he states that the Spaniards acted wisely in fighting at Manila instead of at Subig Bay. The professional opinion of those engaged with Dewey as well as the best Spanish opinion is to the contrary. The battery on Corregidor Island was a water battery of eight-inch muzzle-loading Armstrongs, instead of a battery of eight-inch Krupp guns on the summit, as stated on page 615, and consequently no plunging fire (or any other kind of fire for that matter) was possible from Corregidor into the Boca Grande. There was, however, a battery upon Restinga Point opposite Corregidor, bearing upon the Boca Grande, not mentioned in the story, which supported the fire from the Fraile when the fleet passed by. The diagram and description given of the fight at Cavité are also full of errors, and in some cases the statements border upon the fictitious. The captain of the *Reina Cristina*, according to the narrative, was killed twice in the action of Manila Bay. On page 624 it is stated that, as the *Cristina* turned in retreat, an eight-inch shell killed the Captain and sixty men and set the ship on fire; while on page 632 it is again stated that, at a later period, while superintending the transfer of the crew from the *Cristina*, Capt. Cadarso was killed by a shell. The latter statement is practically correct.

The International Geography. By Seventy Authors. Edited by Hugh Robert Mill, D.Sc., etc. London: George Newnes; New York: Appletons. 1899.

'The International Geography,' edited by Dr. Hugh Robert Mill, one of the most active officers of the Royal Geographical Society of London, can unhesitatingly be given the first place among publications of its

kind in the English language. This is not saying much, however, as general works on geography of a high order have as yet scarcely fallen to the consideration of the English or American publisher; one might, indeed, truthfully declare that they are all but unknown in the English language. This condition hardly calls for surprise when it is so generally recognized that the study of geography is not a part of the educational discipline of the higher schools of learning, whether college, private seminary, or university. The university graduate, and with him his sponsor, the President of the institution, are satisfied with the elementary knowledge conveyed by text-books heretofore designated "intermediate" geographies, and compiled by authors who, in most cases, lay no claim to being geographers. Hence such statements as were recently contained in one of the most respectable of American works of geographical reference, that Egypt had an area of 13,000 square miles, and that the East Cape of Siberia is situated on the one hundred and ninetieth meridian of east longitude.

Dr. Mill's publication is of a distinctively high order, and it is not a little creditable to the enterprise that the editor should have succeeded in obtaining the collaboration of seventy authors of recognized position, to whom were allotted for description those parts of the earth's surface, whether as political or physical divisions, with which they were assumed to be most intimately acquainted. An inspection of the list of associate authors leads readily to the conclusion that no single volume in recent scientific literature embodies, in original contributions, the labor of so many eminent specialists as this one; and this is perhaps equally true of works published in languages other than English. We enumerate here a few of the authors and the articles for which they are responsible: Rt. Hon. James Bryce (the Transvaal, Orange Free State, Natal), Professor Chaix of Geneva (Switzerland), Sir Martin Conway (the Arctic Record), Professor Kirchhoff (the German Empire), Professor Lapparent (France), Sir Clements Markham, President of the Royal Geographical Society (Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia), Sir John Murray (the Oceans, and the Antarctic Regions), Dr. Nansen (Arctic Regions), Professor Penck of Vienna (Austria), Professor William Morris Davis of Harvard University (North America and the United States), etc. The editor himself is responsible for two physiographical articles and for the treatment of the United Kingdom.

It was not to be expected, in a work of this kind, that all countries would be treated with equal or proportional consideration, or that, despite the best-laid plans, identical methods of treatment would be followed by the different authors. Denmark and Tasmania, for example, are given equal space by the editor, three and a half pages each; a disproportion which perhaps finds justification in the fact that Tasmania is a colony of the British Crown. Less justifiable is the allotment of nearly equal space to Iceland and Greece, and the limitation of treatment of the latter country to a smaller number of pages than is accorded to Southern Rhodesia. The United States is generously disposed of in 63 pages, or a few more than those assigned to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The Russian Empire covers 36 pages, and the German Empire 33. In addition to the direct treatment of regions and countries, the work is supplemented by a number of chapters embodying the broad principles of geography, and dealing with such topics as "Mathematical Geography," "Maps and Map Reading," "The Plan of the Earth," "Atmosphere and Climate," "Political and Applied Geography," etc. These are not the least valuable part of the publication.

The *pièce de résistance*, from the point of view of the geomorphologist, is the article on the United States, by Prof. Davis, which is a comprehensive statement of the physical development of the country, and an inquiry into the why and wherefore of certain conditions appertaining to man's location and habitation, dependent upon the measure of possibilities which nature has held out to him. The article is a good exposition of what has latterly come to be called the "new geography," and shares with that assumed new science its strong and its weak points. Geomorphology, whether considered as a chapter of geology or of physical geography, is a fascinating branch of study, but the supposition that it takes the place of, or is one with, geography is fallacious, and can only tend to lower the position of a study which, in its full value, ought to stand uppermost in the curriculum of every system of university teaching. To know how the different features of a land-surface came into being, and how they are being constantly modified under the influences of natural forces, is unquestionably an important and exhilarating form of knowledge; but it is also well to know what these features are. Prof. Davis gives a luminous, if somewhat disjointed treatment of the evolutionary development of the American land-forms, but his picture of these forms is much less satisfactory. The reader will find it difficult to frame an image of the higher Appalachian Mountains, for example, when no statement is made regarding their height, except in such vague references as "their present moderate height" (p. 670), and "Mount Washington, the highest of the White Mountains, and many other monadnocks are in sight from the sea" (p. 717). There is nothing, except inference, to indicate the position of the Mississippi among the great rivers of the globe, and we fail to find anything that properly places before us even remotely the dimensions of the Great Lakes. The treatment of "climate" and "rainfall," given subordinately under the general article "North America," is one almost entirely of causes, and, except in the rather barren information imparted by small sketch-plans, leaves the reader in the dark as to actual existing conditions. In the few lines that are devoted to the vegetation of the region there is nothing that can suggest even the dominant floral characteristics, while a treatment of the fauna has been entirely abandoned. Finally, the geographical relations of the American people are not everywhere successfully set forth; the mode of treatment shows too clearly the effort to correlate the doings of man with simple geographical conditions, and to overlook the most dominant "human" factors in the struggle as well for progress as for existence.

Nevertheless, with the exception of the larger work on the United States by the late Prof. Whitney, which appeared (in greater part) originally as an article in the latest edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' this is, perhaps, the best general treatment of the national domain which has yet been published. It would not derogate from its value, however, but, we believe, would materially add to it, to have a part of its treatment conform to the method followed by Prof. Penck in the construction of his article on Austria-Hungary, and by M. Aïtoff, in his article on the Russian Empire, where the dominant features of the land and people are given their objective prominence with a view to securing a proper perspective.

Great care has been bestowed upon the preparation of the details of the work, and, while a few errors and misspellings can here and there be detected, its general level is remarkably well sustained. The book should find a place in every library, public or private, that contains an atlas or a gazetteer, and it is to be hoped that in future editions the effort will be made to increase its usefulness by adding maps to the text. The small plans and sketches do not serve their purpose, and in no way correspond to the general excellence of the publication.

The Early Married Life of Maria Josepha, Lady Stanley. Edited by J. H. Adeane. Longmans. 1899. 460 pp.

H. R. H. Princess Mary Adelaide, Duchess of Teck. By C. Kinloch Cooke. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. 2 vols. Pp. 840.

Twelve Notable Good Women. By Rosa N. Carey. E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 380.

The first of these books far surpasses the other two in interest. Those who read the 'Girlhood of Maria Josepha Holroyd' need no further introduction to Gibbon's "sprightly Maria." In that work was given a picture of her youth up to her marriage in 1796, and the present volume is made more complete by the inclusion, up to the same date, of the journal of her husband, John Stanley, the first Lord Stanley of Alderley. He was a man who, from sheer lack of ambition, neglected opportunities of great distinction. After the one adventurous moment of his life, when he chartered a ship and went to Iceland—a feat that ranked in his day with Arctic exploration—he was content to drill the Cheshire militia in readiness for the reception of Bonaparte, and, when that excitement failed, to settle down to the sedate life of a country gentleman with more than one estate to manage. To one sentimental experience he was always faithful. On the grand tour he was received at the court of Brunswick, where he fell in love with the ill-fated Caroline; and forty years later, when she died, the disgraced Queen of England, he was overcome with genuine grief, as his journal shows. His comment on his mother's death is characteristic: "All my duties as a son are over. Conscience must determine whether I have done them ill or well, whether I have failed or succeeded in this portion of my trial here on earth." To his somewhat sombre temperament his wife's was a strong contrast. She maintained an entirely unmodern spirit of contentment, and the word introspection was not in her vocabulary. She lived in that period of lost happiness in which Sydney Smith wrote that "there is scarcely a single work, either of reason or imagination, written by women, in general circulation."

Maria's life was full to the brim. She managed her husband, her eleven children, and the estates with equal skill and good humor, and not even the advent of a second stepmother could shake her well-balanced mind. She found time for much solid reading in the country, and when, on occasion, she flitted to town, her letters are full of entertaining descriptions of the men and women whom she met. Her keen interest in politics and social progress reminds the reader that Lady Carlisle, the leading figure in the Women's Liberal Association, is Maria Holroyd's granddaughter; her daughter-in-law, the late Lady Stanley, was the chief benefactress of Girton College. The Stanleys lived mainly at Alderley; in the Rectory near them was installed Edward Stanley, the future Bishop of Norwich, and at Alderley Rectory was born in 1815 Arthur Stanley, who was to be Dean of Westminster and the most distinguished of all the Stanleys. His mother was that Kitty Leycester of whom Sydney Smith said, "She has a porcelain understanding," a phrase that may have been the source of George Meredith's famous epigram on Clara Middleton, the "dainty rogue in porcelain." Maria Stanley wrote admirable English, as do most intelligent women who have a large correspondence. It is interesting to find educated persons writing "you was," in the days of Waterloo. For the rest, the excellent plates are an attractive feature, and the book is well got up in all respects.

The Life of the Duchess of Teck proves what a bourgeois affair a Hanoverian can make of the profession of a first-class royalty. Princess Mary, niece of George III., and first cousin to Queen Victoria, was part German Frau, part British matron—an excellent combination, to which one does not look for brilliance. Mr. Cooke, who had access to her journals and letters, was perhaps perplexed with his abundance; he has, at any rate, small talent for transmuting his material, and none for the art of arts, the art of selection. Apparently we cannot hope to find entertainment in royal autobiography, and the last fifty years of English court life must wait for another Greville to glorify it. These pages are full of the names of personages of the greatest weight in European politics, but even if the Duchess had been given to analysis or characterization of any sort, we suppose that her criticisms could not have been reproduced. There were no indiscretions possible to Mr. Cooke; for the journals are a colorless record of the most commonplace travels, country-house parties, and London seasons, so much alike that the record of one year of such a life would have sufficed for most readers. The omission of the bare enumeration of meals would have saved us many a page. Above all, would we have cheerfully foregone the back-stairs views of a semi-regal existence, and have contented ourselves with a general statement that the Princess was kind to her dressers and did not keep the carriage waiting. As an illustration we quote the following anecdote out of many from the recollections of Miss Burt, the family dressmaker (we preserve the grammar of the original):

"It was not always that Miss Burt was in favor with her royal mistress; once, when ordering a dress to be trimmed with rows of graduated velvet up to the waist, her dressmaker unwisely replied, 'But, your Royal Highness, I don't think I could get so many widths in that color.' 'Then,' said the Princess, with raised head and an air of command, 'get it made, Burt'" (p. 140).

Princess Mary's disposition was enviably cheerful; we find her "in floods of tears till dressing-time" over the 'Heir of Redclyffe'; and the entry, "In the morning I had the blues till half-past ten," indicates a most superficial acquaintance with melancholy. In spite of her opportunities for observation, the Princess seldom relates an anecdote. Her admiration of Beaconsfield was tempered with the awe and distrust which he inspired alike in royalties and the crowd. One evening, at dinner, during a crisis in foreign affairs, Princess Mary, who was puzzled at the inaction of the Government, turned to him and said, "What are we waiting for, Mr. Disraeli?" The Prime Minister paused for a moment to take up the menu, and, looking at the Princess, gravely replied, "Mutton and potatoes, ma'am." The Duchess of Teck was a most estimable and charitable woman, who on the whole deserved better of her biographer. The book is partially redeemed by charming plates of the royal family and their homes.

Miss Carey's work is a series of twelve short and sentimental studies of women who have devoted themselves to good works; the record is slight and superficial in every case, and is not worth serious consideration.

The Storming of Stony Point on the Hudson, Midnight, July 15, 1779. Its importance in the light of unpublished documents. By Henry P. Johnston, A.M., Professor of History, College of the City of New York. James White & Co. 8vo, pp. 231.

Prof. Johnston has made a very interesting historical study of the famous night attack by "Mad Anthony Wayne," unearthing much original correspondence bearing upon it, especially that of Sir Henry Clinton with his Government, and some creditable letters of George III. himself. These make it clear that the exploit was reckoned a very important one by the British officials, and that it paralyzed them for the rest of the campaign of 1779. Old sketch maps are brought into comparison with reproductions of recent photographs of Stony Point from north as well as south, and of the lighthouse which marks the east front of the British works commanding the river. Verplanck's Point, opposite, is also shown by photography, and portraits are given of the principal officers on the American side. The book thus becomes a good example of attractive local history, treating with desirable fulness the story of the heroic action which has so appropriate a setting in the picturesque gate of the Hudson highlands.

Mr. Johnston's reference to "Mr. Washington" and "Mr. Wayne," as our generals figure in the British documents, reminds us that the assumption that this was intended as a belittling designation is not well founded. Probably in imitation of French usage, which set the fashion in military forms of speech as well as the style in high life, the English were accustomed, through the eighteenth century, to drop the military title when speaking of officers without desiring to emphasize the military rank. This was especially noticeable in correspondence. The French custom was more sweeping than the English, so that examples are everywhere found in official letters. For instance, in the report of Dumas to the French Minister on affairs in Canada in 1756 (Parkman's 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' ii., 425), we find "M. de Beaujeu marcha donc, et, sous ses ordres, M. de Ligneris et moi." So, one of the French officers, speaking of Wolfe, calls him "M. Wolfe" in the campaign of Quebec (*id.* 277). The English usage seems to have been to use the title of civil rank, if there were one, as "Lord Howe," "Sir Henry Clinton," etc., reserving the "Mr." for the case of officers without civil titles. An example occurs in Prof. Johnston's appendix (p. 145), in a letter of Judge William Smith of New York, a prominent Loyalist, who, speaking of the British General Tryon, says, "Washington was importuned by Connecticut to save her from the flames Mr. Tryon was lighting up on her coast." No better authority for the usage of London society could be given than Horace Walpole. In a letter to Sir Horace Mann of November 20, 1757, he is speaking of General Henry Conway, one of the most distinguished figures of the day, both in the army and in social life, who had gone out as a subordinate in the unsuccessful expedition against Rochefort. "You may easily imagine," he says, "that, with all my satisfaction in Mr. Conway's behavior, I am very unhappy about him." Numerous similar references are found in that correspondence. It is interesting to note that in our own country the mistaken notion of the old usage has been so accepted that when General Lee wished to speak slightingly of an opponent on the national side he "mistered" him. The gradual change of custom would be worth tracing. To-day the army usage is to speak of a lieutenant as Mr. So-and-So, but captains and higher officers are spoken of and addressed by their military rank.

The Writing Table of the Twentieth Century. By Schuyler Mathews. With over three hundred illustrations by the author, and the heraldic blazonry of more than five hundred colonial American families. New York: Brentano's. 1900. Sm. 8vo, pp. 178.

The title-page does not fully explain this book. There is, indeed, much about heraldry, as we will show; somewhat about invitations and cards; but the real object of the book appears in the closing pages, which are devoted to a gorgeous, and probably deserved, puff of the paper-mills of the Messrs. Crane at Dalton, Mass.

The first third of the volume is given to a heraldic manual, which is entirely superfluous and not very well done. There have been so many issues of this class of books that originality is impossible. The facts are immutable and well known, and each book is a mere copy of its predecessors, except in regard to examples and illustrations. Mr. Mathews, indeed, claims to have furnished the arms of more than five hundred colonial American families, giving the description rather than the pictures of them. He tries to bolster up this ridiculous list by an argument to the effect that as coats-of-arms are not established or even recognized by law in the United States, any one may assume a coat and have it recognized socially. We have repeatedly exposed this fallacy in our columns, but the simple fact remains that so long as it is profitable to the growing class of designers and engravers to prepare pretty

decorative shields of arms, they will do so, and will assure their willing dupes that the custom is right.

It is, of course, nothing but sham and delusion. Heraldry is a fact—a survival, or late form, rather, of what was once a vital principle. It cannot be renewed in a country which lacks the root of the custom, except by the authority of the Government. Coats-of-arms are exactly analogous to titles of nobility, and the man who assumes either is an impostor and a snob. When the Duke of Norfolk lands in New York, he will find a hundred Howards, more or less, all sporting the historic cross-crosslets on a bend, and very possibly also using the supporters of his ducal shield. A mild inquiry would fail to show any connection with any known member of the Duke's family, present or past, but the coat-of-arms would be flourished triumphantly. Now it is useless for Mr. Mathews or any other interested party to pretend that these several coats-of-arms are in the same class. The Duke has the arms, as he has his title, his castles and estates, by legal right and the sanction of Government. But in this free country he may find Howards who not only appropriate his coat-armor, but, if they wish, may also claim his titles. In this country there can be but one honest and respectable claim to any form or title of heraldic honors, and that is a compliance with the rules of nations where such honors are established and recognized.

Mr. Mathews professes to give the arms of five hundred colonial families. He offers no evidence to support a single one, and the greater part of the examples are mere assumptions. He might just as well have claimed five thousand, and probably the next writer will improve on him to that extent.

Inorganic Evolution as Studied by Spectrum Analysis. By Sir Norman Lockyer. Macmillan Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. 198.

Some thirty years ago Sir Norman Lockyer discovered that the spectrum derived from incandescent metallic vapors enclosing a sufficiently hotter core of the same vapors differed by additional and enhanced lines from that of the same vapors without the core; whereupon he incontinently espoused the hypothesis that this was due to a dissociation—whether depolymerization or decomposition—of substances in our list of chemical elements; and he has been occupied ever since in defending this hypothesis, one might almost say with every means that God and Nature have put into his hands; at any rate with arguments, good, bad, and indifferent, snatched from every side. He has, of course, been assailed with objections of like promiscuous quality; but we must declare that such of his arguments as were drawn from his own observations were, in so far, fashioned of sterling metal, which is more than can be said of his antagonists, on the whole. If Lockyer's hypothesis should ultimately be disproved, posterity will rate him as a man with a fixed idea; while if, as is more likely, it is ultimately confirmed, he will be extolled as one of the most sagacious of prophets, a confidant of Nature, more than a generation in advance of his times. One cannot imagine Lockyer as otherwise than ardent, vivacious, and brimming with new ideas and new observations. If the physiologists could only expedite their promised prolongation of human life in time to save him for another thirty years' work, it would be an immense satisfaction to the scientific world and to him. We fear, however, that he intends this book to mark a slackening of his activities; and some rest he ought, certainly, to take, for this volume is ominously marked with signs of overwork. It reads as if it had been dictated to a typewriter, without calm preconsideration and without careful correction. Its faults of both kinds are so glaring that we shall simply dismiss them without further remark.

The original hypothesis of dissociation at length gave birth to another in Lockyer's mind, namely, that all the elements of our chemists are derived from one pristine matter, having an atomic weight some hundreds of times less than hydrogen, of which the recognized elements are polymers or compounds of polymers; and that the same matter exists everywhere throughout the stellar system in a few different grades of evolution —that is, of polymerization and combination of polymers—depending upon the temperature to which it is subjected. This is an acceptable working hypothesis, for it accords with our existing general conceptions of nature, and it is favored by a goodly squad of facts. This is Lockyer's Inorganic Evolution. That the relations among the chemical elements are to be explained by some sort of evolutionary process is the only idea we can at present entertain. We ought to begin, then, with trying how the hypothesis of the simplest kind of evolution that could answer the purpose will fit the facts, and adhere to that until it is refuted. Lockyer's seems to be that simplest hypothesis. At present, it is confirmed by but a few facts, over and above those required to suggest and give form to the theory. We cannot expect that it will stand unmodified by future discoveries; but how far or in what respects it will require alteration only time can show.

A History of Eton College. By Lionel Cust. [English Public Schools Series.] London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

Mr. Cust has the good sense to feel that "some apology is due for the publication of this book." Sir H. C. Maxwell-Lyte, the Deputy Keeper of the Public Records, and Mr. J. W. Clark, Registrary of the University of Cambridge, have written scholarly histories of the foundation and its buildings; and the volumes which record the diversions and the prowess of Eton schoolboys are already legion. Mr. Cust frankly confesses the reason for his book's existence: "The series of English Public Schools in course of publication by Messrs. Duckworth & Co. could hardly be complete without the inclusion of some account of Eton College; hence the present work."

Considering what Eton is and long has been—the most important of all the schools for the governing class of England—and considering how abundant is the material easily accessible, it would be hard to write an account of it which did not contain a good deal that was of interest. But the present performance is totally devoid of distinction; it shows neither breadth of view nor charm of style, while it is marked by very nearly every fault that the critics of the English Public-School System are on the watch to detect. It is an old observation that head-masters seldom write good English; this series of histories has gone far to prove that the under-masters suffer from the same inability. That Mr. Cust is an Eton master we are not sure, but he certainly sprinkles his pages with infelicities. "In no school are the duties of parents to their children shown to such advantage or disadvantage as they are at Eton" (p. 230). The advisers of Edward VI. "were bigoted in their desire to enforce the Reformed Church upon the country" (p. 27). "Gray stereotyped, so to speak, his literary rank with his famous *Elegy*" (p. 109). These instances will be enough to illustrate what we mean. Snobbishness, again, is the besetting sin of the eulogist of Eton, and Mr. Cust has not succeeded in steering clear of it. He pursues the usual method of blowing a school's trumpet; he recites the names of the distinguished men who have gone forth from its walls. But what lists they are!—the epoch-making statesman and the insignificant placeholder jumbled up together with impartial hand. The page which begins with a Prime Minister will end with a Commissioner of Greenwich Hospital (p. 129). Even now, says Mr. Cust, in these days of civil-service competition, it is satisfactory to find that, "in a public office, no man is so likely to get on well as one who has been an Eton boy." We do not doubt for a moment that there are some excellent masters at Eton, or that Dr. Warre is an exemplary head; but Mr. Cust knows perfectly well that if Eton were blotted out of existence and the families which now send their sons to Eton had to send them to Clifton—a nightmare to make Mr. Cust shudder—no man would be so likely to get on well in a public office as one who had been a Clifton boy.

Like many of the other writers in the series, Mr. Cust speaks of Dr. Arnold with ill-veiled jealousy (pp. 196-7). But among Dr. Arnold's services to the Public Schools of England must be reckoned this—that he widened the range of their intellectual interests. Tutors at the universities still groan over the colossal ignorance of the average Public School man; but it is at any rate possible now for a sixth-form boy to know something of the history and literature of his own country as well as write good prose and verse in the languages of Greece and Rome. Yet this book not infrequently suggests that some improvement is still possible in this respect in the atmosphere of Eton. It might be asking too much to expect Mr. Cust to be acquainted with the way in which bishops were appointed in the later middle ages (p. 14). Even with Mr. Gardiner's history on the shelves, Mr. Cust may have some reason for speaking of the writings of "the ever-memorable John Hales" as "a plunge into schismatic controversy" (p. 84). But for such a statement as the following it is hard to find an excuse in these days of Anglo-American *entente;* and we will leave it without comment:

"*At the Restoration* . . . John Oxenbridge, on being ejected from his fellowship, . . . resumed his missionary efforts in Surinam, Barbadoes, and other places, and eventually found his way to *the new settlement at Boston*, Massachusetts, of which *he became the first pastor*, thus forging a curious link between Eton and the New World" (p. 89).

The Biography of a Grizzly, and 75 Drawings. By Ernest Seton-Thompson. The Century Co. 1900. 8vo, 167 pp.

Biology attempts to record impartially the

facts of observation, to weigh and measure them. Literature calls in the imagination, as he who gives a feast illuminates the banquet hall, even with shutters barring out the too literal sunbeams. In dealing with our shy relatives of wood and field, the interpreter may portray their lives so that we recognize exactly how we should act and feel were we wild animals, yet mentally as we are; as in the immortal "Jungle Books." There we recognize a perfect harmony of the impossible, and revel in it, disdaining concrete fact. The alternative method would draw aside the veil which obscures our comprehension of the mental processes of animals, and thus attempt to picture sympathetically their hopes, fears, triumphs, joys, and tragedies, as they really are or might be. Success in this line depends upon a rigid restraint of the inevitable anthropomorphism, in terms of which the drama must be stated. The least relaxation into strictly human sentimentality, and the whole will ring false.

In 'Wild Animals I have Known,' the author attained to an almost complete success in this extremely difficult task, and that work is still, so far as we know, unique in its character. The present story, considered in the light of literature and measured by the standard of the former, is less perfect. The illustrations are delightful, and much of the narrative is all that could be asked for; but its conclusion, the suicide of Wahb, is a blemish on the perfection of the rest. Let the author be warned that that way failure lies.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atherton, Gertrude. Senator North. John Lane. $1.50.
Austin, Alfred. Spring and Autumn in Ireland. Macmillan. $1.
Baker, R. S. Our New Prosperity. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.25.
Barry, Dr. W. Arden Massiter: A Novel. The Century Co. $1.50.
Bernard, V. F. Les Fautes de Langage, ou le Français comme on le parle. W. R. Jenkins. 50c.
Bligh, W. The Mutiny on Board H. M. S. Bounty. London: Bankside Press; New York: M. S. Mansfield. $1.00.
Bottone, S. R. Wireless Telegraphy and Hertzian Waves. Whittaker & Co. $1.
Bowker, R. R. The Arts of Life. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Boswell, J. Life of Samuel Johnson. [Library of English Classics.] Macmillan. 3 vols. $4.50.
Brontë, Anne. The Tenant of Wildfell Hall. [Vol. VI. Haworth Edition.] Harper & Bros. $1.75.
Carpenter, W. B. Popular History of the Church of England. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Castle, E. Marshfield the Observer. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Channing, E. Short History of the United States. Macmillan. 90c.
Clouston, J. S. The Lunatic at Large. [Town and Country Library.] D. Appleton & Co.
Converse, Florence. The Burden of Christopher. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Fiske, J. The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Le Gallienne, R. Rudyard Kipling: A Criticism. John Lane. $1.25.
Dunbar, Paul Laurence. The Strength of Gideon, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Fitch, Sir Joshua. Educational Aims and Methods. Macmillan. $1.25.
Forward, Mrs. R. Miss Pullman. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Fowler, Ellen T. The Farringtons. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Green, Anna K. A Difficult Problem. F. M. Lupton Publishing Co.
Hayes, F. W. A Kent Squire. New York: F. M. Lupton Publishing Co. $1.50.
Helen Keller Souvenir. Washington: Volta Bureau.
Higginson, T. W. Three Outdoor Papers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Hill, Dr. Alex. Introduction to Science. [Temple Primers.] Macmillan. 40c.
Hooper, J. W. Three Score and Ten in Retrospect. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Hort, Rev. F. J. A. Village Sermons. Macmillan. $1.75.
Ibsen, H. When We Dead Awaken. [Green Tree Library.] Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Inchbald, Mrs. Nature and Art. Cassells. 10c.
Jenks, E. A History of Politics. [Temple Primers.] Macmillan. 40c.
Jerome, Jerome K. Three Men on Wheels. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Journalistic German: Selections from Current German Periodicals. Edited by A. Prehn. American Book Co. 50c.
Lankester, E. R. A Treatise on Zoölogy. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. Part III. $5.25.
Mallock, W. H. Doctrine and Doctrinal Disruption. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Moody, W. R. Life of Dwight L. Moody. Fleming H. Revell Co. $2.50.
Morrison, Mary G. The Sea-Farers. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Newcomb, C. B. Discovery of a Lost Trail. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Ralph, J. Toward Pretoria. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Ramsey, M., and Lewis, Anita J. Exercises in Spanish Prose Composition. Henry Holt & Co.
Rea, Hope. Donatello. [Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture Series.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Schönbach, Anton E. Gesammelte Aufsätze zur neueren Litteratur in Deutschland, Oesterreich, Amerika. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky. 6 marks.
Scott, Sir Walter. Complete Poetical Works [Cambridge ed.] Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Sherman, L. A. Tennyson's "The Princess." Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Skeat, Rev. W. W. The Chaucer Canon. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Stephens, R. N. Philip Winwood. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Stockton, F. R. The Adventures of Capt. Horn. Scribner.
Tarr, Prof. R. S., and McMurry, Prof. F. M. Home Geography. Macmillan. 60c.
Templeton, J. The Romance of Robert Burns. Wright & Co. $1.50.
Thackeray, W. M. The History of Henry Esmond. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
The Captivi of Plautus. Edited by Prof. G. E. Barber. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.
The International Congress of Women, '99. Edited by the Countess of Aberdeen. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 7 vols.
Thompson, Rev. S. C. Mental Index of the Bible. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
Waliszewski, K. A History of Russian Literature. [Literatures of the World.] D. Appleton. $1.50.
Waterman, N. A Book of Verses. Boston: Forbes & Co. $1.25.
Witkowski, Georg. Goethe: Dichter und Darsteller. Leipzig: Seemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 3 marks.

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[Publication was begun July 1, 1865, Vol. I. comprising the last half year. Two volumes per year have since been issued, Vol. LXVIII. comprising the first half year of 1899.]

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 17, 1900.

The Week.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, upholding the Constitutionality of what is known as the inheritance tax, establishes several principles of the very highest importance. Speaking generally, we may say that Congress is now competent to seize for public uses such portion of the personal property of a dead person as it chooses. It is henceforth restrained by no Constitutional objections of equality or uniformity from establishing progressive rates; and the large revenue obtained by the English Exchequer from high death duties will no doubt tempt our rulers to adopt similar taxation. The decision of the court incidentally sustains the power of the State Governments also to impose a like tax. We may regard it as probably our future policy to appropriate, or confiscate, for the expenses of government, an increasingly large part of the property left by wealthy decedents. The fact that such property may consist of Government bonds exempted by law "from all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority," is held to be immaterial. The theory by which this conclusion is reached is, that a tax on the transfer of a bond, on the death of the owner, is not a tax on the bond. Whether such a theory has any foundation, either in fact or in logic, is now unimportant; it has received the highest legal sanction. The theory on which the tax on income from the rent of land was held unconstitutional—that a tax on the gain derived from property was a tax on the property—may seem inconsistent with the present decision; but that is also immaterial. No proposition seems less open to question than that a tax on the transfer of property has the same effect on value as a tax on the property itself; but that proposition is discountenanced by the present decision. We may summarize its scope and effect by saying that both State and national Governments have now the Constitutional power to take for public purposes the whole or any part of the personal property of every citizen upon his death. The principle that taxation should be proportioned to value is finally repudiated, and that of progressive taxation definitively established.

So far as the existing inheritance tax is concerned, the decision of the Supreme Court lightens it materially. The law provides that executors, etc., having in trust "any legacies or distributive shares arising from personal property, where the whole amount of such personal property as aforesaid shall exceed the sum of ten thousand dollars," shall pay certain taxes. It seems to have been held by the courts below that the limit of ten thousand dollars had application to the total value of the estate of the decedent. With this construction, every legacy, no matter how small, would be taxable if charged on an estate worth ten thousand dollars. The Supreme Court decides it was the intention of Congress to tax "the separate and distinct sums or items of personal property passing." The tax is "on the legacies and distributive shares." Hence no such shares, if below the limit, are taxable, no matter how large the estate of the decedent. A man might leave a million dollars and no tax would be imposed on it, provided he left it in small legacies, or his next of kin were of proper degree and sufficiently numerous. This construction of the statute is certainly a merciful one, as it exempts those who would suffer most from this tax.

The administration of the Post-office in Cuba clearly requires investigation by Congress, and not by the Department alone. Under the military régime the War Department and the President of the United States can do very much as they please. But the Postal Department of the United States Government is not competent legally, and it seems doubtful if it is practically, to administer the postal service of a country which is outside of our Union. This service, under the present conditions, should be wholly under the control of the military Government of Cuba. Under that government something like military discipline would be maintained. If our Postal Department is to operate in Cuba, it will be bound by no laws. All its acts there are extra-legal, and none of the restraints exist which experience has shown to be necessary. It seems that one of the officers in this anomalous Cuban postal service was formerly connected with that of Porto Rico. He was unable to account for a large sum of money which he had received, and was dismissed from the service, his bondsmen being obliged to make up the deficiency. This untoward event did not prevent him from getting his Cuban appointment. The civil-servce law evidently does not apply *ex proprio vigore* to such cases.

The armor-plate controversy in Congress comes down essentially to this—shall the Government allow contractors to make a confessedly exorbitant profit out of our alleged necessities as a "world-Power"? Even the Imperialists admitted that the price charged was inexcusably excessive; but as an Imperial Power we must have the ships and allow the armor-makers to pocket their enormous profits. Senator Lodge attempted to wear the Imperial purple for the purpose of helping out the contractors. It is an old trick of theirs to raise a loud alarum whenever they see Congress hesitating over their bills. At the time of the Chilian excitement in 1891-92, a well-known naval contractor was asked if he thought there would be war. "No," he said, with a wink, "only just war enough to get us our contracts." On Friday the armor people put up Lodge to threaten Germany, as a means of persuading the Senate not to look too closely into the cost of the plates. Politically, it was a grievous blunder, for which he was properly rapped over the knuckles next day by Senator Spooner, speaking for the Administration. Strange as it may seem to the war-breathing Senator from Massachusetts, Mr. Spooner and the President would actually like to win a few German-American votes in Wisconsin and Illinois next November. But Mr. Lodge's speech was, after all, merely symptomatic of the tendencies of Expansion. It is a policy of commercialism, pure and simple, which we are to go into only for "what there is in it for us."

The weakness of the opposition party in Congress is illustrated afresh by the fact that the Democratic members of the Merchant Marine Committee could not agree upon a report regarding the Ship-Subsidy Bill. Three of the minority have gone so far over to the Republican side on this issue that they sustain the principle of the subsidy, and content themselves with pointing out some defects in its application. The rest of the Democratic committeemen, under the lead of Representative Fitzgerald of Boston, present a cogent argument against the whole policy, as unnecessary and indefensible at a time when there is a remarkable increase in our shipbuilding, and then show how the pending bill would not promote foreign commerce in any case, as the money would go chiefly to fast passenger steamers which carry little freight. One section, indeed, as has been pointed out in the *Evening Post*, would allow an owner to run an empty ship and still earn a full subsidy. Such a showing ought to be fatal to any scheme. The real hope of defeating the subsidy job, however, rests not so much upon the arguments which some of the Democratic committeemen have to present if the bill shall come to a vote, as upon the doubts of the Republican managers whether the party can stand such a load during the campaign.

The violent controversy now going on in the House of Representatives over oleomargarine illustrates the mischief of protectionism. The framers of the Constitution of the United States well knew what evil results had come from the jealousies of the different colonies, and wisely prohibited the States from levying duties on each other's products. Entire freedom of trade within the United States was thus secured, with most advantageous consequences. But, in an evil hour, the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce was invoked to suppress the use of a new article of food. The dairymen were induced to demand that Congress should impose a tax on oleomargarine—the agitation being promoted, as is generally believed, by an astute pork-packer who felt the competition—and that body weakly complied. The tax has not proved sufficient to accomplish the end in view, and it is now proposed to increase it to ten cents a pound on uncolored oleomargarine, and to authorize the State Governments to prohibit its importation altogether. The dangers of such legislation are very great. The number of substances which are colored, or otherwise treated so as to make their appearance attractive, is incalculable. Cotton goods are made to look like woollens; woollen goods are made to look like silks. Such processes are stigmatized as adulterations; but, as Mr. Gladstone showed, it would be a very serious matter to undertake to prevent adulteration. If Congress is to engage in this task, the whole trade of the country will be demoralized.

The hopelessness of reducing the pension payments of the United States is shown once more by the passage of the "Grand Army bill." Among other provisions, this bill contains a direction to the Pension Commissioner that he shall not refuse pensions to widows having an income not exceeding $250 a year. The limit had been previously fixed by the Pension Office at $90 a year, and a considerable increase in the roll will at once take place. An income of $250 a year does not appear large to well-to-do people, especially those who live in cities, but, considering the circumstances of the great mass of our population, it is practically sufficient for support. There are hundreds of thousands of laboring men who have to maintain themselves and their families on less than this, and they have to contribute their share of the taxes. Agricultural laborers as a class probably earn less than $250 a year on an average, and in the Southern States wages are below this figure. A host of widows maintain themselves on a smaller income without thinking of calling on the public for assistance, and it is impossible to ignore the fact that large numbers of young women have married old soldiers in order to secure pensions from the Government. One survivor of the war of 1812 was on the pension-rolls last June, but nearly 2,000 widows of these veterans are still on the lists. The war in the Philippines promises to furnish a formidable number of pensioners, the number of claims being estimated already at 25,000, and there seems to be no reason to expect that this generation will witness any decrease in its pension bill. Judging from experience, Congress will increase it at least as fast as natural causes diminish it.

One more nail in the coffin of the silver delusion was driven on Thursday in Colorado, where the Republican party showed itself practically reunited under the lead of Senator Wolcott. If Colorado is ready to acquiesce in the gold standard, what is there left for the silverites to cling to? It has been, of course, no theoretic consideration, but the compelling power of fact, which has cured the Colorado Republicans of their silver madness. Their State is more prosperous than ever. Even the silver-mining industry is not ruined. All the direful old prophecies of want stalking through the streets and blood up to the bridles have proved laughable failures. When Colorado went overwhelmingly for Bryan in 1896, it looked as if the Republicans could never recover it. Now they confidently hope to carry the State against him.

Kansas, which has at times had a superfluity of railroad regulation, now finds itself without any. The Supreme Court of that State has declared unconstitutional the "Court of Visitation" created by the Populist Government in 1897; and as that Government repealed the Railroad Commission law, the railroads are free to manage their business as they judge best—a condition of affairs which the community seems to contemplate with equanimity. The Court of Visitation was not needed except to carry out the anti-railroad policy of the Populists; it cost the State $40,000 for the extra session of the Legislature convened to create it, and its officers received $11,000 a year in salaries. One of the functions of this court was to charge the State with all costs incurred by complainants who failed to establish their charges against the railroads—a practice tending to encourage frivolous and malicious actions. The court, however, was enjoined from proceeding with its causes at a very early period in its existence, so that it has done little harm. The grounds on which the Supreme Court held it to be an unconstitutional tribunal, were that the Legislature had undertaken to endow it with administrative, judicial, and legislative powers. That separation of functions which is everywhere recognized in our Constitutional law, was in this case ignored. The decision of the Kansas Supreme Court removes nearly all trace of Populist rule from the statute-book, and the people of the State have apparently no disposition to commit their government again to the ignorant and unprincipled agitators who mismanaged it so shamefully.

The American voters in Hawaii, who cannot number more than a thousand, are evidently distracted with the difficulties which their new Constitution puts in the way of maintaining their supremacy. They are outnumbered many times by the natives, and also by the Portuguese, and they are anxiously appealing to the latter to take their part. The *Hawaiian Gazette* asserts that, as the Portuguese are more prosperous now than under the royal Government, they will of course support the American party; but our politicians know too well how ungrateful voters may be for prosperity. The *Gazette* also parades the calamity argument. Should the Royalists get control, it warns the Portuguese, the prosperity of the common people would go as suddenly as did Aladdin's palace. Capital would withdraw itself, land values would go down, stocks would depreciate, cheaper labor would struggle for fewer jobs, and classes fairly well-to-do would feel the coarse grind of poverty. It is an insult to the intelligence of the Portuguese, the *Gazette* concludes, to assume that they can be guilty of such political folly as to support a faction whose success would bring all these evils on the islands. Talk of this kind has a familiar sound in American ears, and we fear that Hawaiian politics will soon display the characteristics which make our own so wearisome and discouraging. Evidently the struggle for power will be extremely bitter, and it will be complicated, not with one race problem, but with two or three.

An ominous note is sounded by the *Gazette*, in the course of its appeal to the Portuguese. It tells them that, if they go with the aboriginal Royalists in opposition to their fellow-whites, they must expect to stand or fall with the Royalist party. "As such a reactionary outfit could not possibly stand alone, and would never be permitted to rule this country, whatever its voting majority might be, the result to the Portuguese is easy to forecast." But the *Gazette* has forgotten that Hawaii is now a territory of the United States, and that the opportunity for revolution has passed. If the white Americans wished to prevent the "voting majority" from ruling the country, they should not have called for annexation. They occupy a very different position from that of the whites in one of our Southern States. The latter can suppress the negro vote by constitutional measures; but the will of

Congress is supreme in Hawaii, and the "voting majority" there, whether Royalist or not, must rule until Congress enacts other laws—unless resort is had to bulldozing and the shotgun.

The conference on the race problem at Montgomery, Ala., last week gave a number of persons an opportunity of expressing their views. Some of them offered solutions which will never be adopted, like the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This measure, which was an indispensable checkmate to any attempt to reduce the freedmen to slavery or peonage, will never be repealed. It is based on a theory of equal rights which will never be perfectly realized, but which must always be maintained as an ideal in popular government. To repeal it would be to throw away the results of the civil war, bought with such a great price. It would imply that no negro, however virtuous and however intelligent, can be the equal of any white man. No doubt the attitude of the present Administration in the Philippines encourages some of the Southern white men to demand the repudiation of the Fifteenth Amendment. The mind of the country, one of them said, since the acquisition of the Philippines, is in a more favorable condition to consider such a proposition than ever before. That may be true; but the mind of the country is not yet made up.

The position taken at the conference by ex-Gov. MacCorkle of West Virginia was a lofty one. He declared that the constitutional exercise of the suffrage is the underlying principle of our system of republican government, any impairment of which is to be regarded as dangerous in tendency. He did not deny that grave political complications have arisen from giving the suffrage to the black people of the South; but he strongly opposed the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment. The solution of the race problem which he offered is entirely practicable. How can the people of the South remove their political complexities, give the negro the franchise, and at the same time not imperil their civilization? Let them adopt, he answered, an honest and inflexible educational and property basis, administered fairly for black and white. Such a system would appeal to the elements most needed in good citizenship, the desire for the acquisition of property and of education. Such a franchise would not subject the white people to the political domination of the negroes. The three States of the South in which the negro element is strongest are South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Were the suffrage restricted to those owning their own homes, the white voters of South Carolina would outnumber the colored two to one; of Mississippi nearly four to one; of Louisiana three and one-half to one. Nearly the same proportions would exist with an educational qualification. The real problem consists in the attitude of the white people of the South toward the negroes, and its solution is to be found in persuading them to accept the enlightened policy so eloquently urged by Gov. MacCorkle.

There is a furious competition between the parties to see which can express most "sympathy" for the Boers, but neither of them proposes to transmute sympathy into action. Even Mr. Bryan does not contend that he could do more than President McKinley has done —that is, come forward with good offices. No one outside bedlam could think of forcible intervention, or the threat of it. As far as any moral utterance by our Government is concerned, the blood of the Filipinos chokes us when we try to protest against the treatment of the Boers. Self-interest certainly commands us to keep hands off. Everybody knows this, yet the hollow and humbugging resolutions of sympathy continue to be offered and adopted. Even the Boer delegates must see that the whole thing is a sham. Intending to do nothing, it is folly to talk as though we meant to do something. Of Boer planks in any platform, we may say that, so far as they are not pure clap-trap, they are playing with fire, and are even, in Lowell's language, "a national scandal, and not merely so, but a national detriment, inasmuch as they serve to foster in foreign statesmen a profound misapprehension of the American people, and of the motives which influence them in questions of public policy."

The Primrose "Grand Habitation" has become a high day in the calendar of English Conservatives, and Lord Salisbury was but following precedent in delivering himself at the annual meeting of the Primrose League on Wednesday week. Founded primarily to combat Irish Home Rule, the League expects its speakers to denounce the idea of separate government for Ireland, and accordingly Lord Salisbury did it, pointing the old moral afresh with the new lesson from South Africa. Even his hearers, however, must have thought his hard words about the Irish exceedingly tactless and unhappy at the present juncture, with the Queen just returned from Ireland, and all the court and country overflowing with blandishments and wearing the shamrock. But Salisbury is noted for his "blazing indiscretions." Apart from his infelicitous references to the Irish, the British Premier's speech was a solemn, almost a gloomy, description of the burdens of Empire. England was without a friend. For the defence of her own she must depend, not upon the good will or friendly coöperation among other nations, but upon her own right arm and good sword. Her present military establishment was clearly inadequate. But what was his Lordship's remedy? The Primrose League must turn itself into a rifle club! Conscription would never do. The voters would not stand that. So let every nobleman and Primrose Dame learn how to handle a Lee-Metford. The truth is, that Lord Salisbury is shrinking before the responsibilities of Empire. He referred to Mr. Gladstone's unwillingness to assume Imperial burdens; he himself is held by a large element of his own party to be doing the same thing. There is a strong and pushing body of Conservative Forwards who openly demand conscription. They say, and they have the military authorities with them, that England has only been playing at Empire, in the military aspect. They point to Russia's army of nearly 1,000,000 men, on a peace footing, France's peace strength of 573,000, Germany's of 591,000, and they ask how long Great Britain, with a peace strength of only 248,000 men, can be expected to compete with such rivals.

Some interesting particulars concerning the precautionary financial measures for the relief of famine taken by the Indian Government are furnished by Mr. Clinton Dawkins, the retiring Finance Minister. A yearly grant "for famine relief and insurance" appears in the budget, having been introduced by Sir John Strachey in 1878. Taking the years from 1868 to 1878, he found that the expenditure for the relief of famine during the decade had amounted to 165,000,000 rupees. He regarded the period as somewhat abnormal, and concluded that 15,000,000 rupees per annum would be a proper allowance for such emergencies. That sum was therefore charged in the budget as an insurance fund, to be employed either in direct relief when famine occurred, or in irrigation works and railways intended to prevent famine and to facilitate relief. During the fifteen years preceding 1896, the amount expended in direct relief averaged only 300,000 rupees per annum, the remainder being devoted to "protective works." The famine commission in the seventies calculated that a net-work of 20,000 miles of railway would provide for the transportation of food to every part of India likely to suffer from famine, and these railways have now been constructed. It is claimed, also, that all has been accomplished in the construction of irrigation works that is likely to be efficacious. During the past financial year Burmah alone has sent 427,000 tons of rice for distribution throughout India by means of the railways. The real problem now is, according to the London *Times*, not how to get food in time to the famishing population, or even to provide further means of irrigation, but how to find work for people impoverished by crop failures.

THE POST-OFFICE SCANDAL IN HAVANA.

The Cubans are reported to be delighted at the evidence of American rascality in connection with the Cuban Post-office under American management. They can scarcely be blamed, so much have we lectured and patronized them on the subject of honest administration. Secretary Root boasted last December that the "collection and disbursement of the funds" in Cuba had been marked, under our rule, by a degree of "honesty wholly unknown in former administrations." And Postmaster-General Smith, in an article published only a fortnight ago, gloried (somewhat prematurely), in this very matter of the Cuban post-office, over "the substitution of American methods, with their energy, *integrity*, and thoroughness, for the old corrupt, uncertain, irresponsible administration." No wonder the Cubans are standing about with their tongues in their cheeks as they see the growing figures of the defalcation by American officials. Col. Bliss had lately to discharge a lot of Cuban employees in the Havana custom-house for dishonesty. American hands went up in horror. Would the natives never learn that offices were not to be sought for pickings and stealings? Well, it is now the turn of the Cubans to hold up their hands.

What has happened is the direct result of the men and methods employed. The Administration has simply violated the principles laid down by one of its own officers, and the disaster has naturally followed. Secretary Root declared in his annual report that wherever, in our insular government, "it is necessary to employ Americans, a system of civil-service examination should be provided." Now what was done in the appointment of these Havana suspects? The glib Postmaster-General described the system under which they were selected as one "without academic examination, but based on tried service and personal knowledge." But whose "personal knowledge" in the case of these two Indiana men—who, without previous postal experience, were given places in the Havana post-office, with the result that they are reported short in their accounts from $50,000 to $200,000? Why, the evidence seems clear that the First Assistant Postmaster-General was the man, and that Mr. Perry Heath was simply throwing a good thing into the hands of a friend and business associate. He laboriously explains, it is true, that it was only his brothers who were associated with the alleged defaulter; but Mr. Heath has some uncommonly convenient brothers. It was one of them who took stock in a New York bank, and brought about that mysterious transfer of the postal deposits which was maliciously commented upon last January. Mr. Heath, in fact, appears to be a little too openly desirous of turning the streams of McKinley prosperity into the family pocket. If it is true that he is the political sponsor of the men who have brought this stain upon the American name in Cuba, their decapitation ought to be accompanied by his own. He could still retain his position of Chairman of the Republican campaign committee "on literature," and continue sending out to the country press his beautiful tributes to the superior virtue of his party.

It may not have been feasible at first to put the Cuban postal service under the direction of the War Department. Mr. Smith says the work was turned over to the Post-office Department "by direction of the President." Then, to administer it, Hanna named one of his Ohio campaigners. When the political situation in Ohio was considered grave last fall, Rathbone was sent for in hot haste to come from Havana and save the imperilled policy of Expansion. The expenses of his trip, $2,000, were charged to the Cuban Treasury—thus illustrating, while helping to save, Expansion. At that very time the stealing was going on in Cuba. Beginning with last July the postal receipts were suddenly cut in half. This astonishing reduction continued for eight or nine months, but Rathbone and his auditors thought it the most natural thing in the world. Equally natural was it for him to charge the Cubans $15,000 to $20,000 a year for the support of so wonderful an official as he. All was of a piece. In addition to the stealing and overcharges, which lay on the face of the accounts, Rathbone and his coparceners appear to have been going into every speculative business venture that came their way. Both officially and privately, they were living up to the proud boast of McKinley's next friend, Congressman Grosvenor, that the Republican party was going to make every dollar it could out of the islands it had taken from Spain.

They did not proclaim from the housetops the existence of a great printing establishment in Muncie, Ind., which was unknown to the world till the stealing in the Cuban Post-office began to transpire. It was there all the time, but nobody knew of its special facilities for filling large Government contracts for blanks and stationery used in the Havana post-office. Of course, there can be no question of collusion or favoritism. It was only what Postmaster-General Smith calls "personal knowledge" that led Director Rathbone and Neely to give the big contracts to the Muncie firm. Personal knowledge and personal interest account for everything. People in the Indiana town are "surprised," the dispatches say, at the developments. They cannot understand the denial of the Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Heath, that he was responsible for Neely's appointment. In Muncie it was taken for granted that Neely got his job solely as "a close political friend of Heath." In fact, a puzzled Muncie man who was himself an applicant for a position in Cuba, is exhibiting a letter from Senator Hanna stating that his application must go to Perry S. Heath for endorsement. This is queer; the mixing up of the Heath family in the business is odd; the shortage of over $100,000 in Havana is mysterious. We tremble for the foundations of our Expansionists, who assured us that the spectacle of our pure and efficient public service in Cuba was going to react upon us and check corruption at home.

The revelations have come at a critical time. It cannot be denied that they cast a cloud of suspicion over our whole insular service. Why should the looting have been confined to the Havana post-office? People will suspect rottenness all along the line; and their fears will not be allayed by the unaccountable delays of the War Department in rendering a full accounting. Details of insular expenditure were requested of Secretary Root last January, by Senate resolution, but have not yet been furnished. Why not?

POPULISM IN THE SADDLE.

In 1896 the Democratic party nominated for President a man who was essentially a Populist, and adopted a platform which was largely a restatement of Populist views as these had been expressed by the People's party in 1892. Four years ago, however, the Democrats at least enjoyed the poor privilege of holding their convention first, and seeing the Populists accept a candidate whom they themselves had already named. This year Populism is in the saddle, and, by the action taken in its national convention at Sioux Falls on Thursday, it has put the historic old party in a position of absolute subordination to a nondescript organization of political odds and ends.

The Populist managers realized their advantage, and were merciless in the use of their power. The permanent chairman of the convention told the story of the organization and its successes in converting Democracy. Speaking of the Chicago convention of 1896, he declared, with entire truth, that "the spirit of Populism sat upon their throne and in their convention, and under the name of Democracy they commenced a contest for Populist principles, embodying in their platform nearly every one of the paramount issues that had been declared in the People's party platform of four years before." Recalling the fact that Alexanders and Cæsars, after their wars of triumph, led their most distinguished captives before the assembled rejoicing multitude, he said that, "if the People's party were to indulge in such a parade, they would have the right to lead in procession before the assembled people and the Government as the chief and great-

est captive the Democratic party and the platform they had adopted." The captive is far more helpless in 1900 than in 1896. Four years ago the Democrats could at least claim that they took the initiative in the matter. They nominated Bryan on the 10th of July, while the Populist convention did not meet until the 22d. This year the Democratic convention will not assemble until the 4th of July, while its predestined candidate for President stands already nominated by the Populists.

The spread-eagleism of nominating oratory was so thoroughly monopolized at Sioux Falls in May that the leavings will be stale by July at Kansas City. What so-called Democratic Senator can equal Senator Allen as eulogist when the Nebraska Populist has already pronounced Bryan "a statesman of ripe experience, a philosopher and orator without a peer on this or any other continent"; "clearly the greatest American citizen of the age"; "this magnificent man, this matchless statesman, hero, and orator"? Whence can there go to Kansas City any rival of "Cyclone" Davis, the unique product of Texas Populism, with his impassioned declaration that "we are ready to give Bryan our votes again; yea, more, we are ready to worship at his shrine, and give to him the hot blossoms of a noble surrender as the only hope, the only salvation of this nation"? And who will have the assurance to compete with Butler, the Populist Senator from North Carolina, in his glowing affirmation that "there are times when the human tongue can grow eloquent in painting the sterling growth of some great character whose virtues are not fully known to the world; but when the duty is devolved upon any man to attempt to express with human tongue anything to add to the greatness, the sterling worth of such a man as William J. Bryan, the human tongue is not equal to the task"?

The truth is, that there is nothing left for the Kansas City convention in this matter of a Presidential candidate except to say "Ditto." As regards a platform, the Populists have also saved the Democratic convention a good deal of trouble. Here is to be found the reaffirmation of the demand for free silver coinage, which was the cornerstone of the Chicago platform four years ago and has been reaffirmed in many Democratic State conventions during the last few weeks. Here, too, is a fresh plank which is sure of endorsement at Kansas City, denouncing the gold standard act recently passed by Congress as "the culmination of a long series of conspiracies." An anti-injunction resolution is ready for transfer bodily to the Democratic platform. Indeed, there are but few in the long list of principles which are not now "good Democratic doctrine," as such doctrine is interpreted by the new school of leaders.

One thing the Populist leaders might have forborne to do, but they would not. They were forcing the Democrats to accept their candidate for President. They were framing a platform which must be endorsed in its essential features at Kansas City. Should they name also a candidate for Vice-President, and try to deprive the Democratic convention of control over anything? There were men at Sioux Falls who inclined to the side of mercy. They favored the idea of making up a roll of statesmen, and allowing the Democrats the privilege of a choice among them. But the advocates of moderation were outvoted two to one, and ex-Congressman Towne of Minnesota was nominated for Vice-President. The Democrats can either take him or make themselves responsible for two tickets again—Bryan and Towne, and Bryan and ———.

It is an humiliating spectacle which is now presented by what was once the Democratic party. No longer a clearly defined and powerful opposition to the existing Administration, but, shorn of its old influence and claims to respect, it has become a mere tender to an organization which is in a pitiful minority, and which the country detests.

THE FUTURE OF THE IRON TRADE.

Every one knows, in a general way, that iron is the basis on which the modern industrial system rests. The uses of machinery are manifold, and machines are made of iron. Even in the production of iron, iron is indispensable, and the vast industry of transportation is carried on by iron mechanism. Very few persons not connected with the business, however, have more than a vague idea of the wonderful engineering skill which has brought the production of iron, especially in this country, to its present degree of perfection, or can form an opinion concerning the possibilities of the future. We are indebted to a correspondent of the London *Times* for a series of brilliant letters, entitled "American Engineering Competition," which present the whole situation in the clearest possible light, and enable us to form an intelligent opinion concerning the conditions which will determine international supremacy in this great industry.

For the successful making of pig-iron, there is need of coal, ore, and flux; and it used to be said that the supremacy of England would never be threatened, because of her natural advantages in the location of these materials. Ironstone, coal, and limestone are there found close together, and all near to the sea. Time has tested this argument, and weakened it. English coal has now to be raised from deeper levels, and English ores are inferior to many found elsewhere. It is no longer true that the ore used in English furnaces is found at hand. Nearly all that is now used in making Bessemer steel is brought from Spanish mines a thousand miles away. In 1898 there were produced in the United Kingdom 8,631,000 tons of pig-iron of all kinds, to make which nearly five and a half million tons of ore were imported. So far as English supremacy depends on the natural juxtaposition of raw materials, it is certainly no longer assured. It is now ten years since the production of pig-iron in the United States equalled that in England. Only fifteen years ago the English production was double our own; now ours is the greater by one-half. Our protective tariff long since closed this market to the English iron-masters, and our domestic demand has been so extensive as to absorb, until recently, the entire product of our furnaces. But it is now evident that we can produce more iron than is needed in this country, and our manufacturers are already entering markets which have drawn their supplies almost exclusively from Great Britain. The question which confronts the English iron-masters is whether the conditions of production in this country are such as to make our invasion of neutral markets a permanent danger. If our exports of iron should continue to increase at the present rate, the exports of England must decline.

That our exports of iron will continue to increase seems on many accounts probable. It is true that little ore is obtained in the Pittsburgh region, the great centre of the iron industry, and the distance of the furnaces from the Minnesota ore beds is about as great as that which the iron-makers of England have to contend with. Nevertheless, the prodigious improvements in the arts of mining and transporting ores have reduced the cost to an extremely moderate figure, and the equally wonderful development of machinery for the manipulation of coke, ore, and even molten iron has made the expense of the manufacture permanently low. The use of machinery, is, of course, as free to the English as to ourselves; but the alertness of our engineers in invention, and in the application of inventions, is hardly surpassable. Were governmental policy not involved, the race might be a fairly even one. The advantage which our manufacturers enjoy in the matter of coal might be offset by certain drawbacks in transportation, and by various hindrances of minor importance, which amount to a good deal in the aggregate. But governmental policy is involved, and it may be decisive.

For, as the correspondent of the *Times* was frankly told by our iron-masters, it is their fixed intention to make use of their tariff protection to compete not only in the neutral markets of the world, but also in the British home market. A prominent steel-maker, the head of one of the most important corporations in the country, recently declared that he would sell rails abroad at cost price sim-

ply to retain a hold on the market for use in duller times. It seems to be the intention of our manufacturers, when the reaction in trade comes, or when supply is in excess of demand, to keep up prices in this country by limiting the supply, and to apply the profits so made to forcing the export trade. The policy resembles that which has been sometimes adopted by our great railroads. In their struggles with one another they have carried through-freight at a loss, and obtained the sinews of war by keeping up their local rates, the natural conditions operating in the same way as a protective tariff. The alarm that is now said to exist in Germany over a possible outpour of low-priced American iron affords some confirmation of the existence of such intentions on the part of our manufacturers as the English observer reports.

The carrying out of such intentions would be in harmony with the doctrine of protection. The protective policy is intended to aid manufacturers by enabling them to charge higher prices to domestic consumers. They are of course at liberty to make use of these abnormal gains to sell their products at cost, or at less than cost, to foreign customers. The English iron-makers are defenceless. Their Government will not aid them by protective duties; our Government does so aid our iron-makers. Moreover, it is proposed to subsidize our shipping to such an extent as almost to enable our manufacturers to export iron without paying anything for ocean transportation. The problem of obtaining supremacy for American iron in the markets of the world thus becomes very simple. Assuming that our iron-makers can produce iron as cheaply as those of England, and assuming that our people will pay bounties on exports of iron, the conclusion follows that English producers will be undersold, both abroad and at home. They have no monopoly, either in their own country or elsewhere; our manufacturers have a monopoly of the home market, and propose to obtain one abroad by means of subsidies granted by the American people.

We may justly rejoice in the splendid engineering achievements of our iron-makers, not the least glorious of which is the introduction of machinery that relieves human beings of some of the most painful and dangerous forms of toil. We should also rejoice were they able without injustice to supply the markets of the world with their products. That would mean that the cost to mankind of the most essential article in modern industry was lessened by legitimate progress. But if supremacy in the iron markets of the world is to be won for our iron-masters by means of taxes paid by our own citizens, it would be simply deplorable. Such supremacy is precarious and unnatural, because it is unfair and unjust. The policy that promotes it is sure to arouse a retaliatory spirit in all countries except England, and, as the preferential duties of Canada show, the colonies of England are not governed by the principles of free trade. Such supremacy may flatter our national pride; but, as it will be paid for by taxation, it will be economically delusive and eventually disastrous.

STATUS OF AUSTRALIAN FEDERATION.

The South African war has had the curious effect of both dulling and intensifying the interest of the English people in the Australian Commonwealth bill, now before Parliament. But for the war, with its absorptions, the measure would have bulked larger in the public mind than it has; yet the war, with its extraordinary manifestations of colonial loyalty to the Empire, has made proud and interested attention to all colonial matters easier than ever before for the British press and Parliament. The Australian troops in South Africa have lent new distinction to the Australian delegates in London. Yet it was precisely the supposed lack of Imperial sentiment which made Mr. Morley think, fifteen years ago, that Australian Federation could not be brought about "for a very long time to come, if ever." "Is it possible to suppose," he asked in his review of Seeley's book on the expansion of England, "that the Canadian lumbermen and the Australian sheep-farmers will cheerfully become contributors to a Greater British Fund for keeping Basutos, Pondos, Zulus quiet to please the honorable gentlemen from South Africa?"

Not exactly this test, but one much more severe, has now been applied, and we have seen Australians contributing not only money but lives to the cause of Imperial supremacy in South Africa. It is, therefore, as well-approved and loyal children of the crown that the Australians now seek Imperial consent to their act of Federation. Why is it not spontaneously given? Why has the English Government so long kept back the bill, and at last introduced it in Parliament, as was done on Monday, with a refusal to accept one clause? It is because that clause seems to threaten Imperial unity and supremacy. The clause—No. 74 in the bill—is one restricting the right of appeal from the High Court of Australia to the Queen in Council. This restriction relates explicitly only to "any matter involving the interpretation of this Constitution, or the Constitution of a State"; but the right of the Australian Parliament is reserved further to limit appeals in the future. As explained by the Australian delegates, the thing comes down to this:

"Litigants in all existing Australian courts will in future have the choice of an appeal to the Privy Council, as now, or of an appeal to the High Court in Australia. If a litigant chooses the latter alternative, he will—with one exception—still have the right of appeal by leave (as in the case of Canada) from the Supreme Court in Australia to the Supreme Court of the Empire. The one exception relates to questions involving the interpretation of the Constitution. Even this exception is waived in cases where the public interests of some part of her Majesty's dominions other than the State or the Commonwealth are involved."

This certainly seems a very slight infringement upon the judicial prerogative of the crown; but the British Government scents danger in it, and, as Mr. Chamberlain explained in the Commons, feels compelled to ask the Australians to amend their bill in this particular. It is on this single point that the whole discussion hinges. The Australian delegates say that they cannot yield. They have no power to accept any amendment, they contend, and assert that, if any is insisted upon, the whole bill will have to be referred back to the people, with infinite trouble and the possibility that the labor of years will at last be thrown away. Dispatches from Melbourne seem to show that the various Australian Premiers, there in conference, are strongly against any amendment, and that the people are for "the bill, the whole bill." The Australian delegates also allege a grievance against Mr. Chamberlain. He, or at least the Colonial Office, was consulted about the objectionable clauses in advance of their adoption. After some modifications, he was understood to have given his assent to the form of clause 74 as it now stands. Why has he changed his mind? The whole Liberal party is willing to let the Australians have their way; why should the Conservatives hesitate in this time of universal gush about the Colonies and the Empire?

It was a ticklish position for Mr. Chamberlain, but he seems to have come out of it with his customary adroitness. While insisting upon the right of appeal to the Privy Council, he proposes to reconstitute the Council itself, by the addition of a generous colonial representation. Four new colonial Lords of Appeal—one each from Australia, Canada, South Africa, and India—will surely very much modify the opposition to amending the Australian bill so as to admit of the right of appeal in all cases. Indeed, the Australian Premiers were sounded in advance by Mr. Chamberlain, and telegraphed that while they still preferred the enactment of the bill as it stood, they could not deny that "the proposed new court will be attractive to people in Australia." In fact, Mr. Chamberlain appears very cleverly to have made out of his difficulty a triumph, sensibly advancing the idea of Imperial unity, at the same time that he, in fact, exercised the power of Imperial veto. And there may be more in his proposal than a compromise or bauble. It may, in the end, lead to a reform in the House of Lords. This was acutely forecasted by

Lord Rosebery in his speech at the dinner to the Australian delegates the other night, when he said that it would be a remarkable result of their mission if the "doors of reform in the House of Lords" were thrown open, and if "from this Commonwealth Bill of Australia there came a movement, unexpected by the Government or Parliament itself, that should, by the demand for a really Imperial tribunal, constitute a really Imperial Senate." Everybody knows, at any rate, that changes in the British Constitution are much more likely to be brought about in such indirect and silent ways than by root-and-branch methods.

In one way or another, and for good or ill, Australian Federation may be considered as now practically effected. It has been long in coming to birth. Earl Grey urged it as far back as 1849; Lord Derby suggested it in 1883; but it was not till 1889 that the movement was formally taken up by the Australians themselves under the lead of Sir Henry Parkes. Its ups and downs and trials and ultimate triumph are an oft-told tale. On the final vote, taking the five colonies together, the electors favoring Federation numbered 371,850, as against 137,400 opposing it. There can thus be no doubt that the change is desired by the Australian people. As for the statesmen who framed and finally carried through the bill, their competence for a difficult task has been proved, and may well be compared to that of the fathers of the American Federation, by whose labors the Australian Federalists confessedly profited, and by whose spirit they professed themselves inspired.

MARSHAL DE LUXEMBOURG.

PARIS, May 3, 1900.

The modern school of history, founded entirely upon the use of original documents, has many advantages, the principal of which is the search after truth independently of any transient theories. It has also some disadvantages: it deadens to a certain extent the critical sense of the writer; it leads also to the publication of works which become too long, too copious, as the writer is anxious to show all his documents to the reader. It is to this tendency that we owe the already long series of volumes which M. Frédéric Masson is publishing on Napoleon and his family. We all read the first volumes with eagerness, we continue to read every volume as it appears; but there is a limit even to curiosity, and it cannot be denied that the total disregard of condensation and abbreviation is sometimes resented by the reader.

The Duke d'Aumale took great pains to condense in a few volumes the innumerable documents which he had in his possession on the great Condé. He added to each volume a sometimes long appendix, in which the most important documents were published textually. The volumes of the History of the Princes of Condé were, besides, published separately, sometimes at long intervals; the public was not tired by them. The personality of the author, moreover, lent a peculiar interest to the work, and in some parts a peculiar charm, as the Duke was a stylist. He wrote the best of French, and some of his portraits remind one forcibly of Saint-Simon's famous portraits. The archives of Chantilly are very rich in documents of the times which preceded the first Revolution. M. Pierre de Ségur has used with success some few documents concerning the last of the Princesses of Condé. His researches in the archives induced him to go back to an earlier period, which is best represented at Chantilly, and he gives us to-day the result of his investigations in a volume entitled 'The Youth of Marshal de Luxembourg (1628-1668).' This is the first volume of a series which will cover the whole life of the famous marshal.

François de Montmorency-Boutteville, Marshal Duke of Luxembourg, was, in the latter part of his life, the most important state personage after the King. The éclat of his campaigns, says Saint-Simon, his bitter enemy, had given him great credit. "The Court had almost become his court, such was the assembly about him; and the town, dazzled by the *tourbillon* and by his open and popular ways, was devoted to him. People of all ranks thought they must pay court to him. He captivated the troops and the general officers." Nobody has, however, hitherto attempted to write a biography of this famous captain. His father perhaps left a deeper mark on the popular mind than he did himself, as he had a most tragic end. He was well known in his time as Boutteville the Duellist, and became a victim of what can only be called the folly of duelling under Louis XIII. After a number of duels, François de Montmorency-Boutteville, the father of the Marshal, had to fly to Brussels, to avoid being arrested; but he was so bold that, upon some new provocations, he returned to Paris and fought a duel in broad daylight on the Place Royale, which was then the fashionable centre of the town. According to the custom of the time, the seconds fought against each other. Bussy d'Amboise was killed. Another second was severely wounded. Boutteville and Des Chapelles, who killed Bussy d'Amboise, fled from Paris, but they were pursued by order of the King, finally arrested and taken to the Bastille. The Montmorency family and Madame de Boutteville interfered in vain. The King and Richelieu were inflexible, wishing to cure the French nobility of a habit which deprived them yearly of many brave officers. Boutteville and Chapelles were beheaded on the Place de Grève, and both died with the greatest bravery. Boutteville refused to have his eyes bandaged before offering his head to the executioner.

The Countess of Boutteville found herself a widow at the age of twenty; she was in the family way, and a son was born to her on January 8, 1628. She had already two daughters when she lost her husband; the elder was two years old, the second, Isabel, became later the famous Duchess de Châtillon. The children were brought up at Précy-sur-Oise, very near Chantilly, and a great intimacy sprang up between the two houses. Isabel inspired Gaspard de Coligny, grandson of the Admiral, with a great passion. The two families, the Montmorencys and the Châtillons, opposed their marriage, but Isabel eloped with Gaspard to Brussels, where they were married. Soon afterwards a reconciliation took place by the intervention of Mazarin. Young Boutteville showed from his boyhood a great love of pleasure and of war. Condé took him away from Paris, where he led a dissipated life, and Boutteville followed him, as his aide-de-camp, to Catalonia, and afterwards to Flanders. He distinguished himself at the great battle of Lens fought by Condé against the Spaniards. This victory, following that of Rocroy, made Condé, who was Boutteville's patron, the most important personage in the kingdom. In the troubles of the Fronde, Boutteville tied his fate to Condé. His sister, the Duchess de Châtillon, was one of the chief actors in the Fronde, a civil war in which love intrigues and complications had as great a part as political ambitions and interests. As for Boutteville, he was among the young, profligate, and brave participants who went under the name of the Petits-maîtres.

Condé at first took the royal side, and brought back to Paris the young King, who had been obliged to flee with his mother and with Mazarin to Saint-Germain; but the service which Condé rendered to the royal cause was so great that he became too powerful. He contrived in many ways to offend the Queen, he treated Mazarin with contempt. His arrest was secretly planned by Mazarin and the Queen. It took place in the Louvre, and Condé was sent to the Bastille. The fury of his friends was as great as their astonishment. Boutteville, always faithful to him, made many plans for the deliverance of his general. One of the wildest was the project of seizing as hostages the nieces of Mazarin. When all hope of delivering Condé had to be abandoned, Boutteville left Paris and retired to Précy. The Princess de Condé was at Chantilly, with Condé's mother. They were soon joined by the Duchess de Châtillon, "the cleverest woman in France," says Lenet, Condé's great confidant. Grave resolutions were taken at Chantilly, civil war was prepared for the deliverance of Mazarin's victim. Boutteville, the most ardent in the cause, was charged with recruiting soldiers; Mme. de Châtillon won over to the cause the Duke de Nemours, her lover, one of the most accomplished gentlemen of his time.

Mazarin became alarmed and sent troops by way of Saint-Denis towards Chantilly. All the inhabitants of the château fled secretly in various directions. Boutteville galloped away northward with some of his soldiers and joined Turenne at Stenay, a fortified little town on the Meuse which became the headquarters of the rebels of the time. For Turenne, owing to the passion which he felt for Madame de Longueville, had joined Mazarin's enemies and become an ally of the Spaniards. The campaign was short. Boutteville took a very brilliant part in it, and arrived with a troop of horse very near Vincennes, where Condé had been transported from the Bastille, and for a moment he hoped to deliver him. Such was the fear of the Court that Condé was secretly carried from Vincennes to a small fortress named Marcoussis, near Limours, in the apanage of the Duke d'Orléans. Turenne had determined to march on Vincennes, with the Spaniards; he had to change his plans when he heard the news. The only battle of the war took place before Rethel, and it was final. The Spaniards suffered a complete defeat. The wing led by Turenne had the advantage at first, but his success was of brief duration. The last phase of the battle was an utter rout; the royal troops

took four thousand prisoners. Turenne fled with a few men from the battle-field; it was the only occasion in his life when he was among rebels, and he swore to himself that he would never again join a rebellion. He became from that day the most loyal of men, and his brief acquaintance with the Spaniards inspired him with a desire to meet them as enemies.

After this short war, Condé was set free. His return to Paris was triumphal; but his reconciliation with the Court was not of long duration. Boutteville was very active in all the intrigues and movements of the time, as was also Mme. de Châtillon. The war soon broke out again. Condé made Boutteville Governor of a place which he had kept in Burgundy, of which province he was Governor and which he had just exchanged for Guyenne. The defence of Bellegarde against the royal troops was a very brilliant chapter in the military life of Boutteville. It is told at great length in his volume by M. de Ségur, who gives most interesting details about the condition of Burgundy during the civil war—the desolation of the province, divided into two parties, called the Frondeurs and the Albions. Why the latter name was given to the supporters of the royal cause, is not easy to explain. After the capitulation of Bellegarde, Boutteville sought Condé in Brussels. This city was the centre of the emigration which joined Condé. M. de Ségur tells us how Condé and the French émigrés spent their time while the armies went into winter quarters. Condé afterwards repented much the part he had taken, which had reduced him to be a mere tool of the Spaniards. The famous picture called "The Repentance," which is at Chantilly in the "Gallery of Battles," shows him tearing from the book of history the pages in which his campaigns were written. After the peace of the Pyrenees, Condé returned to Paris, and Boutteville reëntered the service under his orders. A new life began for them both. M. de Ségur will soon, we hope, give us in another volume the history of the glorious campaigns of Condé's lieutenant, who was called Luxembourg inasmuch as he had received the Duchy of Luxembourg in dower on marrying Mlle. de Clermont after the conclusion of the peace.

Correspondence.

LOOTING THE BOERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to the London morning papers, "several most interesting additions have been made to the collection of war relics from South Africa, now on view at the museum of the Royal United Service Institution at Whitehall." Among other things mentioned are "Cronje's Bible," lent by Sir Howard Vincent, and a golden coin bearing the profile of Krüger, which also belonged to the "ex-Boer General."

At first sight this statement strikes the plain outsider as "rather queer." It is necessary, in a hurry, to readjust one's idea of the *point d'honneur*, to say nothing of homespun honesty, and remember that, at the present time in England, "old Cronje" and his "dirty Boers" are esteemed "no better than niggers, anyway," which of course brings their personal property under the category of legitimate loot. We are all agreed, I suppose, that the nigger (name generic) can claim no right to any earthly possession outside his own skin—and precious lucky if he escapes with that.

Faithfully yours, M. Mather.

Brighton, England, May 1, 1900.

ECLIPSE OBSERVATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the approaching solar eclipse on May 28, will you permit me to call the attention of your readers to an interesting fact which may have escaped their notice? If one closely observes the light and shade upon the ground beneath a tree in full leaf, he will see that the light is composed of innumerable round discs which melt into one another and then come out clear and distinct as the wind moves the leaves. These are images of the sun upon the ground, the foliage of the tree acting as a camera, and in an eclipse they will show the presence of the shadow upon the sun's surface by losing the circular form. The progress of an eclipse can be followed in the simplest manner by watching the changes in these discs.

I might add that the reflection of the sun thrown by a round piece of glass shows the same phenomenon.

James Mascarene Hubbard.

Boston, May 10, 1900

Notes.

'Some Ideals in the Education of Women,' by Caroline Hazard, President of Wellesley College, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co., together with 'The Art of Optimism as Taught by Robert Browning,' an address by President Hyde of Bowdoin College.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s announcements include Zola's 'Fruitfulness,' and 'Herbert Spencer's Life and Works,' by Hector Macpherson, who writes by authority.

Shortly forthcoming from the Macmillan Co. are 'The Reign of Law: A Story of the Kentucky Hemp Fields,' by James Lane Allen; 'A Friend of Cæsar,' an historical novel by William Stearns Davis; 'Voices in the Night,' by Mrs. Flora Annie Steel; 'The Education of the Young in the Republic of Plato,' in Bernard Bosanquet's translation; 'The Biblical Theology of the New Testament,' by Prof. E. P. Gould; and 'Acetylene,' with profuse illustrations.

The medical publications of Cassell & Co., hitherto marketed in this country with American imprints, will hereafter bear their own.

A Life of Gen. Isaac Ingalls Stevens of the civil war, by his son, Gen. Hazard Stevens, will be published this month by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

For all it is a trade list, the 'First Editions of One Hundred Famous Books, from Homer to Tennyson,' issued by J. Pearson & Co., No. 5 Pall Mall Place, London, has first its bibliographical interest. But, besides, it is very prettily printed, and is illustrated with a number of facsimile and other illustrations, *e. g.*, from the Venice Euripides of 1503, the Terence of 1470-72, the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' of 1499, Fox's 'Book of Martyrs' (1559), Lafontaine's 'Fables Choisies' (1688), 'Robinson Crusoe' (1719), 'Vicar of Wakefield' (1766), De Lolme's 'Constitution of England' (1775), etc.

Boswell's Johnson makes a brave showing in the three-volume issue just added by Macmillan Company to their "Library of English Classics," than which few series combine fine appearance with cheapness of price so signally. The reprint is of Mr. Mowbray Morris's edition for the Macmillan's Globe series in 1893, which in turn followed the fourth edition (Malone's second), of 1804. The index fills fifty pages, and the letterpress is a delight to the eye.

The "Cambridge Edition" of Sir Walter Scott's Complete Poetical Works just added to their series by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., has been cared for by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. Chronology has been regarded in the arrangement, and superfluity avoided in editing the notes.

'The Mutiny on Board H. M. S. *Bounty*,' by Lieut. William Bligh, comes up for reprint more than a century after the occurrence described (M. F. Mansfield). Contemporaneous with the French Revolution of 1789, the mutiny has been as persistently kept in mind by English peoples, owing to the discovery of the mutineers who began life anew on Pitcairn's Island, in 1806. Any man past middle life may remember the *Bounty*, Caspar Hauser, and the excavations at Pompeii as staple topics for the "miscellany" column in periodicals, in an age less full of wonders and bustle than the present.

A second edition of Miss Sichel's 'Household of the Lafayettes' bears now the imprint of Macmillan instead of A. Constable & Co. We judge that none of the errors we pointed out in the historical portion has been corrected, since so obvious a one as "Barnavés" (for Barnave's) on p. 93 still stands. Opportunity has also been neglected greatly to improve the index. Here Barnave is again an example. We are referred to p. "85" instead of 83, and the mention of him on p. 93 is disregarded.

It is a sign of the increase in our own country and in England of serious study of the 'Divine Comedy' that such a work as Mr. Edmund Gardner's 'Dante's Ten Heavens' should come to a second edition within little more than a year of its first publication. "In this second edition, portions have been largely revised, but the work as a whole remains the same." We are glad to repeat the high opinion of the general worth and interest of the book which we expressed in noticing it on its first appearance. It is not a book to be read by itself, but as a comment with the poem in hand. Mr. Gardner's judgment and scholarship may both generally be trusted, and he has modified in his new edition some fanciful speculations in which he originally indulged. There still remain, however, a few passages which might be improved, as, for instance, the suggestion on p. 125 of "a mystically expressed prophecy of future discoveries and of men of science to come"; and on p. 267, where (following the majority, it is true, of commentators) Mr. Gardner speaks of the *pacifica oriafiamma* (Par. xxxi., 127) as "a title applied to Mary"—an interpretation which the context shows to be impossible. The least satisfactory portion of the book is the last chapter. It treats of Dante's Letters, including the Latin Eclogues, and has but slight connection with the main theme of the volume. Mr. Gardner has hardly given sufficient attention to the question of the authenticity of these writings. The external evidence concerning most of them is insufficient to establish their genuineness,

and the internal evidence is doubtful. A more thorough study than has hitherto been undertaken of the peculiarities of their diction and vocabulary is required. For this the Concordance of the Prose Works of Dante, which our Dante Society has in hand, is needed, and we learn with pleasure that the work on the Concordance is approaching its conclusion.

A fresh book by Mr. Gardner, which may be also cordially commended, has just appeared in the series of "Temple Primers" (Dent-Macmillan), with the simple title of 'Dante.' It is an intelligent and scholarly manual, and forms an excellent introduction to the study of the Life and Works of the poet.

Another book of interest to the students of the "Paradiso" is the little volume published in the series of the Temple Classics (Dent-Macmillan), containing, in handy compactness, the original text of this portion of the 'Divine Comedy,' a prose version of it by the Rev. P. H. Wicksteed, and notes by the translator and by Mr. H. Oelsner. Excellent arguments are prefixed to each canto; the notes are brief, intelligent, and generally trustworthy. The translation follows the original closely, but the translator not infrequently misrepresents the character of Dante's diction by the choice of a word too forcible, or too unusual, or too specific, as a rendering for the simple term of the original. For instance, he translates *levai lo capo più erto*, "I sloped up my head"; *si che raffigurar m'è più latino*, "more articulately I retraced thee"; *volando per l'aere*, "soaring through the welkin"; *come mia dall' un, se si conosce, il cinque e il sei*, "as ray forth from the monad, if it be known, the pentad and the sexad"; *in bozzachione*, "into cankered tubers." This tendency to reinforce the words leads in some cases to practical mistranslation. Spite of such defects, the little book deserves cordial commendation.

The second greatest sculptor of modern times, the true master and almost the equal of Michelangelo, who was born seven years after Donato's death—such is the subject of Hope Rea's 'Donatello,' the latest issue of the excellent series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The book is well up to the average of the series, clear and sound and sensible, and the illustrations and text give a good notion of the rugged and powerful genius, not without suavity upon occasion, which produced such masterpieces as the "St. George," the "Zuccone," and the earliest and finest of modern equestrian statues, the "Gattamelata." With regard to this last, we must protest against Miss Rea's statement that the gait of the horse represented is an "amble." It has been abundantly demonstrated that, in this statue, as in the "Colleone" of Verrocchio, the *walk* is represented with a truth never again reached in art until our own day. It is a small fault to find with her volume, and the only one we have to point out.

William Archer's translation of Ibsen's "When We Dead Awaken" may now be enjoyed in handy shape and in tasteful dress in Herbert S. Stone & Co.'s "Green Tree Library"—a name emblematic of "the new movement in literature," we are told.

Another volume has appeared of the translation of the Babylonian Talmud which is being issued by the New Talmud Publishing Co. It embraces the 'Pirqe Abhoth,' known to all beginners in Talmudic studies, and fittingly adds to that the two less generally known deutero-tractates on the conduct of life, the 'Derekh Erets Rabba' and the 'Derekh Erets Zuta.' Of the Rabba this appears to be the first rendering into any European language, and of the Zuta it is the first into English. As there is no Gemara to the 'Pirqe Abhoth,' either in the Babylonian or the Palestinian Talmud, the Tosephta known as the 'Abhoth of Rabbi Nathan' has been translated in its place. The text used of this last is not the one revised on manuscript authority by Taussig, but the old form as printed in the great editions of the Talmud. The reasons which the editors give for following the unrevised text are hardly satisfactory. The compilers, "during the construction period of the Talmud," may not have "sifted every manuscript with the utmost care," and may easily have made a mistake when they "rejected them as valueless." The value of this volume consists in the translations, in part somewhat free, of the two Derekh Erets tracts and of the 'Abhoth of Rabbi Nathan.' These throw much light upon the original Abhoth. All, too, who are interested in folk-lore and comparative wisdom will find matter here. Is not the following tale told also of corn "on the stalk"? "One of them, who was less sensible, took the whole piece and bit off a piece. Said Rabbi Aqiba to him: 'Not so, my son. Put thy foot on it in the dish, and then you will succeed better.' "

In 'Shall We Drink Wine? A Physician's Study of the Alcohol Question' (Milwaukee: Owen & Weihbrecht Co.), Dr. John Madden aims to give the evidence from an entirely judicial standpoint, but his deductions are those of an extremist, and are not free from prejudice. The chapter on "Food Value" must be specified as very misleading, for the premise of Dr. Madden's argument is based on most uncertain evidence (that of the action of alcohol on respiration), and his conclusion denying a nutritive worth to the drug is in opposition to the opinions of a large majority of competent observers. In fact, the unique position of alcohol in therapeutics, as food and medicine, has been little affected by hostile reasonings, although the drug is now given in smaller amounts and with markedly altered ideas as to its mode of action. Dr. Madden's detailed account of alcohol as a stimulant is of the utmost interest, forcibly presenting the modern belief (revolutionary to the layman) that the well-known effects commonly termed "stimulating" are hardly so at all in any true sense, being due almost entirely to blunting of the feeling of fatigue, and "paralysis of the critical judgment." In stating further that alcohol in health is never desirable, that it is a proved poison when taken continuously in so-called moderate amounts, and probably toxic even in very small amounts, and that the habitual drinker "never reaches the highest possible plane" of his capabilities, the author hardly exceeds his rights of logical deduction from the testimony set forth. Other parts of this work—on the far-reaching derangements of tissue and function in alcoholism, and on the legal and sociological aspects of the question—are strikingly suggestive, although the technical reader finds phrases sometimes inaccurate and often too dogmatic for his taste. Sound and pleasingly broad-minded is the discussion as to the means of modifying drinking habits and restricting the sale of liquor through educational principles. On the whole, there is much potential influence for good in the book, and it deserves wide reading.

'An Epitome of Human Histology,' by Arthur W. Weysse, A.M., Ph.D. (Longmans), does not pretend to be more than a categorical list of facts, for the use of students already familiar with microscopic anatomy by actual observation. As such the book seems suited to its purpose; it is clear, accurate, and reasonably full.

Some years ago, Paul Fredericq of the University of Ghent published, principally in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, a series of articles on the teaching of history in the English, Scotch, and Continental universites. Of these articles translations subsequently appeared in the Johns Hopkins University Studies. Prof. Fredericq has now added a detailed description of the origin of the "cours pratiques," or historical seminaries, in Belgium, of their development from 1874 until 1898, and has published the whole in a volume entitled 'L'Enseignement Supérieur de l'Histoire; Notes et Impressions de Voyage' (Paris: Félix Alcan). For the student of historical method, the article will possess scarcely less value than the others, although it lacks something of their charm, because it can offer none of those characteristic notes of the intimate professional life of such distinguished men as Waitz, Sybel, Treitschke, Wattenbach, and Monod, which are to be found in the earlier articles, notably those on Berlin, and on the Paris École des Chartes and École des Hautes Études. All the way through, it is Prof. Fredericq's aim to explain to what extent the seminary method of teaching and investigation had been introduced up to the time of his visit. This he takes to be the test of sound progress. His volume of essays—or rather his diary of observation, for he does not claim for his articles the dignity of the completed essay—is a suggestive introduction to the newer developments in higher historical teaching.

The governmental language schools in Seoul, of which J. Bolljahn writes in the *Deutsche Zeitschrift für ausländisches Unterrichtswesen* for April, will doubtless help to hasten the progress of Korea by widening the various avenues of intercourse with the more civilized nations of the earth. The Japanese school was opened as early as 1891, and was followed by the English in 1894, the French and the Russian in 1896, and the Chinese in 1897. The contributor to the *Zeitschrift* is the head of the German school, whose arrival in the capital in 1898 is mentioned in the consular report incorporated in the last report of the Commissioner of Education. In each of these institutions about sixty or seventy Koreans between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five are instructed by native teachers in the respective languages, and in a few other branches, such as arithmetic and geography. After completing the prescribed course, most of them are employed as interpreters or appointed to Government positions of some kind. The English school furnishes in the main the customs officers, while the students who have learned French are preferred in the postal service; these two administrative branches being under the management of Englishmen and Frenchmen respectively. Some other institutions, such as a military

academy, a medical school, and a teachers' seminary, have also been founded in recent years at the Korean capital, but their success seems still somewhat doubtful. On the other hand, the educational work carried on by the various missions is to be valued highly in a country where a general system of popular instruction is as yet not thought of.

The *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 42, reports that the learned world of Italy is considerably worried over the dangers that threaten the famous libraries of the country, especially the National Library at Florence, really the most important in the kingdom, because it is the only collection to which, by law, a copy of every publication in Italy must be sent. As is the case with all the state libraries, that of Florence has also lost one-fifth of its annual appropriation. A greater evil is the fact that it is housed in an unsafe building, and that this is packed from floor to ceiling. Recently it has shown signs of collapse. Should the threatened calamity occur, the loss would be incalculable, as the collection contains a great number of incunabula, about 18,000 manuscripts, and 23,000 volumes of musical publications. The city and the council of Florence have earnestly petitioned the Government to erect a new library building, but have met with a stubborn refusal. Recently Senator Pietro Brambillo, President of the Italian Bibliographical Society, addressed a public letter to the Ministry of Education on the matter. The appeal was reëchoed in the public journals; and in Parliament the Minister of Education, Manna, promised that something should be done.

The latest numbers of the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* have been particularly interesting. They contain articles on the Transvaal war, written, of course, from a neutral's point of view; on the historical novel in America, the modern press, the popular universities of Paris, and literary criticisms and reviews; besides the usual fiction, in complete stories and in instalments of longer novels. The *Revue Suisse* is a periodical to be recommended to Americans who desire an interesting, well-written magazine, wholly free from any objectionable features. It is published in Paris by Firmin-Didot & Cie.

Teheran and its neighborhood is the subject of the principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number three, in which are treated the physical features, climate, fauna, and people. The writer, A. F. Stahl, holds that the Parsees are the purest representatives of the original inhabitants. The European residents number between 150 and 200, and are mostly Government officials and connected with the telegraph. There is an excellent map on a large scale. An historical summary is also given of the different European relations with the little-known group of five islands lying near the northwest coast of New Guinea, variously known as Mapia, Bunai, St. David, and Freewill Islands. Their ownership has been disputed by Holland and Spain.

The foreign trade of China for 1899, according to a report published by order of the Inspector-General of Customs, showed an advance without precedent. The total trade was valued at $345,000,000, in round numbers—a rise of $69,000,000 on 1898, and more than double the figures for 1890. While the greatest relative increase is shown in the exports, the net value of the imports amounts to $42,000,000 more than the previous year. "The import of American and Japanese goods has shown the greatest development." Of the total tonnage of vessels engaged in this foreign trade, Great Britain contributed 59 per cent.; China, 24 per cent.; Japan, 7 per cent.; Germany, 5 per cent.; France, 2 per cent.; Sweden and Norway, 1 per cent.; Russia, 1 per cent.; and America, 1 per cent.

A new advocate for reform in Turkey has risen in Emin Arslan Effendi, the Consul-General in Brussels. Last year he sent to Abdul Hamid a detailed report of the sufferings of the peasants in certain of the richest provinces in the empire. He pointed out that, unable to bear the heavy burden of taxation and the arbitrary methods of the farmers of revenue, they were cutting down their trees, tearing up their vines, leaving their lands uncultivated, and even emigrating in vast numbers beyond the seas. America alone, he said, contained more than 100,000 Syrian emigrants, a third of whom were Mohammedans. "Never in the history of Islam has such a thing occurred." In this year's report he dwells upon the great numbers of high officials and their enormous salaries. There are in the army, for instance, forty-four marshals, and forty-six viziers with the rank of marshal, and there are eighty members of the Council of State—as many as in France and Germany put together. Mukhtar Pasha's salary is four times as large as Lord Cromer's, and the Grand Vizier receives twice as much as Lord Salisbury. But "as the majority of these high officials receive from the Treasury double and sometimes treble their salaries, the financial embarrassment of the empire is but natural."

—As interesting an article as any in *Harper's* for May is that on "Fifty Years of *Harper's Magazine*," by the anonymous editor. It is illustrated by portraits and a drawing by A. I. Keller. The fifty years have witnessed many changes; the times alter, and monthly magazines with them. Started, like so many other serial publications, as a tender to a publishing business, *Harper's* has developed a life of its own. Originally eclectic ("the cream of foreign periodical literature"), and with hardly any illustrations except a few fashion plates, it has come to live chiefly by and for American literature and pictorial art. The early success of the monthly as a distinctively literary enterprise—"the literature, be it remembered, being quite entirely English, and, while contemporaneous, having no special timeliness in an acutely journalistic sense—is notable, and reflects credit upon that generation of American readers." To-day, one great change is marked by the fact that, while formerly many magazine articles were made from books about to be published by the house, to-day the rule is reversed, and books are written to appear first serially in the magazine. This is, of course, the rule in the magazine world generally. Again, the personality of a writer counts for more than it did a quarter of a century since, the public apparently not so much caring for intrinsic merit (this is our own inference) as being curious to know what So-and-so, heard about everywhere, has to say. Articles are replaced by short stories, and to these the editor attaches an importance which our descendants will perhaps find unintelligible. Fiction has come to be looked upon as having a sort of primacy, with pictorial art as its handmaid. Of criticism there is at present hardly any—there never was much; and another point which the editor might have made is, that contentious subjects are always avoided, and consequently no one's feelings are hurt. This is, we believe, the rule in all modern magazines, so that, in this respect, the American magazine is at the opposite pole from the American newspaper, though in other respects "the journalistic motive dominates." "From a Winter Note-book," illustrated from photographs, by Rudyard Kipling, is a description of a New England (Brattleboro) winter, as seen and felt by a none too pleased observer. It is full of nice observation, but there is none of that love of New England which plays such a large part in the description of native writers. Without scope for violence, Kipling is not thoroughly himself, and his description of a blizzard is most characteristic. He connects the "New England conscience" with the New England winter, thinking that it is, at any rate in part, produced by too much cogitation, for which the long winter months afford time. Hate breeds, it seems, in the winter, as well as religion, and our observer fancies that the spring must be the New England season for murders and revivals. He is also evidently persuaded that tramps who beg in Vermont after dark are apt to be shot down. Like his description, his inferences are "temperamental." But to make the thing described, or painted, or told a little disagreeable is all in the taste of the day. Mr. Howells's poem, "Father and Mother: A Mystery," will repay reading—but not for the quality of its blank verse.

—"Art in Modern Bridges" is the subject of an article in the *Century* by Montgomery Schuyler; the illustrations by Harry Fenn. It is all the more readable and intelligible for the lay reader in that it is written by a lay writer. The authorities tell us, says Mr. Schuyler, that it was only in 1852 that "the first successful attempt was made to analyze correctly the stresses in a framed structure, and to proportion the members to resist the given external force." The world, accustomed for centuries to the arch, is only just beginning to get accustomed to the truss. The bridges which are acknowledged to be masterpieces of the world's architecture are in Europe, and belong to the pre-truss era. Hence all our sentiment, all our poetry, connected with ideas of bridges is sentiment and poetry of the arch. The United States, however, is a truss country, and we are of the engineering age, and, for the future, sentiment and poetry must cluster about engineering works, if the engineers will permit. Will they give the opportunity? In other words, is beauty to be recognized by them as an essential requirement of bridge-building, or are we and our descendants to be doomed to see the New World defaced by bridges which are monstrosities? It seems that, some twenty years ago, a German Commissioner appointed by his Government to inquire into the railway system of the United States reported that, "in America, public works are executed without reference to art." To judge by Mr. Schuyler's showing, we have made some progress since then; but he insists that we not only need specific protection against certain threatened erections, but a new

race of engineers who shall be the architects of a new and glorious and till recently undreamed-of art. A remarkable paper is contributed by Dr. Charles F. Thwing, President of Western Reserve University, called "Significant Ignorance about the Bible, as shown among College Students of Both Sexes." Wishing to get some idea of the extent to which familiarity with the contents of the Bible actually exists, he set for members of the freshman class an examination paper composed of extracts from Tennyson, each of which contained a Biblical allusion. The young men examined were thirty-four in number, about twenty years of age, born, with one exception, in this country, sons of lawyers, preachers, teachers, merchants, and farmers, coming from a part of the country supposed to be above the average in intelligence. The allusions were not at all recondite. The result showed that out of a possible 748 correct answers, only 328 were given; that of the thirty-four examinees nine did not know what the "crown of thorns" meant; that to eleven "as manna on my wilderness" was inexplicable; that to nineteen "Ruth among the fields of corn" conveyed no idea; while to eleven "marked me even as Cain" meant nothing, and for twenty-five "the Church on Peter's rock" was too hard. These are fair average illustrations of the exposure. Of course, the answers actually given were often very amusing. The girls did not do much better than the boys.

"Et vos creamini doctores—
O tempora, o mores!"

—*Scribner's* has an article on "Rapid Transit in New York," by William Barclay Parsons, Chief Engineer of the Commission, with illustrations drawn by Jules Guérin from the official plans. It gives the clearest idea of this great scheme of local underground transportation that we have met with; and the reader will find the plans in many respects novel. The design is of a structure "quite unlike the ordinarily accepted picture of an underground railroad." There will be applied to underground construction "the now familiar principles involved in the erection of the modern sky-scraper," in which the weight of the floors and the buildings themselves are borne by the steel frames, and the outer walls are nothing but "thin skins." The street is first torn up and excavated to an average depth of twenty feet. Then there will be spread upon the bottom of this ditch, or lower street, a solid floor of concrete, and on this floor will be erected at short intervals (about five feet) transversely to the street, frames of steel beams securely riveted together. These frames, which the engineer compares to the ribs of the human body, are to withstand the load above and the side pressure, "not by mere weight or brute force, but by scientifically utilizing the valuable properties of steel to resist bending and tension." The railway will be as near to the surface of the street as the roof will permit, and the subway will not be even suggestive of a tunnel; what it will look like is what it will be—a covered way. Sunlight will have full play in the stations, and as there are to be no smoke-producing motors, there will be no smoke or cinders. Of J. M. Barrie's continued novel, "Tommy and Grizel," it is almost impossible to speak with confidence in advance of its conclusion. If we were to hazard a criticism, it would be that the author overdoes his introspectiveness. The leading article in the number is "Some Picturesque Sides of the Paris Exposition: An Artist's Impressions," by E. C. Peixotto, with the writer's own drawings. All expositions are more or less alike; but this one has a feature of its own—of which (we speak from a vivid recollection of the impression made by the buildings even as they stood last year) Mr. Peixotto gives a faithful as well as an agreeable description—a bit of old Paris, reconstructed for the occasion. The Paris of the fifteenth century, for the time, lives again, with its old houses, its steep roofs, its towers, its pinnacles, its vanes, its shops, its narrow streets, its wonderful picturesqueness. It is inhabited, too, by French of the fifteenth century. If not worth a Mass, it certainly is worth going a good way to see.

—If Prof. Hugo Münsterberg's article on "School Reform" in the *Atlantic* cannot be answered effectively, something is radically wrong with our whole scheme of education. The indictment charges substantially that three of our years spent in education are wasted; that in Germany "the level of American high-school graduation" is attained at fifteen years, and the level of American average college graduation at eighteen or nineteen; that "time, which, with the teachers of to-day, is hardly efficient to bring a man through a good high school," would, with proper teaching and teachers, "be enough to give him a college education." The standard of comparison is that of the writer's own education, at Dantzig, where he was "a fair average" scholar. At fifteen, he and all his classmates were prepared to pass the entrance examination for Harvard. The explanation of this forwardness, that the German boy is overworked, the Professor emphatically repudiates, maintaining that in his own ten years of gymnasium life he had had plenty of time for exercise, for music, for "instructive games," private theatricals, excursions into the country, dancing lessons, and horse-back riding. Per contra, in *Science* of May 4, Prof. Bowditch's presidential address before the Congress of American Physicians and Surgeons on May 2 alleges that in some parts of Germany "schoolboys from eight to fifteen years have found their vital energy so far exhausted by the school work required of them that they have lost all inclination for vigorous athletic amusements." But Prof. Münsterberg not only makes the formidable charge of a waste of three whole years by the way; he attacks the elective features of our higher education, and insists that, according to German standards, specialization and variation is out of place before reaching a level corresponding with college graduation here. The moral of the article seems to be that if we would have good teaching, we must have an altogether higher standard for teachers—no one ought to be allowed to teach in a grammar school who has not worked after his college course at least two years in a graduate school; no one in a college "who has not taken his doctor's degree in one of the best universities." As a matter of fact, "only 2 per cent. of the school-teachers possess any degree whatever." We believe some parents maintain that our youth are so intrinsically superior to the German youth that they do not need so much education; but what we are most curious to know is what they think about it at Harvard.

—The first volume of the 'Scientific Results of the Norwegian North Polar Expedition,' edited by Nansen, has been issued by Longmans, Green & Co. It is a generous quarto of some 400 pages and 44 plates, besides numerous figures in the text. This series is intended to contain a complete account of the scientific results of the voyage of the *Fram*, and for years to come will probably remain the standard work on the North Polar basin. Each memoir will be complete in itself and separately paged, as well as furnished with a serial number by which it may be conveniently referred to. The whole work is expected to comprise five or six quarto volumes in the English language, which it is hoped may appear within about two years, closing with a complete summary of the scientific results of the expedition. The present volume contains five memoirs, preceded by the editor's introduction. The first paper is a description, with sectional diagrams, by Colin Archer, of the *Fram*. It is stated that a careful inspection of the vessel showed that she had sustained no injury whatever from the ice pressures to which she had been subjected, with the exception of one of the metallic fenders to the rudder which had been somewhat distorted. Dr. J. F. Pompeckj discusses very fully a collection of invertebrate fossils obtained by Nansen near Jackson's winter quarters at Cape Flora. These came from a clayey stratum below the basaltic layers of the cape, and prove to be of upper Jurassic age. A few plant remains from depressions in the upper surface of the basalt are discussed by Nathorst, who finds them also to be probably uppermost Jurassic, from which it is inferred that the lavas also are of Mesozoic age, though they had been suspected to be Tertiary. Robert Collett and Nansen treat of the birds observed, which, excluding those belonging to the Siberian coast, comprise only one land bird, the snowbird (*Plectrophenax nivalis*), the rest being gulls, auks, and other sea fowl, of which thirty species were taken or observed, the rarest and most interesting being the rosy gull.

—The last article is by G. O. Sars, who describes the crustacea, the majority of which are copepods, minute shrimps such as form the food of the whale and most of the sea fowl. The westerly drift from the Siberian coast carries quantities of minute algæ and diatoms, upon which the crustacea feed. They belong to the superficial stratum, moved by the prevalent winds. Prof. Sars, however, believes that the fauna of the deeper water is derived from the Atlantic inflow below the surface. Very few marine animals except crustacea were obtained; a tiny tomcod *(Gadus saida)* was the only fish observed in the high north. Among the crustacea it was a surprise to find, associated with strictly polar forms, several heretofore known only from the tropics, the Mediterranean, and even the Caspian Sea. The magnificent series of plates drawn by the author of this monograph will form a lasting testimony to the artistic as well as the scientific genius of the learned Norwegian naturalist.

—No other type of Greek literature so transformed itself as did comedy, and no other remained more truly Attic. From the exuberance and indecency of Aristophanes's political satires it is a far cry to the senti-

mentalism, the refinement, the character-study, and romance of Menander's comedy of manners. What the change was, and how it came about, we discern dimly from fragments; and even the fragments that we possess of the Middle and New Comedy are misleading, since they reach us in the quotations of an author who, writing as he was on the art of dining and all the accompaniments of a dinner, had an eye only for such passages as would illustrate his theme. So it is that Athenæus leaves one with the impression that the kitchen and the fish-market have become the setting and furnish the chief interest of Athenian comedy. Cooks and parasites were certainly in curious prominence on the later comic stage; but it is from the plays of Plautus and Terence, which in several cases were direct adaptations from Greek originals, that we realize how much we have lost, and how little Athenæus gave us, for all his copiousness. The fragments of Greek comedy are not easily accessible to any but the scholar who has the use of a good library, since the German editions of Kock and Meineke are too unwieldy and expensive for the book-shelves of the ordinary student. Mr. Pickard-Cambridge has therefore done a real service to classical students in publishing (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde) his 'Select Fragments of the Greek Comic Poets,' a little book of some 200 pages, with short notes and biographical notices. He gives in this brief compass the most important fragments of the comic poets from Susarion to Menander, and his book will doubtless be welcome to many students who might otherwise limit their acquaintance with Greek comedy to Aristophanes. The notes, as might be expected from a Fellow of Balliol, are scholarly and sufficient, and the selection is well made.

—In the *Journal de St. Pétersbourg* for April 12 ("Chronique Parisienne"), Mr. Léo Claretie expresses much concern at the sort of lecturers drawn to Harvard by the Cercle Français. They are, so far, he says, orators with a very positive religious and political complexion, who represent at home the Catholic and reactionary party, and must convey the impression that France is stiffly ultramontane. The mischief is twofold: Americans are deceived as to the French spirit, and (there is something in this) the lecturers are deceived by their own bias, and report very untruthfully upon the state of Catholicism in this country. In other words, says M. Claretie, the representatives of a French minority are invited to cross the ocean, only to exaggerate on their return the importance of an American minority. Hence, a mutual revulsion of the real majority in both countries, instead of a *rapprochement*. What M. Claretie takes no account of is that the members of the Cercle Français and of similar bodies in other colleges can judge for themselves, and that their knowledge of France is by no means confined to the lecturers who, for one or another intellectual quality, are solicited to address them. To *see* famous men, of whatever shade of opinion or party affiliation, is always a corrective of reputation, and of impressions derived from reading alone. Nor can the lecturers fail to acquire new and juster ideas concerning the moral and material character of our civilization.

MASPERO'S PASSING OF THE EMPIRES.

The Passing of the Empires, 850 B. C. to 330 B. C. By G. Maspero. Edited by A. H. Sayce. Translated by M. L. McClure. With maps, three colored plates, and numerous illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1900.

This is the final volume of Maspero's monumental 'History of the Ancient Peoples of the Classic East.' The first volume, entitled, in the English translation, 'The Dawn of Civilization,' published in 1894, covered the period from the commencement of our knowledge of man in Egypt and Chaldea down to the first centuries of the second millennium B. C. The second volume, 'The Struggle of the Nations,' published in 1897, carried down the history of Egypt, Syria, and Assyria a little more than a thousand years, to the commencement of the ninth century B. C. The present volume deals with the next five hundred years, to the conquest of Asia by Alexander. Each of these three volumes is published separately, and indexed separately, but the three constitute a consecutive history of the rise of civilization in hither Asia and its development until Asia gave place to Europe. The two main centres from which this civilization was derived were Egypt and Chaldea, and until the close of the period treated in the present volume they were the most potent elements in the advance and the spread of civilization. From time to time, in the early periods, Elam conquers Babylonia, but it is Babylonia which is the real and constant factor in the advance of civilization, and not Elam. Similarly Egypt succumbs, from time to time, to outside forces, only finally to incorporate these forces into its own life, and reach, with its influence, a still wider sphere. Out of Chaldea grows Assyria, out of Egypt grows Ethiopia. Assyria and Ethiopia fall, but Chaldea and Egypt remain. They are the sources from which the force of civilization emanates.

This volume opens with the revival of Assyrian power under Ashur-nazir-pal (885-860), and Shalmaneser III. (commonly known as Shalmaneser II.), and the struggles for Syria. New races come into the field of vision. Armenia plays an important part, and for a brief period the kingdom of Urartu is in force superior to Assyria. Later, Media rises; we meet the Cimmerians and Scythians, and the kingdom of Lydia is developed in Asia Minor. Then Assyria falls before the Medes, and the Medes and the Lydians in their turn go down before the Persians, and the conquerors themselves succumb to the influence of Babylon. In this volume we have the record of a struggle of 500 years, which is bringing the nations of hither Asia, including Egypt, constantly closer together, and destroying their separate national life, until at last they are united in one great power, the Persian. But amalgamation is as yet by no means complete. Nominally all are subject to the one great central power. Practically that power is weak and its provinces are semi-independent and disintegrated. The world is worn out with its struggles, the nations of hither Asia are ready to submit to any one who demands their submission. At this juncture Alexander steps in, overthrows, with apparently insignificant means, the whole colossal fabric of the Persian power, and establishes in its place an empire still vaster. Here the book closes.

It is impossible to criticise in any detail a work of such colossal proportions and so comprehensive in its material. This volume contains over eight hundred large, demi-quarto pages, many of which are crowded with footnotes in fine print, giving references to the literature of the subject, and occasionally arguments in support of the positions advanced. The research and learning which have gone to the making of the whole work are beyond praise. Probably no other living man could have given us such a synchronous survey of the field of civilization. But the book is, after all, rather a collection of materials than a finished history. This volume is a work of reference, to which one may go for any given period between 850 and 330 B.C., sure that he will find valuable material. Read as a whole, it is confusing. One must skip from place to place, from Assyria to Egypt, and from Egypt to Armenia, from Armenia to Elam, and from Elam to Lydia. Probably it is the fault of the events themselves that it seems to the reader as though the same thing were being told over and over again. The same cities and countries revolt and are subdued in the same manner repeatedly. It is only by comparing the beginning, middle, and end of the book with one another that one can realize that there is progress and development.

It is interesting to compare our present knowledge of the ancient civilized world of Asia, as shown in Prof. Maspero's great work, with the ideas of scholars of sixty years ago. The great discoveries in archæology have all been made within the last sixty years—that is to say, it is only during that period, and for the most part during the latter half of that period, that we have been able to use, for historical purposes, the records of the past as contained in the inscriptions. From Egypt and Babylonia we now have a vast mass of inscriptions which enable us to restore the very details of the life of the people from an extremely early period. For purposes of political history the inscriptions of Assyria and Persia are more valuable, though still leaving something to be desired. A few inscriptions have been found in northern Syria, Armenia, and elsewhere, but our knowledge of the history of these regions depends, for the most part, on the statements made in Assyrian inscriptions. For Media we are still dependent principally, and for Lydia practically altogether, on the accounts of the Greek historians. This difference in the sources makes itself felt in the history. As one reads Maspero's account of the rise and fall of the Lydian empire, and its relations to Assyria, it is evident that facts are mixed with legends. We could wish that Maspero had himself made this plainer. Owing to the lack of original sources, the parts of this volume which deal with Media and Lydia are greatly inferior to the rest.

For the history of Syria, and for sidelights on the course of history in general, good use is made of the Old Testament, which is treated precisely like other documents. On the whole, Maspero's use of the Hebrew Scriptures is sound—if anything, he is a little hypercritical; thus, for example, in the famous story of the invasion of Sennacherib, he does not, in our judgment, give the Hebrew record its true value. As a sign of progress, it is worthy of note that the Literature Committee of the S. P. C. K., by whom this work is given to the English pub-

lic, has not deemed it necessary to make any changes because of the supposed theological squeamishness of English readers. The text has been presented without change, except by the author's written permission, and the committee merely publishes a note to say "that they do not take upon themselves to pronounce on the conclusions in the field of Biblical criticism deduced by the author from the events and documents discussed." Even in the case of citations from the Bible, where Maspero has used an amended text, his translation is retained, the revised version being given in a footnote for reference.

The translation, by Miss McClure, seems to be thoroughly well done, so far as one can judge from a reading of the English only. The illustrations, which are very numerous—four hundred, or over—are admirably executed, and drawn from the most varied sources. The maps are not such as one would expect in a volume of this monumental character. The chapters are of inordinate length, averaging over one hundred pages each. The book could have been made easier to use by reducing the size of the chapters and providing them with fuller headings. The index, also, is slight for such a volume. Maspero's references to literature in the footnotes are so numerous and so full that it seems a pity that the volume should not have been provided with something in the nature of a bibliographical index. There is a brief preface by Prof. Sayce, in which he makes reference to the archæological work now going on in various places, and especially to the valuable discoveries of De Morgan in Egypt and Elam. We have noticed also a few brief footnotes by him in the body of the volume.

Of errors we have observed very few. On page 31, "The country of the Sukhi and the Lagi" is said to lie to the *east* instead of to the *west* of Assyria, and in the following line *northwest* is substituted for *northeast*. On page 699, in a footnote, one of the Sidon sarcophagi is described as being in the "Museum of St. Irene." It is a great many years since the few antiquities once stored in the old church of St. Irene in Constantinople were removed to other quarters, and a real museum, open to the public, created in Chinili Kiosk. This particular sarcophagus was never at St. Irene, but has, since it was unpacked, stood in the new museum building erected by the present Sultan in 1890.

We commend the volume as one which ought to be in the library of every Oriental scholar who can afford it. It is a work of reference, invaluable in the present state of our knowledge.

KEANE'S EVOLUTION OF MAN.

Man Past and Present. By A. H. Keane, F.R.G.S., etc., etc. [The Cambridge Geographical Series.] Macmillan. 1899.

Man, according to our author, is specifically one, though not necessarily sprung from a single pair. In all probability he originated in the Indo-Malaysian intertropical lands and in what are geologically known as lower pliocene times. Even at this early period, he had so far progressed as to be able to fashion rude stone implements; and if we may judge from the remains found by Dr. Dubois in east Java, he was about five feet six inches high, and had a cranial capacity of about 1,000 c.c., "which is midway between the gorilla and a modern European, and is not greatly inferior to that often occurring among the lowest present races (Australians, Bushmen, etc.)"; to which we may add the ancient Peruvians.

From this Indo-Malaysian region, which at that time formed part of the Asiatic mainland, he made his way over the earth, moving in rude hordes, "like other migrating faunas, along the lines of least resistance, advancing or receding, and acting generally on blind impulse rather than of any set purpose." These wanderings took place in what is archæologically termed the palæolithic or Old Stone Age, prior to the development of all cultural appliances beyond the ability to wield a club or chip primitive stone implements, and when man himself was but little if any differentiated. Hence it is that we find everywhere, at this time, such a sameness in the works of man and in man himself as to preclude the possibility of classification. Changes, however, were always going on during this immensely long period; and while in some regions they were so slight as to be scarcely perceptible, yet in others "they were at a rate of progress in the arts that, in some respects, was never afterwards surpassed." With this advancement in culture that of the physical man, so (p. 10) we are told, "must have gone on hand in hand, and hence it seems a reasonable assumption to suppose that even before the close of the palæolithic times all the great divisions of mankind"—Negro, Mongol, American, and Caucasian—"had already been specialized in their several geographical areas."

This, in brief, is our author's theory as to the way in which the world was peopled. It is supposed to have been brought about by a process of natural selection (p. 13), and although its accomplishment necessitates, among a number of other doubtful postulates, the resurrection (pp. 6, 353, 450) of several submerged continents or pathways, yet, on the other hand, it furnishes a good working hypothesis as to the origin and dispersal of early man over the globe, and to this extent it is accepted. For the same reason and in like degree, we are ready to admit what is told of the subsequent evolution of the different varieties of the race in their respective zones of specialization. Much of this occurred in the post-pleistocene epoch, or its archæological equivalent the New Stone Age, and was brought about by the fresh settlements and readjustments of population that were always going on. Continual infiltrations, too, and intermixtures of neighboring peoples must have had more or less effect, so that we can well understand how it was that these agencies, "acting through five-score millenniums," and reinforced, as they were, by the powerful influences that came with the differing environments, must have resulted in the production of a number of specialized human varieties that diverged widely from the original types.

Following these two periods of development, we have, successively, the ages of bronze and iron. To these our author adds a third—the age of copper—which preceded the others, and, possibly, "was not of long duration, except of course in the New World." He even tells us (p. 19) that "we know for certain" *(sic)* that such an age was developed in the region of the Great Lakes. This, we need not say, will be news to most American archæologists, though, after all, it is, perhaps, a matter of definition rather than of fact. We may, however, remark in passing that if our author's contention on this point be allowed, we shall also have to admit the existence, east of the Mississippi and at about this same time, of a shell age; for there can be no doubt that the number of uses to which this material was put was greater than was that of copper, that it was generally employed over a wider extent of country, and that, compared with the implements and ornaments of stone, the percentage of articles made from it was much larger. However, be this as it may, it is not a point on which we care to insist. Suffice it to say that, divide this period, as we may, into two or three "ages," the march of improvement went on through all of them, and that with the incoming iron age there was such a development "of physical and mental characters, usages, religion, speech, cultural features, history, and geographical range," as to furnish bases or "elements" for classifying the different varieties to which humanity had given birth. In a word, we are at the beginning of the historic epoch.

Into this period, except in a very general way, we do not propose to follow our author, for the reason that we do not believe that it is possible, in the present state of our knowledge, to frame a satisfactory system of classification. Take, for example, the plan here outlined, and while it is probable that (p. 34) "whenever two or more groups are found agreeing in all, or at least the more essential" elements, they are branches of the same stock, yet it might lead to serious error if we were to assume that this is invariably the case. Indeed, so far is this from being true that there are many ethnologists who contend that all such conclusions are premature, and that they must remain so, until there is some agreement as to which elements are essential, or whether, and this is far more likely, there are any that can be so considered.

That there is an obvious physical difference between a blonde Caucasian (Teuton our author calls this stock) from the north of Europe and a typical negro, provided one can be found, is evident; and if all mankind were divided into whites and blacks and the whites were all Caucasians and the blacks all negroes, it would be easy to effect a classification upon the basis of color. But suppose that, instead of a blonde Caucasian, with his monotheistic ideas and high culture, we take his black (pp. 441 *et seq.*) fetish-worshipping racial brother from Gallaland, Africa, and how are we to differentiate him from those of his negro neighbors, who are also black, who worship fetishes, eat their fellow-men, and resemble him far more closely than he does his kinsman from the north of Europe? Evidently, here is a case in which color and culture fail to furnish satisfactory bases for classification; and without going into details, it is probably safe to say that shape of skull, hair, language, and any and all of the other so-called elements would prove equally disappointing if subjected to a similar test. What we want and what is necessary to a system of classification is the possession, in common, of some attribute or characteristic that will enable us to say of any given group of people that it belongs to this or that grand division, and that it cannot belong to

any of the others. When this is found, and we meet with two or three more groups in possession of this particular characteristic, it will be time enough to assert that they are branches of one stock. But until then, the attempt to classify mankind in groups, even within the broad limits laid down by our author, must inevitably fail, for, as Powell has truly said, "there is no science of ethnology."

Aside from the want of success that has hitherto attended our efforts in this direction, there is another and a very serious obstacle in our way arising from the fact that so many, we had almost said all, of the fundamental problems of ethnology are still open to debate. The theory, for instance, held by our author, that "man is specifically one" is so far from being of general acceptance that there is a large and influential school of investigators who deny it altogether, and insist that what are here termed varieties are true species, and that each one had a separate origin. So, too, in regard to the grand divisions of mankind, which are here limited to four, though according to other biologists they number all the way from two to sixty and perhaps more. Even our author finds it convenient to supplement his estimate of four by the addition of a number of subtypes, and these might have been indefinitely increased with advantage to his system of classification. Without stopping to inquire into the truth or falsity of any of these theories, we may be permitted to observe that they lie at the root of the racial question, and that within their respective limits they are antagonistic. As none has been shown to be true, it follows that the conclusions which each carries in its train are no stronger than are the propositions upon which they depend, and hence it would seem as if the search for tests of racial affinity or diversity must, often, resolve itself into a mere study of probabilities. Indeed, this is practically admitted (p. 444) so far as the Caucasian peoples are concerned; and that it is equally true of the others is a fair inference from the frequency with which the terms "possible," "probable," and other similar qualifications occur in the course of the investigation into their respective attributes and acquirements. This is unfortunate, but it is believed to be unavoidable, and, in calling attention to it, our object has not been to reflect upon the manner in which the subject is treated, but to emphasize the fact that all attempts, hitherto made, to classify the race in groups have failed.

Being thus forewarned, it is possible, in dealing with this work, to do full justice to the research displayed in the collection of material, and to the skill the author has shown in developing his lines of argument. With many of his conclusions, even when his premises are a trifle shaky, we are in full sympathy; and though he is, at times, too complacent in assuming that certain problems have been elsewhere settled, yet in the main his obvious purpose is to deal fairly with his readers. That we have not always been able to accept him at his own valuation is, we think, due to the inherent uncertainties of the case, and possibly also, in part, to our inability "to see below the surface"; some such gift, we are told (p. 448), being necessary to enable us "to sweep into one category Europeans, North Africans, West Asiatics, Iranians, and others all the way to the Indo-Gangetic plains and uplands," and far beyond, "whose complexity presents every shade of color, except yellow, from white to the deepest brown or even black."

GASQUET'S EVE OF THE REFORMATION.

The Eve of the Reformation: Studies in the Religious Life and Thought of the English People in the Period preceding the Rejection of the Roman Jurisdiction by Henry VIII. By Francis Aidan Gasquet, D.D., O.S.B. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Putnams. 1899.

Under the above title Dr. Gasquet, known to scholars chiefly by his book on Henry VIII. and the English monasteries, has grouped a series of "studies" upon various aspects of the English Reformation. "Studies" is an attractive but misleading word. One studies in order to learn something; but that has not been the purpose of Dr. Gasquet's investigations. He knew beforehand all that was necessary for him to know, and he has studied only to find illustrations of a thesis with which he starts. He is avowedly a disciple of Janssen, whom he quotes at length and whom he describes as "the historian of Germany" for his period. His method, which is the same as that of his master, was bound to be applied sooner or later to this phase of the Reformation, as it has been already with so much effect in other directions. It consists in laying down certain propositions and then supporting them by contemporary evidence, carefully selecting such as bear in the desired direction, and ignoring all that might seem to weaken the case. An essential feature is also the apparently frank admission of certain errors and weaknesses on one's own side, and of a certain proportion of good intention on the side of the opponent. Such a method aims to disarm criticism at the outset. It would produce its effects by an appeal to the sense of fairness and of logical sequence.

In this general description may fairly be included the volume before us. Its thesis is the same as that which underlies the work of Janssen, Pastor, and the rest—that the period immediately preceding the Reformation was, on the whole, one of the most progressive, enlightened, happy, pious, virtuous, prosperous, and altogether satisfactory periods in human history. Some little blemishes there were—priests were occasionally wicked or overbearing; not all ideas were suffered to have their full and immediate expansion; certain restrictions upon human liberty are to be noted—but these were only such limitations as are inevitable in human society, and were rapidly becoming less obtrusive under the gentle sway of the Church, which had always striven against them. The Reformation was the work of men as fanatical as they were wicked, and only served to set back by several generations the advance of humanity in true enlightenment and in the solid bases of a virtuous social life. It was at once a crime and a blunder.

Applying this thesis to England, Dr. Gasquet assumes that the Reformation there had practically no roots in English soil. To be sure, there had been a little disturbance by certain wicked persons in the previous century under the leadership of one Wiclif, but with the death of Cobham in 1417 this annoyance had ceased. Lollardry had disappeared, and the English people had returned to its wonted state of satisfaction with the Roman administration. All of a sudden there came to disturb this idyllic condition two quite external causes, one the desire of King Henry to get rid of his wife, and the other the subtle, corrupting influence of German Lutheranism. These were sufficient, if we could believe Dr. Gasquet, to account for the complete and permanent rejection of the papal system by the English people, and by every branch that has gone forth from the English stock!

We have no intention to analyze the arguments of this book. One does not need books to tell us that in any period of controversy a vast array of evidence can be produced on any side. The question is only as to the use to be made of this evidence, and its relevancy to the real questions at issue. In each of his twelve chapters Dr. Gasquet presents a new aspect of his general proposition. Beginning with the Revival of Learning, he devotes some space to proving that the phrase "New Learning" meant in England not the revival of classical study, but the imported theology of the Germans. The real revival of learning was in full swing under the fostering care of the Church and of churchmen, who were in full sympathy with it so long as it kept itself within the bounds of what we have learned from Dr. Gasquet's German colleagues to call the "true," or "Christian," as distinguished from the "false," or "heathen," Renaissance—in other words, so long as learning was not applied to criticism of the institutions they are bound to defend. As to the conflict of jurisdictions, moderate men on both sides were aiming at a reasonable adjustment between jurisdiction over things temporal and things spiritual. Had it not been for political reasons and the influence of foreign sectaries, England might have escaped the Reformation and got on as beautifully with Rome as did Spain, Naples, and France.

Against the Roman system Dr. Gasquet finds no traces of any real hostility in the period in question. What would he say of the attitude of Saxony under Frederick the Wise up to the moment when Luther revealed to the German people the essential fallacy of the whole papal position? The earlier "disagreements and quarrels" were only misunderstandings as to the limits of spiritual and temporal dominion, but did not concern the essential fact that England fully acknowledged the spiritual headship of the See of Rome. A weapon has been put into Dr. Gasquet's hand here by the puerile efforts of Anglican writers to show that England was never really under the papal control. His error and theirs is in fancying that there was, down to the Reformation, any essential difference either way between England and the Continental nations in this respect.

Hostility against the clergy as such we are told, on the unquestioned authority of Thomas More, was, in England, a thing absolutely new—so new that we may date it as almost precisely contemporary with the incoming of the Lutheran views. Here, as in the preceding chapter, we are referred to a purely literary controversy between More on the one hand and Christopher St. German, another lawyer, on the other, as sufficient evidence of the excellence of the English priesthood when it is supported by the pious exhortations of William de Melton.

Erasmus is given a chapter to himself, as one of the foremost witnesses to the learning and character of the English clergy in the pre-Reformation period. Our author may be forgiven his use of Erasmus, since he only follows the example of every predecessor in selecting from the voluminous writings of the man what suits his purpose, without any critical inquiry as to its meaning or value. To prove anything by Erasmus is as easy and as foolish as to prove it by texts of Scripture. A descriptive chapter on the "Lutheran Invasion" elaborates the notion that any slight discontent in England was with reference to temporal, rather than spiritual, questions, and carefully obscures the fact that precisely this mingling of temporal and spiritual was the very essence of the sin of Rome.

The obvious intention of the chapter on the English Bible is to leave the impression on the reader that the Church desired nothing more then, as it had always done, than to place the vernacular Bible in the hands of every one. Its only anxiety was that the translation should be "accurate." Its complaint against Tyndale was, not that he had translated the Bible, but that he had made so many errors in his translation. Nor was this quite all—to err is human—but Tyndale's errors had been made with intention to carry heretical ideas. Even More, who, we are told, ought to know the meaning of evidence, objected to Tyndale's errors that, while the errors of Erasmus were made by a man sound in his doctrines, those of Tyndale, even when they were identical with those of Erasmus, deserved condemnation because they were the work of a heretic. This circular reasoning suits Dr. Gasquet for a similar reason, because it is performed by a man otherwise of sound mind. The real animus of his argument here appears in his condemnation of all commentaries not emanating from authority, and here, of course, we touch the gist of the matter. The Church must always oppose the open vernacular Bible, because the open Bible must lead to private interpretation, and therein the triumph of Protestantism is assured.

In speaking of Teaching and Preaching, Dr. Gasquet aims to correct the common error, that the pre-Reformation Church had neglected these parts of its function, and unduly emphasized its sacramental character. On the contrary, we have books of instruction for private devotion which prove that the Church did not neglect teaching, and Thomas More defends the use of images and saint-worship, which proves that the people were not at all given to superstition, but saw through the sign and the ceremony to the spiritual significance behind it.

The purpose of the last four chapters upon Parish Life; Pre-Reformation Guild Life; Mediæval Wills, Chantries, and Obits; Pilgrimages and Relics, seems to be to show that there was in England, on the eve of the Reformation, a deal of religious activity, manifesting itself in many forms. Especially we are given illustrations of endowments for charity, including a provision for the soul of the donor. We are indebted to Dr. Gasquet for all the detail he has gathered on these points. We wish he had gathered a great deal more, for the historian can use every such contribution and asks nothing better. It is only with the conclusion drawn by the author that we are in total disagreement. This very activity in religious life, so far as it went, was one of the essential sources of the Protestant movement everywhere. Life cannot spring out of death, and the elements of new, forward-looking life for the nation were all most abundantly present in those countries which threw off the system of Rome. It is easy to point, as Gasquet and all his school are glad to do, to the confusion of the Reformation period; its comparative indifference to æsthetic development; its religious wars; its doctrinal excesses; its bigotries and its persecutions; but that is a narrow and unhistorical judgment of the Reformation, condemned by every chapter of the history of the modern peoples. We welcome this book and all its kind, for the service they do in showing the irreconcilableness of the issue between the Roman principle and everything the modern world has come to value and respect.

Chopin: The Man and his Music. By James Huneker. Scribners. Pp. 415.

Many of those who read Mr. Huneker's chapter on "The Greater Chopin" in his diverting and suggestive volume entitled 'Mezzotints in Modern Music,' must have hoped that he might find time and inclination to write a whole volume on that composer, who has gradually come to hold in the piano world the same commanding position that Wagner does in the field of opera. The hoped-for volume is now in existence, and will at once take its place in the front rank of books on its subject. It is divided into two parts, the first giving a sketch of Chopin's life, personality, and style, under five heads: "Poland: Youthful Ideals"; "Paris: in the Maelstrom"; "England, Scotland, and Père la Chaise"; "The Artist"; "Poet and Psychologist"; while the second part analyzes in detail the studies, preludes, impromptus, and valses, nocturnes, ballads, sonatas, polonaises, and mazurkas of the great Polish composer.

Although the list of publications bearing on Chopin is already considerable, as Mr. Huneker's six bibliographic pages show, a volume just like his was much needed; that is, a book which will serve as a Baedeker to the treasures of Chopin's art. Prof. Niecks, it is true, analyzes these compositions in still greater detail than Mr. Huneker does, but he is so erratic in his judgments that true Chopinists must regret that he ever undertook to write a standard work on their idol. Mr. Huneker has a much keener instinct for what is best in Chopin. In his 'Mezzotints,' indeed, he went too far in extolling the deeper and less-known works at the expense of the more familiar ones; but his new volume avoids this error, and no pianist, amateur or professional, can rise from the perusal of his pages without a deeper appreciation of the new forms of beauty which Chopin has added, like so many species of orchids, to the musical flora of the nineteenth century.

As a rule, Mr. Huneker's judgments are refreshingly original or unconventional. Only once does he permit himself to parrot the traditional talk of pedants in his remarks on the Chopin sonata, which, as he says, "has caused almost as much warfare as the Wagner music drama." The attitude he takes in charging Chopin with "failure" is the less comprehensible inasmuch as he himself remarks: "Come, let us confess, and in the open air: there is a great amount of hypocrisy and cant in the matter." The charge that there is no organic unity between the movements of a Chopin sonata is quite true; but the same is true of the sonatas of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven; and why Chopin should always be held responsible for the shortcomings of an imperfect and artificial form of composition which he only employed casually, while the real culprits, who sinned in it against organic art all their lives, are allowed to escape, is one of those mysteries of musical criticism which baffle explanation, and should perhaps be regarded simply from a humorous point of view. Mr. Huneker is noted for his keen wit and genial humor, which often enliven his pages; but in this instance he surely nods. Here, and in his remarks on Chopin's chamber music (which, in the opinion of the present writer, is more *interesting* than Beethoven's), he might have benefited by absorbing the wisdom of Dr. J. Schucht's remarks in his little book on Chopin (pp. 64-66), a book to which he refers only once, though there is more to be learned from it regarding the true inwardness of Chopin than from the voluminous Niecks.

The most entertaining pages of Mr. Huneker's new book are naturally the first 135, in which he gives a condensed, yet anything but dry or encyclopædic, sketch of Chopin's life. There is much that is uncertain in regard to the facts of that life, and Mr. Huneker has once more sifted the evidence regarding them carefully, so that his dictum may be considered as the last word. He justly takes every opportunity to emphasize the manliness of Chopin, who has so often been represented as effeminate. He did, indeed, lack the brusque manners of a Handel or a Beethoven. He was a gentleman, in every sense of the word; he shrank from coarseness, and his careful attention to clothes and canes was simply an expression of his general fastidiousness. Mr. Huneker defends him against the charge of cowardice because he did not renounce his artistic ambitions and rush to Poland to fight for his country. He preferred to "put his patriotism, his wrath, and his heroism into his Polonaises; that is why we have them now instead of Chopin having been the target of some black-browed Russian." "He had the warrior in him, even if his mailed fist was seldom used. There are moments when he discards gloves and soft phrases, and deals blows that reverberate with formidable clangor." "He had dark moments when the keyboard was too small, his ideas too big for utterance."

While not without sympathy with the feminine side of Chopin's genius, as revealed in the capricious mazurkas, the dainty valses, and the dreamy nocturnes, Mr. Huneker loves most to dwell on the manly side of his art, too, as reflected in the études, the polonaises, the ballads, and the scherzos. The masterly chapter of 74 pages on the études will soon be found indispensable by all teachers and students of the pianoforte. It embodies the results not only of Mr. Huneker's personal studies (he has been for years a teacher as well as a journalist and critic), but of the painstaking investigations of eminent foreign editors of Chopin, notably Klindworth, Bülow, Kullak, and Riemann. In these studies Chopin "fused the technical problem with the poetic idea"; they are "poems

fit for Parnassus, yet they also serve a very useful purpose in pedagogy." "In the years to come, the Chopin studies will be played for their music, without any thought of their technical problems." Mr. Huneker might have added that even now there are more frequent demands in concert-halls for repetitions of the études than of any other pieces by the same composer.

Style is a thing one does not usually expect in books on musical topics, but Mr. Huneker writes with a pen that knows how to clothe even well-known facts in words that make them seem new. It is this quality, and the constant references to other arts and contemporary literature, that make the musical books of Mr. Huneker, who seems to be an omnivorous reader, attractive to others besides musicians. Once in a while he uses a word—like Riemann's dreadful, though useful, "agogic"—which he ought to take pains to explain.

Quaker Campaigns in Peace and War. By William Jones. With eleven illustrations. London: Headley Brothers. 1899. Pp. xiv, 412.

Turning from the unreal, unnecessary books with which our tables are sometimes crowded, it is refreshing to take up a volume such as this, not altogether artistically put together, not written in the best trained literary style, not always well balanced, but instinct with human interest. It recounts the main experiences of a life, now aged seventy-four, commenced as a Quaker Welsh-speaking lad in a primitive Denbighshire village, leading on, in manhood, to association in the projects of Stephenson and the Peases in early railway industrial development in England, and in the world-wide Quaker philanthropy of those days. Mr. Jones was one of the Commissioners sent by the Society of Friends to distribute relief in France in 1870-'71. He managed sulphur mines in Sicily. Again, he was engaged in missions of mercy in Bulgaria after the massacres. Few non-combatants were ever afforded better opportunities for realizing the horrors of war. The impressions and convictions so formed led to his devoting much of his later life to the cause of peace and arbitration. The latter half of the book, not so interesting as the first portion, is principally devoted to the author's travels in Australasia and America in such capacity. We are afforded many interesting relations of intercourse with important personages—Stephenson, William E. Foster, the Peases, Cardinals Manning and Antonelli; Prince Bismarck and other German notabilities; John Bright, O. W. Holmes, Whittier, President Cleveland, and many others. A conversation with Antonelli in the Vatican, on Quaker theory and practice, is one of the most interesting episodes related in the book.

Did space permit we might quote passages by the dozen. How the military operations of the past few years and of the present sink into comparative insignificance before the 19,000 that fell at Gravelotte within a few hours! Mr. Jones and his brother Commissioners had many hairbreadth escapes, yet, upon the whole, our wonder is how they managed to live and move about amid the shock of contending armies and the unutterable horrors of the time and untold sufferings to man and beast. His certificate or passport authorization, of which we are given a facsimile, is indeed a curiosity in its way—sufficient in itself to establish the merit of any collection of autographs. The simplicity is to be excused with which he relates his efforts to add to its value by fresh additions. We cannot but long to know whether the identity and name have ever been established of the young American doctor who at Metz devoted himself to the thousands of "black-typhus" cases, who succumbed, and who, like those he sought to serve, died untended, and was, like them, huddled into a pit of quicklime. Memory of the almost incredible Bulgarian atrocities is refreshed as we follow our author's footsteps. We stand appalled at the responsibility of the nations which then barred the extension of Russian power, and which later failed to make good their engagements concerning the Armenians, who never would have suffered as they did had Russia's hands not then been stayed.

The preface to this book is dated May of last year. The latter pages are full of hope and assurance consequent on the Czar's peace proposals. "By the overtaxed and conscripted victims of militarism, as by every lover of peace, this 'olive branch from the Neva' was hailed as a boon fraught with untold blessings." How little did the author then realize that, before many months had passed, the statesmanship of his own country would lead to one of the bloodiest of wars since 1870-'71, and that the passions of his countrymen would be so aroused that the preaching of peace and arbitration would be, as was abolition with us forty years ago, stigmatized, even by a religious journal, as dangerous "as firing off a pistol in a public thoroughfare," and that many of his own coreligionists would be for war to the bitter end.

It were to be wished that all the illustrations in this interesting volume were as good as the vignette portrait of the author.

History of Ancient Philosophy. By W. Windelband. Authorized translation, from the second German edition, by Herbert Ernest Cushman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. 8vo, pp. 393.

A manual of the history of Greek philosophy in one volume, rather large than small, but not redoubtable in bulk, by giving as much upon this subject as nine out of ten intellectual persons care to read (unless it be Plato and parts of Aristotle, with dippings into later writers) may, in view of the extent to which it will be used, be a more important publication than if it were larger. At any rate, greater care is incumbent upon the reviewer, since many of its readers will be less able to judge of its merits unaided. Here, then, is a judicious work, on most points up to date, whose author does not plume himself so much on brilliant theories that set all the evidence at defiance, as upon giving a clear insight into the development of ancient philosophy according to the best established opinions of to-day. As for those *teretesmata* so universally found in German books, he is rather fond of transfixing them with the pins of good sense. This feature makes the book enjoyable, and worth consulting even by those who are *au fait* in the controversies. In short, if there is another compendious manual of ancient philosophy in any language as illuminative and trustworthy as this, we have not the advantage of acquaintance with it.

The faults of Windelband's presentation are not trifling; but the worst of them are common to all works that are based on the modern critical treatment of ancient history—the method that has received so many hard knocks from archæology. In the first place, notwithstanding what has been just said of the *relative* merits of this history, it does not always escape being drawn into the common German fault of discarding all the premises in our possession in favor of what the critic is disposed to think likely. We note one place where this tendency is betrayed by a single word. Speaking of the simple propositions in geometry that the Greeks attributed to Thales, he says:

"It may be safely concluded in every instance that these elementary propositions were generally known to the Greeks of his time."

Concluded? A conclusion requires premises; but such premises are altogether in default. Windelband would more accurately have said *guessed*. There seems to be an ineradicable confusion in the minds of German philosophers and critics between what is concluded and what is guessed. In the present instance, our own guess, founded on psychological considerations (without which we would refuse even to guess), would be the opposite of Windelband's, and it would be backed up by positive tradition, which, without being at all conclusive, is certainly worth more than nothing. It is very true that upon most points in the history of Greek philosophy, more especially before Socrates (but often later, too), the testimony is open to so much suspicion that if we accept it we may be morally sure we shall often be led into error. But when a conclusion to which all the premises converge is, nevertheless, open to grave doubt, the situation cannot be mended by reversing that conclusion. Uncertainty is simply unavoidable in such cases; and we may as well make up our minds at the outset that the only way to escape being often deceived about the history of ancient philosophy is to abandon the study of it altogether. "This is not demonstrated," is the laughable phrase that is perpetually running from the tongues and pens of modern critics. Do they imagine, then, that any of their dicta about ancient philosophy *are* demonstrated? A large proportion of them are pet hobbies which nobody but their authors ever accepted; and perhaps half of the rest are things which it has become the fashion in the universities to assert without any ratiocinative process whatsoever—sheer guesses, like the above about Thales.

For the pre-Socratic philosophy, Aristotle's authority is so all-important that it is impossible to discuss it intelligently until his status has been settled, and the doubts that are rife concerning the authenticity of what some scholars are fond of calling "the so-called Aristotelian writings" have been duly weighed. Windelband does not half inform the reader upon what those doubts are grounded, while he shows that he is not free from the fault that we have been criticising by calling the positive affirmations of Strabo (partly confirmed by Athenæus) to the effect that Aristotle's original manuscripts lay *perdus* in a cellar for a century and a half—by calling these positive assertions "a very venturesome theory." But there is a part of the story, so much as happens to suit him, that Windelband accepts. Again, he denies that the "Parme-

nides," "Sophistes," and "Politicus" were written by Plato, contrary to his usual respect for the testimony of Aristotle even regarding matters remote from his purview, though really one does not see why he should respect that testimony, if it consists of an aggregation of irresponsible glosses, as the theory is. As for the stylometric proofs, strong as iron, of the authenticity of the three dialogues, they smack so much of archæology as to put a "higher critic" quite out of sorts at their mere mention. While Windelband rejects the three dialogues as spurious, he is inclined to accept their testimony (if such it can be called) as to Parmenides and Socrates having had a discussion.

We have used so much space in setting forth this complaint against Windelband, that we can only just indicate several others. An effect, perhaps, of the German professors' habit of using a hundred words to disguise an idea that might have been precisely expressed in ten, is that Dr. Windelband, instead of endeavoring to carry the reader back to the naïve thoughts of the ancients, sometimes reports the ancients as expressing opinions about questions of modern philosophy. He also, like other historians, is given to reading into ancient philosophy a degree of consecutiveness and consistency which there is not only no satisfactory evidence for, but which is contrary to such evidence as we possess. Thus, he rejects the three dialogues of Plato just mentioned because they are contrary to the doctrine of ideas contained in the 'Republic,' etc., although Aristotle and others inform us that Plato changed his mind on that subject. Finally, we may justly complain that though this book has now been before the public for eleven years, some of its most singular positions have never yet been fully argued out by the author, anywhere.

The translation is authorized; but it need not therefore be correct. In many places correct it cannot be, if the author had any meaning at all. Here are a few random examples of what one finds in numbers on every page: "The Pythagoreans seem to be the first independently to discover the spherical shape of the earth" (p. 23). "There were men, otherwise favorably conditioned in life, who took a direct and immediate interest in knowledge" (p. 25). This "otherwise" is not English. Read: "Men in good circumstances, too." "The fact that a cloud of myths should thicken from century to century around him, makes it necessary to go back to the oldest accounts" (p. 29). What should this "should" mean?

Of course, such phrases as "He was born as the son of Mnesarchus," and "Here was still a more motley mixture," patter upon us like rain. Inverted sentences, tempests of conjunctions and phrases having the force (or forcelessness) of conjunctions, *ifs* used in place of *although*, *ifs* within *ifs*, *all the mores*, *just thereins*, come upon us topsy-turvy in a way to make the perusal like trying to study while suffering from seasickness, such uncontrollable nausea does the unwonted tilting and pitching of the sentences produce. If the publishers had set their foot down about this matter, they might have done Dr. Cushman and his readers a signal service. We can only wish now that something may happen to the plates, because the book is one which is destined to be in use for a long time.

Psychologie du Socialisme. Par Gustave Le Bon. Paris: Félix Alcan. 1899.

The Psychology of Socialism. By Gustave Le Bon. Macmillan. 1899.

The manner in which M. Le Bon presents his theories is interesting, and even fascinating. He delights in generalizations of the broadest kind, and supports them with most effective illustrations. At his best, he suggests De Tocqueville, and many of his observations are of epigrammatic brilliancy. They are penetrating, too, but we cannot regard the author's insight as profound. He can hardly be described as a philosopher, in spite of his philosophical generalizations and oracular utterances. His references to American affairs show such carelessness or ignorance as to make us distrust his other inferences. He says, "It would never enter an American's mind to require the state to establish railways, ports, universities, etc." Yet there is so much truth in his theories, and they are so engagingly presented, as to captivate the reader.

When we try to analyze the political philosophy which characterizes these essays, we find it comparatively simple. It suggests the doctrine of the fixity of species. The Latin peoples, in M. Le Bon's view, are incapable of self-government. They possess little "initiative." They are not self-reliant, and it is immaterial what name they give their government; for, no matter what they call it, it is always despotic. The French have had centralization bred into them for so many generations that it has become a part of their constitution, or nature. A society, M. Le Bon says, with its institutions, its beliefs, and its arts, represents a tissue of ideas, sentiments, customs, and modes of thought determined by heredity, the cohesion of which constitutes its strength. Such a product cannot be refashioned in accordance with the theories of philosophers. This truth, however, is not appreciated by the writers or the peoples of the Latin states. As in the time of the Revolution, it is believed to-day that governments may be renovated by changing their constitutions. It is on a belief of this kind that socialism rests. It is a kind of religion, or perhaps rather a substitute for religion. It offers hope through better material conditions to those who have ceased to think of better spiritual conditions. It is impracticable, but it is none the less dangerous.

For the great power of such beliefs, M. LeBon contends, lies in the fact that their propagation is independent of the proportion of truth or error that they may contain. When a belief "has gained a lodging in the minds of men, its absurdity no longer appears; reason cannot reach it, and only time can impair it." Socialism, which is substituting itself for the ancient faith, has but a low ideal, to establish which it appeals to the base sentiments of envy and hatred. Nevertheless, it stands to many for reform and progress; it holds out hopes of comfort and happiness. Hence it is probably destined to exercise an even greater influence than at present, although it will not be long before it is abandoned in disappointment. The conditions of existence have improved in modern times, but dissatisfaction with them has increased. The modern man, despoiled of religion, attaches himself eagerly to the present, the only reality he can seize. "Interested only in himself, he wishes at all costs to rejoice in the present hour, of whose brevity he is so sensible. In default of his lost illusions he must enjoy well-being and consequently riches." Since riches do not fall to him, he thinks that he should have a share of what fortune has given to others, and regards all large accumulations of property as iniquitous. Hence it is evident that the fundamental principle of Socialism is to have something done for the man dissatisfied with his condition. He is not to help himself, but to be helped; and as the Latin peoples have long since learned to look to the Government for everything, they find Socialism a perfectly natural and consistent creed.

M. LeBon is most successful when he describes particular classes, such as the Parisian workingmen, and the "Demi-Savants and Doctrinaires." Somewhat inconsistently, from our point of view, he is an enthusiastic supporter of the army, and violently assails those who criticise it. He affords in this way an illustration of his own doctrine of the survival of ancestral beliefs and feelings, for his criticisms of the Government of France apply as much to military as to civil institutions. These criticisms are extremely severe, and there is evidence enough from other sources to make us believe them well founded. Not only the French, but the Latin peoples in general, are paying for the errors of the past. The Inquisition extirpated the elements of progress in Spain, and the expulsion of the Huguenots from France is one of the most potent causes of her present decay. Her population is stationary, and it is maintained by the selection of the most inferior types. It is one of M. LeBon's pet theories that the worth of a nation depends on the number of remarkable men it produces, and France now produces few, and can produce few, under her present institutions. She is strong in intelligence, but weak in energy and character, and the destinies of such nations fall into the hands of their governments. "Reducing to a minimum the source of energy and initiative which the individual must possess to conduct his life, and freeing him from all responsibilty, Collectivism seems for these reasons well adapted to the needs of nations whose will, energy, and initiative have progressively decayed."

It is difficult to convey a just idea of M. Le Bon's arguments, but we may say of them that they are impressive even if not free from fallacy. He reminds us often of Mr. Mallock, among English writers, and his attitude towards social problems is similar. We have marked many passages for quotation, but the book is so suggestive and so entertaining that it deserves to be read as a whole, and we commend it to all who desire to understand not merely the psychology of Socialism, but also the character and tendency of modern political movements in Europe.

We close with a single reflection. Is it possible that the paternal conception of a state, common to all except very modern communities, can have so imposed itself upon the Latin races that they alone cannot grasp the rival idea of individualism, and of the state as an agency? Individualism we may have in our blood; but certainly half our ideas of political freedom were derived from France, and it is difficult to believe that a nursery of political freedom should be inevitably doomed to become the stronghold of

economical and social slavery. We can hardly resist the conclusion that if France and the Latin races are doomed, we shall not, in the end, long escape their fate, for "individualism" is, with us, attacked on every side by influences similar to those which are at work in France. We, too, must live by faith, yet have no faith except in the religion of economic delusion; we are encouraging militarism; we have universal suffrage; we try to make the poor believe that if they had their "rights" they would all be rich; we multiply offices in order to make places for the dependents of parties who live by placemen's support and work; we do all in our power to reward the demagogue who deceives and the boss who bleeds us. Had we M. Le Bon's cleverness of description we think we could make out strong grounds for thinking that we, too, had entered upon the socialistic stage, and were nearing that happy period in which individuality and exceptional character and intellect shall have become vices, and we shall all be day-laborers or Bellamyite stipendiaries of a state which shall not only furnish us with free water and gas, but provide board and lodging and clothes at a very low figure. Of course the multimillionaires rise up to confute us; but then it is the intention of Socialism to do away with multimillionaires. We very much doubt whether it is advisable for Anglo-Saxondom to pride itself too much on individualism as a safeguard against what M. Le Bon describes. It is perfectly true that we are not as the French are, but it is also true that the early Romans were freemen and their descendants slaves.

The Klondike Stampede. By Tappan Adney, Special Correspondent of *Harper's Weekly*. Harper & Bros. 1900.

This is a much-belated work on the Klondike, which, except for a retrospect contained in two pages and intended to cover more recent happenings, carries the events of the busy north no further than the early autumn of 1898. It has neither preface nor index. The title-page bears the imprint of the year 1900, but the reader will hardly be guided by this in his determination of the periods which appertain to the narration; nor can he without difficulty, from the rather indefinite reference to years, construct the historical sequence of the events which the book recites. Thus, on page 383 we have the statement: "Where last year two ocean vessels met at St. Michael, the five steamers that supplied Dawson," etc.—a plain indication that a part of the work was written in 1898. Somewhat similar references abundantly scattered throughout the 470 pages make it clear that they were, in the bulk, prepared at the same time. As a guide to the "modern" Klondike, therefore, the book has little value; indeed, from the rather ancient descriptions which the author gives of Dawson and of the methods and workings of the adjacent gold district, the reader will be apt to draw a very misleading picture of the conditions now actually existing in the region, or that have prevailed during the better part of two years.

As a close, even if incoherent, statement of the minute happenings of the years 1897 and 1898, and of personal experiences during the "cruder" and more interesting period of the Klondike stampede, the book may be read with both interest and profit, and the historian will perhaps delight in its careful fixing of dates, which have been as patiently worked out for events like the introduction of the first turkey into Dawson as for the more consequential ones which make history. The author shows himself thoroughly familiar with the conditions prevailing at the time of his sojourn, and credit must be given him for the painstaking care with which he has attempted to ascertain the "true inwardness" of the happenings in the Klondike, official and otherwise.

The book is not free from errors of statement, some of which are seemingly typographical. Thus, the legend on the folded illustration-sheet facing page 384, showing the Main Street, Dawson, bears the date July, 1895(8); and on p. 385 we have the statement that by "November 15, 1899[8], the twenty miles to the summit was opened for traffic." The White Pass and Yukon Railway entered Bennett on July 6, 1899, having by that time completed the full traverse of the forty-two miles.

The Story of Moscow. By Wirt Gerrare. Illustrated by Helen M. James. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

This book consists of two parts, a useful and a useless one. Useful are the illustrations, and so much of the description as may serve as a guide to the things worth seeing in Moscow. Everything else, comprising three-fourths of the work, has very little, if any, value. Instead of giving a story of Moscow, as we expect from the title, we get mainly an ill-digested recital of massacres and horrors perpetrated at various times in the ancient capital of Russia. There is no method in the narration, and names are mentioned with a reckless abandon, as if the English reader had known them from childhood. Zaporogians, baskaks, ikonostas are given as matters of course; and of hopeless errors there is no end. Zaporogians and Cossacks figure side by side, as if they were distinct people; Bolgars are treated as Slavs, and Russian words like *bolotnaia*, "swamps," are, according to our author, of Tartar origin. The wife of the Tsar is now Tsarina and again Tsaritsa; the church Spass na Boru is mentioned now as St. Saviour's in the Wood, now as the Church of the Transfiguration, now as St. Saviour of the Pines; and similarly are treated other designations. Most absurd is the chapter in which Peter the Great is with impassioned partiality called the greatest barbarian that ever sat on the Russian throne, and in which his ancestors are praised to the sky. But probably most offensive is the author's parade of his knowledge of Russian, for here the mistakes are most abundant. Hardly a word is quoted correctly, and the quotations are, with few exceptions, from third-rate writers, and therefore difficult to verify. In one case, however, the author tries to heighten the effect by giving the original Russian side by side with his translation, and the result is amusing. The original has: "Since a native Russian, and not a foreigner [German], has gathered all the wisdom and obtained promotion"; for which the translation is: "Stolid, forlorn, mum and glum, Being Russian-born—not deaf and dumb." The transliteration of Russian words beggars description; the worst features of the French, German, and English systems are represented here, the same letters standing frequently for three or four distinct sounds. The most curious word thus spelled is Shtrchnev, which no English-speaking person, nor Russian either, could pronounce. To this must be added that the author has not read his proofs, for whole sentences make no sense as they stand, and such outlandish words as *Xram* are, evidently, not the printer's fault. It must be confessed that the author is quite right when he says, "I have produced little that is really original."

The Franco-German War, 1870-71. By Generals and Other Officers who took part in the Campaign. Translated and edited by Major-Gen. J. F. Maurice, C.B., Capt. Wilfred J. Long, and A. Sonnenschein. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Gr. 8vo, pp. 687. Illustrated. $7.00.

This very important work, originally published in Germany, has been admirably Englished under the editing of Gen. Maurice. Its plan is a separate treatment of each campaign by a carefully chosen officer who took part in it. Though it is distinctively German in its standpoint, it is not wanting in appreciation of the fine qualities and the courage of the French army, while pointing out the great faults of organization and the lack of grasp of the chiefs of the French general staff, which caused the ruinous reverses of the opening campaign that could never be retrieved. In the collaboration of different authors, in the form of the splendid volume, and in the abundance of illustrations by maps, landscapes, and a gallery of portraits of chief actors on both sides, the book will remind American readers of the Century War-Book, which is the model among us of an imposing presentation of military history. The long series of excellent reproductions of authentic portraits, from the Emperors Napoleon and William downward, will be especially prized by everybody who is interested in the story. The topographical maps of fields of battle, inserted in the text, are very numerous and very clear. The landscape views, whether from photographs or from sketches by artists, are both instructive and attractive. The introductory chapter on the origin of the war, by Prof. v. Pflugk-Harttung of Berlin, is a most clear and satisfactory treatment of the events after the Austro-Prussian war of 1866 which led Louis Napoleon into his fatal contest. In each chapter enough of stirring battle description and personal characterization is introduced to give life to the story, while the military standing of the author of each part is security for the accuracy and comprehensive clearness of the whole. Military men cannot afford to be without the book, and the general reader of history will find its interest a growing and lasting one. Its price represents the intelligent use of unstinted means to help the reader's easy comprehension of great events.

Il Ce-Kiang: Studio Geographico-Economico del Dott. Mario Carli. Rome: Forzani & Co.

One of the first literary fruits of the recent Italian naval operations in China and the determination of Italy to share in the prospective or desired "partition" of that empire is this attractively printed work of 278 pages, concerning the province in which the Grand Canal has its southern terminus

and whose chief city Marco Polo so fully describes. The text proper is preceded by an elaborate historical introduction. In this, the author gives a rapid conspectus of ancient and mediæval China, and describes in considerable detail and with graphic power the various wars and diplomacy of recent years—that is, especially the campaigns with England and France, the Tai-ping rebellion, and the Chino-Japanese war of 1894-'95. The details of the negotiations of the treaty of 1886, between Italy and China, are also given, besides the text in fifty-five articles, and the accompanying commercial regulations. The chapter on "European Politics in China" is terse and illuminating. Then follow chapters treating of the four principal rivers of Che-Kiang, its seacoast, the channels of communication by land and water, the possibility of railways, and the general products of the province. The last division shows that this "province of the Crooked River," as the name means, though the smallest of the nineteen of China, is about the size of Ohio; that is, it contains nearly forty thousand square miles, and has from twelve to fifteen million inhabitants. The hilly southwestern parts produce the finest grades of tea, while those to the north and east, embracing the river flats and valleys, are rich in silk and manifold products chiefly of native consumption. Besides the capital, Hang-chau, and the large treaty port of Ningpo, there are the other seaports, Wen-chau, Tai-chau, and, in the north, the river port Chau-hing. The island of Chusan, or rather the archipelago of that name, together with the numerous other islands lying seaward and the many bays and indentations on the coast, gives this province an importance far beyond that which its area and population would suggest.

Dr. Carli is unusually full and satisfactory in those chapters which treat of the commercial movements and possibilities of each port and the regions adjacent. The book presents a valuable bird's-eye view of the general commercial and diplomatic situation at the present moment, and there are valuable statistical appendices and tables which furnish exactly the kind of precise information that the prospecting merchant, whether in or out of Italy, wishes to get. There is also an excellent folding map, showing with great clearness not only the face of the province, but its wonderful fringe of islands. The marrow of the book is in the "conclusion," in which the author sums up his impressions and gives a forecast. He is amazed at the extraordinary fertility of the soil, which is adapted to almost every product, but he sees that at present the native ways and means are those of the distant past. The great need, for both internal and external development, is of modern methods. Yet his advice is that only men of enterprise and initiative should attempt to grapple with the problem of the full development of Che-Kiang. While he believes that in time a great trunk line of railway should be built by Italians, to connect the main ports on the coast with the chief railway in central China, which will join the southern to the northern provinces, he recommends his countrymen not to think of this first, but to construct short lines and develop particular regions of the province. Thus they will build up permanent trade, and make feeders ready for the proper maintenance of the main line when that is attempted. He further believes that, instead of beginning at once a full volume of direct trade with Italy, it is best to develop facilities with those ports already doing a large business.

Concerning native capital, he says much timidity is shown among the Chinese towards the investment of money in local operations conducted by natives, and that most of that used or now circulating is "speculative"; that is, it is put into the hands of foreign firms and organizations in Shanghai and other treaty ports. Experience seems to have proved that it is through the foreigner, and the enterprises initiated and carried on by him, that the best returns are secured. In a word, the author of this valuable and timely treatise takes a conservative but hopeful view of Italian possibilities of trade with China, in what, judging from recent news, telling of the reënforcement of the Italian squadron on the China station, seems destined to be Italy's province or sphere of influence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Francis A. The Transgressors. Philadelphia: Independent Pub. Co.
Ascham, Roger. The Schoolmaster. [National Library.] Cassell & Co. 10c.
Bates, Arlo. Love in a Cloud. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bérard, Victor. L'Angleterre et l'Impérialisme. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 4 francs.
Black, Armstrong. The Evening and the Morning. American Tract Society. $1.
Boname, Louise C. Hand-Book of Pronunciation [French] for Advanced Grades. Philadelphia: L. C. Boname. 35c.
Cary, G. L. The Synoptic Gospels. Putnams. $2.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The Bath Comedy. Frederick A. Stokes & Co. $1.50.
Chester, N. A Plain Woman's Part. London: Edward Arnold. 6 shillings.
Clarke, Rev. J. C. C. Man and his Divine Father. Chicago: McClurg. $1.50.
Conyngton, T. The Organization and Management of a Business Corporation. Ronald Press. [Lawyers' Coöp. Pub. Co.] $1.50.
Dawson, A. J. Daniel Whyte; An Unfinished Biography. Brentano. $1.25.
Deville, G. The People's Marx. [Translated by R. R. La Monte.] The International Library Pub. Co.
Ellis, J. B. The Dread and Fear of Kings. Chicago: McClurg. $1.25.
Firth, C. Oliver Cromwell. Putnams. $1.50.
Grant, R. Unleavened Bread. Scribners. $1.50.
Greener, W. W. Sharpshooting for Sport and War. Truslove, Hanson & Comba. 50c.
Gregory, Eliot. The Ways of Men. Scribners. $1.50.
Grinnell, G. B. The Indian of To-day. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Hammond, John Hays. The Transvaal Trouble. The Abbey Press. 25c.
Horton, G. War and Mammon. Wausau, Wis.: Philosopher Press.
Jarrold, Ernest. Mickey Finn. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co.
Judson, H. P., and Bender, Ada C. Third Book, Graded Literature Readers. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 45c.
Keasbey, E. Q. The Law of Electric Wires in Streets and Highways. 2d ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $4.00.
Lee, Rev. F. T. Popular Misconceptions as to Christian Life and Faith. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
Macpherson, H. Herbert Spencer. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Pangborn, Major. The Cross or the Pound—Which? American News Co. 50c.
Rhees, R. Life of Jesus of Nazareth. Scribners. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. Ivanhoe. [Heath's English Classics.] Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50c.
Shakespeare. All's Well that Ends Well. [National Library.] Cassell & Co. 10c.
Sharpe, R. R. Calendar of Letter-Books of the City of London. London: John Edward Francis.
Sichel, Edith. The Household of the Lafayettes. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Smith, A. C. The Monk and the Dancer. Scribners. $1.50.
Sneath, E. H. The Mind of Tennyson. Scribners. $1.25.
Storrs, Rev. R. S. Addresses on Foreign Missions. Boston: American Board for Foreign Missions. $1.
Vincent, L. H. Hôtel de Rambouillet and the Précieuses. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wells, D. W. His Lordship's Leopard. Henry Holt & Co.
Wishart, A. W. Short History of Monks and Monasteries. Trenton, N. J.: Albert Brandt. $3.50.
Wister, O. The Jimmyjohn Boss, and Other Stories. Harpers.
Zola, Emile. Fruitfulness. [Translated by E. A. Vizetelly.] Doubleday, Page & Co.

"A Masterly Tale.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 24, 1900.

The Week.

The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Kentucky case on Monday, followed by its prompt acceptance in the State, represents the triumph of the principle of law over that of force in a controversy which might have disturbed the peace of the nation as well as of the commonwealth itself. The Republicans unquestionably elected their candidate for Governor last November. The decision of the Supreme Court confirms a Democrat in the possession of the office. Yet every step in the process by which this result was reached has been taken in accordance with the law; and the adherence to law, while it confirms the momentary success of fraud, is a triumph for those underlying principles of order which distinguish the United States from a Central American republic. In this matter, at least, we have furnished an example worthy of imitation by Cuba when it shall attempt to govern itself. By the Constitution of Kentucky a new election for Governor under such circumstances as now exist must take place in November. This is a fortunate circumstance. The injustice of awarding the Governorship under the forms of law to a defeated candidate will be but temporary, while the appeal to the people for a rehearing of the whole case and for final judgment at the polls must be made while everything connected with the case is fresh in the public mind. The only unfortunate feature of the situation is the fact that the Republicans will probably feel compelled to renominate Taylor, who is not so strong a man as they ought to have to represent their cause.

Extravagance, maladministration, and corruption, such as have been exposed in the postal service of Cuba, were only the natural result of the astonishing grant of unregulated power which was made by the McKinley Administration to the Director-General of Posts. The charter given this official last July was made public in the Senate last week, and Mr. Hale of Maine was quite justified in pronouncing it "as great as was ever given to a Roman proconsul." The text of this extraordinary paper shows that it made Rathbone virtually a dictator, so far as the whole postal service of the island was concerned, with absolute authority to establish offices, fix their compensation, make contracts—in short, "to do all things that may be necessary to give full force and effect to the powers hereby vested in him." The history of the world is one long series of illustrations of the dangers which attend the grant of such dictatorial powers to any man. Yet when the American republic attempted to teach the Cubans by an object-lesson how to govern themselves, it abandoned all the traditions of the United States in favor of strict responsibility, and reverted to the worst examples of Rome in ancient times and Spain in modern.

It would have been extraordinary if the frauds and corruption in Cuba had been restricted to the postal service. Already there are indications that the same spirit of reckless extravagance which characterized that department, prevailed among the representatives of our Government who had to do with other things. A railroad not over ten miles in length was built around the city of Havana, for the ostensible purpose of transporting troops to and from the interior without the necessity of their passing through the heart of the town. The sum of $342,611 was paid for the construction of this road, although the grades were so easy, and the work apparently so free from difficulties of any sort, that the man who served as superintendent estimates that $110,000 should have been ample. Scarcely any use was ever made of the road, and the Chief Quartermaster in Cuba is represented to have been opposed to its building from the first as entirely unnecessary. In short, all of the surface indications are that there was a job in the enterprise. There is no reason to suppose that this will prove an isolated illustration of the disposition among Americans in Cuba, following the precept of the Honorable Grosvenor, to get as much as possible out of the island.

While new rottenness in our Cuban service is revealed with every thrust of the probe, the Administration continues to give out as little information as possible, and to stand by its impeached favorites till the last minute. When Congress asks for a detailed and itemized list of expenditures in Cuba, it gets a return of lump sums under the head of "property," "sanitation," "repairs," and "miscellaneous." Under the last entry, which, like charity, is able to cover a multitude of sins, there were actual payments of over $100,000. For the strange delay in rendering an accounting, and for the unintelligible nature of the accounts when rendered, the Assistant Secretary of War makes a labored explanation, full of expressions of his "belief" that, on a certain "hypothesis," the "possible" expenditures could not have been more than so many millions. All this is tantamount to a confession of extravagance and muddling, or, as the new head of the Department of Posts reports, "only chaos in the entire Department." Such was the fated result of a vicious system applied with incredible recklessness. With no clear fixing of responsibility, no laws regulating expenditure, none of the recognized safeguards against incompetence or rascality in office, we have walked deliberately into this nasty mess, and yet we profess to be surprised! One thing at least has been accomplished—not a single sneer at "snivel-service reform" has been heard in Congress since the unreformed Cuban frauds came out. It is another kind of snivelling that we are now treated to.

Fear of political punishment or hope of political reward may deter other Republican newspapers from pursuing the Cuban frauds, but the *Tribune* is above such influences. In fact, we think that the President will consider its Roman firmness a trifle too stern for the good of the party. A soothing, more optimistic tone would better aid the unhappy men who have to frame the civil-service plank at Philadelphia next month. The *Tribune's* Washington dispatches have a distinct tinge of pessimism. They say that "Administration circles" "hope that the worst is already known," yet add, "this is doubted by some." More food for doubters is furnished by a telegram in the next column reporting "Other Scandals Feared." The correspondent points out the excellent "opportunities for rascality" in the Philippines; recalls and reprints Gen. Otis's famous order admitting the existence of bribery and corruption even in the army; and dolefully expresses the fear that the case must be much worse with the civilian employees, who are subject to "only the most casual supervision." We congratulate the *Tribune* on its noble and disinterested stand, which will remind its readers of the good work it did in the 70's in exposing the shortcomings of an Administration which had also left it outside the breastworks.

That American dominion is desired by the Filipinos can hardly be regarded as intrinsically probable, and, in spite of the claims of Republican politicians and of the statements of some of our generals, we cannot ignore the evidence to the contrary which steadily pours in. The correspondent of the New York *Herald* writes from Manila on February 10, that, since January 1, when it was announced that organized insurrection was practically at an end, the Americans have lost more men, more arms, and more supplies in the "pacified" districts than during any previous period of equal length. Ambuscades are of daily occurrence, and it is more unsafe than ever

for small bodies of our soldiers to remain in these districts. The population in these regions appears to be bitterly hostile, and the struggle tends more and more to become a guerilla warfare. Such natives as profess friendship to the Americans are believed to be in constant communication with the guerilla leaders, and to render them secret aid on every opportunity. Such a warfare as this cannot be terminated without a force sufficient to cover the country with military posts, and it is useless to pretend that the size of our army can be reduced. If our sanguinary policy is to be continued, we must send more men to carry it out. Trouble, too, is anticipated in Mindanao, and the American officers are said to be convinced that the cheapest way to deal with the Moros, who are at heart savages of the most bloodthirsty character, will be to show them no mercy when once they become hostile, even if some innocent lives have to be sacrificed for the general good. Some of our soldiers, it is not surprising to learn, are anxious to fight, and do what they can to irritate the natives. We have only to recall the history of our Indian wars to understand the situation and what it portends.

Even an old hand at the game of politics like Quay must be filled with admiration at the ingenious trick which Clark of Montana devised in order to secure possession of a seat in the Senate. The corruption by which he obtained an election from the Legislature had been so thoroughly exposed, that the Senate committee which investigated the matter reported unanimously in favor of declaring the seat vacant. It was certain that this position would be sustained by the Senate if the question should be brought to a vote. Under these circumstances, which alone were known to the public, Mr. Clark delivered a speech in the Senate on Tuesday week, in which he defended himself from the charges of corruption and announced that he had resigned his seat. He read his letter to the Governor, which was full of the most virtuous sentiments, declaring that he was unwilling to occupy a seat under credentials which a Senate committee had declared to rest for authority upon the action of a Legislature that was "not free and voluntary in its choice," and that he returned those credentials in order that the State and her people might "take such action as will conserve and promote her best interests in the national council." His voice broke with emotion as he announced his desire to leave his children "a legacy worth more than gold, an unblemished name," and his associates were so much overcome with admiration of his virtue that he was surrounded by members of both parties, "some of whom extended congratulations, while others silently wrung his hand."

Before midnight, however, it had appeared that this whole performance was only part of a trick. The Governor of Montana is a Democrat who is hostile to Clark. The Lieutenant-Governor is friendly to him. Gov. Smith left Helena a week ago for San Francisco to close a mining deal. About the same time Lieut.-Gov. Spriggs went to Sioux Falls, South Dakota, to attend the Populist national convention. This made the President pro tem. of the Senate acting Executive, with the understanding that he would take no important action. Thereupon Clark, on the 11th of May, sent his letter of resignation to the Governor at Helena, where it arrived on May 15. At the same time Spriggs returned to the city, having cut short his trip in order to get back and act upon Clark's resignation before Gov. Smith's return. Spriggs at once appointed Clark Senator, to fill the vacancy caused by his own resignation. It would be hard to devise a more ingenious scheme for getting around laws, precedents, and proprieties. Happily, the trick cannot succeed. The Senate is aroused by it, and the Governor, having returned, has made an appointment of his own to nullify that effected by fraud. The case is complicated, but there is no hope for Clark at this session—nor, the country must believe, at any other.

Dr. William Everett was a leader among the Gold Democrats of 1896, and nobody in New England is better qualified to speak for that element in 1900. The *Evening Post* on Friday published a letter in which he discussed the duty of such men in the approaching campaign if McKinley and Bryan should again be the candidates. Mr. Everett is as strongly opposed to Bryan now as he was four years ago, and considers him quite as dangerous, not merely because he is wrong on the silver issue, but also because he is unsound on the fundamental principles of government. McKinley, however, is quite as objectionable to Mr. Everett as Bryan, and he cannot support the one any more than the other. The only consistent course, in his opinion, for those who abominate both McKinleyism and Bryanism is to construct a platform and name candidates of their own, for whom a campaign can be made that is worthy of self-respecting men. Gold Democrats generally throughout the country appear to be as loath to support Bryan as is Mr. Everett. Thus far nobody who was prominent in the Palmer and Buckner movement of 1896 has announced his readiness to accept Bryanism this year. Mr. Everett's example is likely to encourage them to break the silence they have hitherto maintained.

The injunction issued by the Judge of the Federal District Court in Kansas City on the petition of the street railway company whose men had struck, seems quite as comprehensive as any of the orders which aroused such an outcry at the time of the Chicago riots. The present injunction restrains all the world from interfering in any way with any employee in moving a car which may carry a mail-carrier or a messenger, "or upon which a mail-carrier or a messenger may wish to ride." It might seem a sufficient precaution to require the strikers to ascertain the inclinations and preferences of all postmen concerning cars, but the injunction extends to every description of interference with the operation of the railway. No employee is to be harassed, no picketing or patrolling is allowed, no loitering about the tracks or making loud or boisterous noises in the vicinity thereof is permitted. It is quite true that none of these things ought to be allowed. In fact, it is probably true that they are all prohibited by law, and that to do any of them is a penal offence; and "there's the rub." If these acts are misdemeanors or crimes, the police ought to arrest those who commit them, and the criminal courts ought to inflict the penalties prescribed by law.

President McKinley on Friday dealt the worst blow at the reputation of the Federal judiciary which it has suffered for a long time when he nominated John R. Hazel of Buffalo as United States judge for the western district of New York. Mr. Hazel is a lawyer of only ordinary ability, who would never have been thought of for a place on the bench by anybody who applied the traditional standards of selection. But he is the Erie County representative of the Platt machine, and as such he is entitled to "recognition." Unhappily for the public, he has set his heart upon a judgeship, and Platt was, of course, bound to get it for him. Depew, who is nothing but Platt's "Me, too" in the matter of offices, endorsed the application, and so it went to the President as the request of the two Republican Senators from the State. Public-spirited citizens of Buffalo went to Washington, and told Mr. McKinley the truth about the man, in the hope of averting the threatened evil. But the President has made it a rule from the start to appoint any man whom the two Republican Senators from a State demanded, and, in his capacity of mere agent of patronage-mongers, he sent in the nomination of Hazel to the Senate. The *Tribune* tells the plain truth about the matter when it says that "the nomination ought to be withdrawn, or, if not withdrawn, rejected."

There was a time when nobody would have had any doubt as to how Theodore Roosevelt would treat any attempt to evade the application of civil-service-reform principles. In those days no man

manifested more contempt for the spoilsman's favorite plea, that a host of important offices must be excepted from the operation of the competitive system because they are of a "confidential" nature. If at that time the Legislature had established a number of positions which demanded special ability and training, he would have been the first to insist that they should not be turned over to a political machine for allotment, but should be thrown open to all who wished to test their fitness in a fair trial. Now, however, few people will be surprised that Gov. Roosevelt has refused to use his authority to bring the new inheritance-tax appraiserships under the operation of the civil-service act, by confirming the two-to-one decision of the Commission to exempt them and let the Platt selections stand. The Governor must not complain if the fine speeches which he makes in favor of applying civil-service reform in the Philippines do not satisfy people who believe that this reform should begin at home, and be enforced against the spoilsmen in our own State. The excuses which the Comptroller has framed, and which the Governor has accepted, will deceive nobody. Mr. Morgan claims that unquestioned honesty and other characteristics are required, "which cannot be brought out by a mental examination." But every civil-service examination expressly covers the question of character, and experience has shown conclusively that the competitive system develops a more trustworthy class of officials than the spoils system. The simple truth about the matter is, that these offices were established to provide good places for Republican workers.

Religious journalism is brought to public notice just now by the discussions in the Methodist General Conference as to what shall be done with newspapers of that denomination which do not pay. Conditions regarding such newspapers have undergone a great change during the past quarter of a century, and the present situation of the religious press deserves attention as a sign of the times. A writer in the *Evening Post* suggests several causes for the decline in circulation of such journals, among others the waning of the sectarian spirit which was once the chief reliance of a denominational newspaper. The multiplication of other weeklies and monthlies, which appeal to minister and layman alike, is another reason that is advanced. No stress is laid, however, upon a consideration which seems to us an important element in the case—the growing amount of space given to religious matters by the daily press. Formerly it was left for the religious newspapers, a week or even a fortnight afterward, to report the proceedings of such an assembly as the Methodist General Conference, now in session at Chicago, or the recent Œcumenical Conference in this city, whereas now the daily papers treat the action of these bodies as part of the news of the day. Judged by this standard, it is certainly true that religious questions command more attention from the general public at present than they did a generation ago, however the religious press proper may fare.

With the close of the episode of the Boer envoys in this country—a close predestined from the first—attention will revert to the scene of hostilities. The real magnitude of the operations can be realized with difficulty. No British General ever before commanded so many men in the field as Lord Roberts now has under him—about 200,000, all told. Counting out garrisons and guards, he has on his front something like 125,000 men, but that front is 200 miles long. To direct a force of such size in such a country, and with the columns separated by such magnificent distances; to clothe and feed his army by aid of a single-track railway; to make movements so well-timed and exact, and cooperation of scattered commands so successful; to have advanced so rapidly and so far in a difficult terrain and against an alert and skilful even if inferior foe, and to have done it with such small losses—all this is a military achievement of a high order of merit, and it is no wonder that German and French critics are now speaking of Lord Roberts with profound respect. His tactics have not been, of course, those which would have to be employed against a regular European army, with better discipline and more effective cavalry than the Boers possess; but they have been just what the situation called for. There was an element of good fortune in the time and circumstances of Lord Roberts's assumption of command in South Africa, yet his campaign since has shown him to be an undeniably great general. As in the relief of Mafeking on May 17, his achievements are like clockwork.

Lord Salisbury made a fortnight ago one of those strange exhibitions of "critical detachment," or perversity, which so often and so sorely try his political supporters. A Royal Commission, appointed by his own Government, to investigate the drink evil, had, after three years of inquiry, made a report unanimously recommending certain changes in the licensing laws. But when the Bishop of Winchester brought the matter up in the House of Lords, Salisbury fell upon it in his finest Oxford Union manner. He let his wit and sarcasm play over the subject just as if he had no responsibility in the premises whatever, but were a man who had accidentally dropped in, out of his laboratory, and could not miss a good chance to have some fun with impracticable prelates meddling with temperance reform. But after he had had his little fling, the Archbishop of Canterbury had his. Dr. Temple is himself no kitten when it comes to polemics, and he criticised the nonchalant and trifling attitude of the Premier in the sharpest manner. Why had he appointed the Commission if he meant to pay no attention whatever to its recommendations? The Archbishop protested vehemently that this was a ridiculous way for the head of the Government to act, and he so evidently had the House with him that Salisbury rather petulantly said that a vote for the Archbishop's motion would really be a vote of want of confidence in the Government. Even after this the division showed 42 to 45—that is, the Conservative Premier saved from defeat in his own House of Lords by only 3 majority!

One of the most remarkable and, from our point of view, deplorable incidents of the resurgence of militarism is the diversion to the expenses of government of funds devoted to charitable purposes. When we went to war with Spain, Congress at once put a tax, amounting in many cases to fifteen per cent., on bequests to philanthropic institutions, although several of the States had already imposed taxes of a similar nature. The theory of such taxation is apparently that the subjugation of foreign peoples by war is philanthropy on the grandest scale, and that private benefactions must be diminished in order to further this magnificent purpose. No past experience justifies this theory, nor does anything now taking place in the world support it. Not long since the civilized world was horrified at the expulsion of the Jews by the Russian Government. That Government professed to be actuated by enlightened benevolence, but its course was generally regarded as barbarous. The late Baron de Hirsch, at all events, was universally applauded when he devoted his great fortune to the alleviation of the misery caused by the expatriation of the Russian Jews. It might have been supposed that enlightened communities would have hastened to lend all the aid in their power to so noble a benefaction, or at least that they would do nothing to hinder or discourage it. Yet we are now informed that, under the English law, the Jewish Colonization Association, formed to carry out Baron de Hirsch's merciful enterprise, must give up to the Government, as a succession duty, no less than £1,250,000 of the £8,000,000 with which it was endowed. Baron de Hirsch died before our Government took up the rôle of philanthropic militarism, or his gifts might have been cut down in this country also; but hereafter men of wealth who think of doing good to mankind on a large scale will be taught by severe penalties to be less presumptuous.

THE PROPOSED CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

The Republican party leaders have evidently determined not to be outdone by the Democrats in the display of hostility to monopolies. They are confident of their ability, no doubt, to denounce Trusts and combinations with as much fervor and eloquence as their opponents, but they have lacked something to which they could "point with pride" in their platform. The existing anti-Trust law has evidently failed to check the supposed evil, and the Republicans have not been able to answer the question, "What have you done about it?" They have been in control of the national Government, they have enacted a tariff which favors monopolies, and they are committed to a subsidy to a few powerful concerns owning or building ships. They are thus unable to defend themselves against the charge of being friendly to the Trusts, and they have now been driven to propose an amendment to the Constitution proscribing monopolies, as evidence of the sincerity of their hostility to them.

The amendment is sufficiently sweeping in its terms. Congress is to have power to control, prohibit, or dissolve Trusts, monopolies, or combinations. But the question of definition at once arises. What is a Trust? What legislature or court has declared and defined the difference between such trusts as have been long recognized by law, and those which are now the objects of denunciation? The words of the amendment, taken in their ordinary sense, would give Congress power over all the trusts created by will or deed, or by the operation of law. They would cover the case of individuals forming a partnership or a corporation. The report of the judiciary committee proposing the amendment makes some attempt to qualify its sweeping language. According to this report, it is illegal and dangerous combinations, which restrain trade or destroy competition, or which may unjustly harass or oppress labor, that Congress is to control. When a corporation becomes a monopoly, the report says, or when, being organized for illegal or improper purposes, it becomes a menace to the welfare of the people generally, then Congress should have power to suppress it.

This attempt at definition is extremely puerile. If Congress is to have power to deal only with illegal corporations, the amendment should say so. As corporations can be created only by law, the class of illegal corporations would not be large, and if any such corporations exist, the States have full power to deal with them. If Congress is merely to control corporations, having improper purposes, which have become a menace to the general welfare, this should be expressed in the amendment, and the particular facts and proofs that establish guilt should be made clear. It is a fundamental maxim in our jurisprudence that a penal statute is to be strictly construed. It is not enough to accuse a man of menacing the general welfare. No court would entertain an indictment of such a character. Specific acts must be alleged, in order that the accused person may be able to defend himself if he is innocent; and in this respect corporations stand on the same footing as individuals.

It is clear that, under the amendment as it stands, every corporation and every firm in the country would be subject to the regulation of Congress. Every one of them may form the intention of restraining trade or destroying competition. Every little tradesman, every country storekeeper, tries to get the better of his competitors, or has understandings concerning the maintenance of prices. Hence they must all come under Congressional supervision. That may or may not be desirable. The insurance companies of the country think they would fare better under the control of the general Government than under that of the several States. They have suffered so much from unjust laws and blackmailing inspectors that they would be glad of any change. But the probable consequences of giving Congress the vast powers conferred by this amendment cannot have been considered by the country. At present Congress is tolerably free from corruption. When it makes a tariff or has franchises to dispose of, jobbery generally takes place; but it has hitherto had little to do with franchises. If all the business of the country is to be under Congressional control, we know by experience what influences will be employed in controlling that control.

The Democratic members of the judiciary committee voted against its report, but there seems to be nothing in the report inconsistent with Mr. Bryan's views. He has suggested that corporations should be licensed by the Federal authorities, and that is practically what this amendment would accomplish. If Mr. Bryan represents the Democratic position, both parties are committed to the policy of enormously increasing the legislative and administrative functions of the Federal Government. It is doubtful if many persons of intelligence believe that the evils of trade combinations, whatever they may be, would be lessened by invoking the interference of Congress; but few such persons can doubt that the character of Congress would suffer were it to undertake the task. The fact that neither party intends to take the only practical step that has been suggested, the abolition of protective duties, shows that the whole outcry against great combinations of capital is not sincere. Mr. Bryan seems to have quite abandoned the free-trade policy, a fact which tells against him among independent voters more than anything else. As he may be counted on by the protectionists, and as the Republicans proclaim their purpose to go as far in the direction of extending the powers of Congress over the Trusts as it is possible to go, we do not see that the wicked people who are menacing the public welfare by their combinations will not fare as well and as ill under the administration of either party. Possibly the Democrats may be more in earnest in their denunciations; but as Mr. Bryan has overcome his hatred of protection, he might find that his zeal against the Trusts would cool down if he should have the Federal patronage at his disposal.

COLONIAL CIVIL SERVICE.

The extraordinary circumstances attending the establishment by our Congress of a civil government for Porto Rico, and the scandals of the postal service we have set up in Cuba, should arouse the country to the importance of regulating colonial appointments. We may be so fortunate as to be relieved, after a time, of the responsibility of ruling subject races; but even if our dominion is not to be of long duration, it should be respectable while it lasts. At present there are no laws, no rules, and no precedents controlling such appointments. They are either entirely within the discretion of the President, or made by him subject to the confirmation of the Senate. While President McKinley has made a number of good selections for the more important offices, some poor material has evidently found its way into the inferior positions, and even those who are willing to trust everything to the wisdom and goodness of the present Executive must admit that his successors may not be equally competent.

The general principles upon which a body of colonial officials under such a government as ours should be constituted, are very plainly stated by Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell in his work, 'Colonial Civil Service,' in which he considers the examples afforded by England, Holland, and France, particularly the former country. In spite of the fact that France is called a republic, it does not appear that the French methods of providing colonial officials deserve our imitation; nor is the example of Holland, interesting though it is, especially instructive. It would hardly be practicable to induce our public men to familiarize themselves with Dutch precedents; but there is obviously a general conviction in this country that the English have developed a very successful system of colonial administration. It is therefore not unreasonable to believe that general attention will be given to the essential features of the English system, when set forth by so competent a hand as that of Prof. Lowell, and that the modifications of that system which he suggests will be thoughtfully considered. The most ardent Expansionist will admit that we cannot manage

colonies without trained administrators, and in training them we must be guided chiefly by English precedents.

The history of the civil service provided by England for India may be divided into three periods. While the East India Company was a commercial body, its servants were appointed by its directors. Yet so early as 1784, the English Government began to regulate these appointments, and the principle became established that vacancies should be filled from among the civil servants of the Company by seniority. The original selection of these servants, however, was left in the hands of the company, subject only to the provision that writers on their first appointment must not be less than fifteen nor more than twenty-two years old, and that no consideration should be received for giving them their posts. As the governmental duties of the Company became more extensive, it was found desirable that the young writers should receive special training, and in 1800 a college for them was founded at Calcutta by Lord Wellesley, then Governor-General of India. This college endured until 1854, when competitive examinations were introduced. In 1806 a similar college was established at Haileybury in England, officially known as the East India College, and this became the regular door of entrance into the civil service, until it also was abolished in 1855.

The suppression of these colleges marks the beginning of the third, and present, stage in the history of the Indian civil service. First, the appointments had been made by favor, and those who had received them continued to hold them by favor. Then a system of training and promotion was introduced, but nominations were still made by favor. Finally, nominations were abolished altogether, and "any person being a natural-born subject of her Majesty," and of proper age, was declared by Parliament entitled to apply for examination as a candidate for the service. This final change was brought about largely by Macaulay, and it involved the abolition of the India colleges, because it was believed that, for many reasons, the training of those who entered this service should be general rather than special. The purpose was distinctly avowed of making the examinations of such a character that those who prepared for them should be as well qualified for careers at home as abroad. Hence those subjects, and those alone, were covered which were regularly studied at the universities, candidates being allowed to select a certain number of subjects out of a large list. Successful candidates were then, for a year or two, to study in England the duties which they were to perform in India.

After various modifications, the system of competitive examinations became well established, and the desire of Macaulay, that the candidates should be of university training, has been realized. Nearly all the successful candidates now come from some British university, where they have studied from three to five years. Oxford sends half of them, Cambridge a quarter; and most of them have taken honors of some sort. It is natural to jump to the conclusion that this is the ideal system for us. Why should we not at once establish examining bodies, before which the flower of our college graduates should go, the successful ones to be at once admitted to the civil service, and to proceed to their fields of duty after a year or two of special training? The answer to this question which Mr. Lowell gives is that an aristocratic institution is not likely to thrive in the soil of a democracy. Few men have studied the subject of government more carefully than he; very few men so well understand the vital differences between the various forms of government. His authority is sufficient to recommend his conclusion to students of these subjects; but a brief statement of his reasons will be generally instructive.

In England, Mr. Lowell says, there is a strong feeling against filling offices on grounds of personal or party favoritism, and none against filling them from a small, highly educated class. In America the popular feeling is very nearly the reverse on these points. It would be hopeless to try to reserve any class of offices for college graduates. Congress would not establish such a system, and would quickly destroy it were it established. On the other hand, almost all members of Congress openly or secretly favor giving offices to those who have political influence. That they look on offices as spoils, not as trusts, is proved by the laws requiring the Federal offices in Washington to be divided among the States in proportion to population. We cannot give all Mr. Lowell's arguments; but they are conclusive. Our only hope is to fall back on the system of special colleges. Congress has at least tolerated the schools at West Point and Annapolis; perhaps because nominations to these schools are made by Congressmen. This admixture of favoritism has smoothed away numerous difficulties; and many Congressmen make their nominations conditional on the results of competitive examinations. As Mr. Lowell suggests, a special college might provide a supply of consular officers, as well as colonial administrators. Some method of improving our foreign civil service should presently be adopted, and the plan of a special college seems a promising one.

THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES.

The legislative history of Congressman Richardson's 'Messages and Papers of the Presidents' is a striking commentary upon the way in which Congress deals with public documents and records, and manages the business of publication. The subject, in one phase or another, has been many times discussed, and the mischievous results of prevailing methods have been pointed out; but little has thus far been done to reduce the business to a rational system, or to prevent incompetency, duplication, and waste.

The amount of legitimate and necessary printing done by a legislative body like Congress must, in the nature of things, be very great. Bills, petitions, reports of committees, communications from heads of departments, and the daily record of proceedings, make up a formidable mass of themselves; and no one will question the propriety of using the printing press, in these directions, to any extent necessary to facilitate business. It is, rather, occasional and special publications which afford the most forcible illustrations of the essential unsoundness of the whole system. Take the Richardson case as an example. There can be little question of the desirability of collecting the messages and papers of the Presidents, and publishing them in a form not only convenient for use, but unimpeachable as to accuracy and authority. There can be little question, also, that such a publication is one which the national Government might appropriately undertake. But how was the work done in this case? Was the task committed to some trained historical expert, accustomed to the use of documentary material, and whose name would be a guarantee of accuracy and completeness? Not at all. On the contrary, the work was turned over to a member of Congress who was without special fitness or training, and whose only claim to consideration was that he wanted the job. The result is that a work of the first importance has been badly done, and, not to mention the objectionable way in which it has been offered to the public, has no title to the confidence of scholars.

The same carelessness and indifference are exhibited in the way in which the archives of the Government are treated. Any one who has had occasion to consult official papers at Washington knows the confusion and lack of system which prevail. The records are scattered from one end of the city to the other, not seldom in places where one would least expect to find them. Instead of a central depository for papers not in current use, they are divided among a considerable number of departments and bureaus, and preserved under conditions which make access to them difficult. Few departments have made any systematic attempts to provide adequate indexes or catalogues, or to bind or file their manuscripts, while many papers of priceless value are ex-

posed to the ravages of dampness, dirt, and relic-hunters.

Relatively to its age and importance, no country in the world has so large a mass of documentary material for its history as the United States, yet hardly any country has treated its archives more shabbily, or carried on the publication of them in a more careless or happy-go-lucky fashion. The main trouble, of course, is not with the present custodians, many of whom are doing excellent work with the small resources at their command, but with Congress, which, though often informed and repeatedly warned, still refuses scientific organization and adequate appropriation. It is a shame that we cannot have an edition later than 1877 of Poore's invaluable 'Federal and State Constitutions,' and that No. 9 of the "Bulletins of the Bureau of Rolls and Library," dated October, 1897, should not be issued until April, 1900; while such a compilation as that of Richardson goes through with a rush.

What is needed is centralized supervision, by competent authority, of the custody, preservation, and use of the national archives, and of their publication. A bill recently introduced in the House by Representative Stokes of South Carolina is a promising step in the right direction. It calls upon the American Historical Association to investigate the character and condition of the public records of the several States and Territories, and of the United States, and to report their findings to Congress, together with the recommendation of such legislation as may be deemed advisable. While Congress, of course, could give only advisory authority so far as the States are concerned, the possibility of collision at this point is doubtless extremely remote, particularly since the archives of many of the States are in even worse condition than are those of the United States. We understand that the bill has the approval of the American Historical Association, and that this great organization is prepared to put its services at the disposal of the United States in the matter, and with no compensation other than the reimbursement of expenses. No movement so promising, or so worthy of instant support, has ever been made in this direction, and it is much to be hoped that the pending bill may not be crowded aside.

LITERATURE AND DIPLOMACY.

Mr. Lindsay Swift has a taking subject for the series of biographical sketches which he has begun in the *Book-Buyer*, under the title "Our Literary Diplomats." Franklin, the Adamses, and Jefferson, with whom he leads off, are but the first names in a long list of Americans who have represented both letters and their country at foreign courts. The annals of American diplomacy are, in truth, unique in this respect. No other nation has had so many men in its diplomatic service who were known as writers before they received their appointments. Our very haphazard in such matters has made this distinction of ours possible. Without a regular diplomatic service—with embassies and consulates held as prizes—we have used diplomatic office as a kind of substitute for a Royal Literary Fund wherewith to reward deserving men of letters, at the same time that they have happily served to cover our nakedness in the eyes of foreigners.

And the success of our lettered diplomats has been undeniably great. Irving and Bancroft and Marsh and Hawthorne and Lowell—what equal number of names of the purely political class would stand for greater dignity and efficiency and correctness than theirs in the discharge of merely diplomatic duties? Motley, it is true, fell into seeming disgrace through an apparent indiscretion; but everybody understood at the time that it was Sumner whom Grant was whipping over Motley's shoulders; and in England as well as in his own country the historian of the Dutch Republic enjoyed a regard which, far from being diminished by his diplomatic misadventure, was, if anything, increased by it. All told, therefore, the American habit, now so well established, of signalizing success in literature by honors in diplomacy has been justified by its results.

This is not strange when one stops to reflect what diplomacy is in the modern world, and what advantages a cultivated intelligence has in essaying the practice of the delicate art. Conceived of in the mediæval fashion, a diplomatic mission, as a mixture of cunning and spying, bargaining and intriguing, would have no especial charms for a literary man, and he no especial aptitudes for it. But we have luckily changed all that. Bagehot defines a foreign minister as a man whose business it is to be not simply an agent, but a spectacle. Some of ours have notoriously been spectacles—for gods and men! What we have to note, however, is the fact that the function of the diplomat as agent is steadily decreasing under current methods of transacting international business; and his duties as a "spectacle" correspondingly enlarged. By the word spectacle, Bagehot means, of course, those personal qualities which at once impress and conciliate the people of the country where the diplomat resides. Their display, we say, now covers a large part of the work of foreign ministers. It seldom falls to them to take the initiative in the dispatch of public business. In emergencies, it is true, they must thoroughly know their *métier;* but ordinarily they are little more than the errand-boys of their chiefs at home, delivering their notes, transmitting the answers, and serving, in general, only as a kind of gold-laced and dignified dummy.

On the social and public side, however, the importance of ambassadors and ministers has been enhanced *pari passu* with the decline of their technically diplomatic activity. It is for them to be not only gracious and worthy representatives of their own nations—men to whom compatriots can look with pride—but fitted to mingle on civic and festival occasions with the best of the people among whom they dwell. When we say this, the immense superiority of a man of letters at once appears. Take the mere matter of acquaintance with languages. The nomination of a politician as minister means only, as Lowell says, that of one "who will at most only bewilder some foreign court with a more desperately helpless French than his predecessor." A man versed in literature, if not able to speak French, will at least know that he is not, and refrain from exhibiting his Ollendorffian barbarities. John Adams wrote in his diary malicious things of Franklin's French; perhaps his own was not flawless. We must admit, with this in mind, that perfect speaking command of a foreign language is not a diplomatic essential. Lowell himself, though he probably knew more about the history of the Spanish language than anybody in the Madrid Foreign Office, did not trust his tongue in Castilian. But what he was able to do in England, and Mr. Phelps in almost equal measure after him; what the Chinese Minister and M. Cambon achieve in our own country, in the way of ingratiating themselves with the public, suggests the true ideal. Diplomacy means cultivating the best possible relations between two friendly nations. There is no more agreeable man than one of refined literary taste and wide reading. The inference is irresistible that literature is extraordinarily well adapted to grace diplomacy, in its important rôle of cementing international friendship and promoting the fellowship of art and science the world over.

If we apply severer tests, and demand that our diplomats be men of large mind and long view, we again seem to find peculiar value in a literary training as a preparation for a diplomatic career. When a public man is acquainted not merely with the best that has been thought in the world's history, but with the best that has been done, he is helped to a wider off-look and a more sagacious reach. For him, the petty clamor of the day sinks into its proper proportions, as simply "the myriad crickets of the heath," compared with the deep and lasting voices of public duty to which alone he gives heed. To take a final concrete example, we cannot doubt that Secretary Hay has won his great diplomatic successes the more easily for having, through books and travel, got

into touch with the liberal ideas of the modern world. He is a good instance of the way in which a lettered cosmopolitanism can broaden while it elevates a man's patriotism, and so make him apt for diplomacy, not as a thing of stratagems and spoils, but of enlightened advance for all mankind. And Col. Hay, too, like Motley, has the consolations of philosophy and the approval of the judicious to fall back upon, when the heathen rage at him in the Senate, and he that sitteth in the White House is the prey to his own weaknesses and fears.

NOTES ON JAPAN.—I.

KOBE, April 20, 1900.

I count myself fortunate in receiving my first impressions of Japan from an interior province. In order to witness to best effect the work of Japanese volcanoes, both active and extinct, I at once, on arrival, left Yokohama for the province of Joshiu, where Mt. Asama is in eruption, about one hundred miles from the eastern shore of the island. Two days before reaching Maebashi, the capital, violent detonations had startled the people of the city, though thirty miles distant. Clouds of ashes darkened the sky and left a thin film of deposit over all the region. The crater was sending up a majestic pillar of cloud continually, making a very impressive addition to the landscape, which in itself is exceedingly picturesque. All the peaks of the mountain chain which here forms the backbone of the island are of volcanic origin, and many of the extinct craters are of vast dimensions; that of Haruna, which we visited, being two miles and a half in diameter and enclosing a lake 4,000 feet above sea level.

The ride up the valley of the Tonegawa, the longest stream coming down from the mountains, was through a most highly cultivated region, in which three crops are often raised annually. At this season of the year the fields are green with barley and wheat. In May these will be harvested, and the fields planted with rice, after which certain vegetables are grown. As we ascended the valley to greater heights, the portions incapable of irrigation were covered with tea-plants, and, higher up, with mulberry trees to furnish food for silkworms. Maebashi is, indeed, the chief centre of the silk industry of the Empire. Higher still, the mountain sides are devoted to the cultivation of forests, though this industry has been so lately introduced that the trees are all small, large areas being covered with seedlings of only two or three years' growth.

On witnessing the high state of cultivation to which the fields are already subjected, and the extent to which the arable land is already occupied, one soon becomes oppressed with the problem of what is to become of the increasing population after a few years. Everywhere one sees swarms of children, and, on consulting statistics, it appears that the present rate of increase is about 500,000 annually, or a little more than one per cent. Ten years ago the population was about 37,000,000. At the present time, including the 3,000,000 annexed in Formosa, there are 46,000,000. An important factor in the future increase is to be found in the decreasing death-rate resulting from improved sanitation and the dissemination of higher medical skill. The effect of these is especially perceptible in the death-rate among children. Taking all these things into consideration, it is not too much to expect that, with a continuance of present social conditions, the population of the Empire would double within the next fifty years, reaching 100,000,000 shortly after the beginning of the second half of the century.

This prospect has not failed to attract the attention of Japanese statesmen, and is leading them to speculate upon the means and measures by which their rapidly multiplying population can be provided with subsistence. Some relief is found in the apparent extent of the land which is yet uncultivated. The total area is 146,000 square miles, of which only about one-tenth is under cultivation. But the remaining nine-tenths is either so mountainous or so far north that it is either incapable of cultivation or of producing more than a meagre amount. With the pressure of population which has been felt for these many centuries past, it is altogether probable that there is some permanent reason why the neglected land is left untouched. Much is on so steep an incline that nothing but forests could be maintained upon it. Terracing has already gone on about as fully as is practicable.

Another source of relief might seem to exist in the possibility of reclaiming the shallow bays which so frequently indent the coast. Here nature is already steadily at work to increase the arable area. The mountain streams are unusually active in the transportation of débris to the lower levels, and are rapidly pushing deltas out from their mouth and silting up the bays into which they empty. The frequent earthquakes which occur (one of which has interrupted me at the present writing, causing the house to sway back and forth at a rate which would have been alarming anywhere else) are doubtless connected with a gradual elevation of the land. This is evidenced by the numerous delta terraces forty or fifty feet high which characterize all the lower valleys; also by the recent borings of certain forms of sea animals in the rocks several feet above tide level. In some cases, also, plans have been proposed for building dykes, as has been done in Holland, to shut off the sea, and then pump out the few feet of water that would still remain in the bay. But, when the utmost has been done, it can by no means double the area of arable land, and certainly nothing can be done to increase the productiveness of the land already under cultivation.

At Sendai, in the northern part of the Empire, I met an enthusiastic Secretary of Agriculture, who was engaged in introducing American ploughs. But throughout most of the country these would be more than useless, for the process of terracing the valleys to increase the production of their most important staple, rice, has broken them up into such small fields that ploughs would be unavailable. As it is, human muscle is cheaper than any other force in the cultivation of crops. Every corner is reached by the spade. Every weed is removed by hand; and every particle of fertilizing material is applied to the right place at the right time. In the matter of making the soil productive, the Japanese have little to learn from Western nations.

A serious drawback to the cultivation of the lowlands exists in the turbulence of the rivers. These are all short, and descend in very rapid gradients, making them override all bounds on occasion of the severest storms. It is not unusual to cross a small stream on a railroad bridge half a mile long. In ordinary times this space is mostly covered with an expanse of coarse ground brought down by the previous flood, but, shortly after a heavy shower in the mountains, ten or fifteen feet of water would be dashing over it with irresistible force. The dikes, or levees, to protect the outlying portions of the plain have been in existence for many centuries, and have been constantly raised; but even now they are by no means always effectual in their protection. In several cases I have noticed places where a recent flood has broken through the embankments, and covered large areas (in one case, I should judge, two or three square miles) with two or three feet of coarse ground. Painfully the ruined farmers were at work shovelling this in mounds, and thus reclaiming a portion of their buried fields. The rivers are also in many cases building up their beds, so that the railroad finds it cheaper to tunnel under them than it is to bridge them.

Some relief for the prospective increase in population would seem to be practicable through emigration. But that is more and more becoming subject to limitations. Formosa is still an unsolved problem, and is largely preoccupied. The Hawaiian Islands are likely to be closed to the Japanese, now that they are annexed to the United States; and the East is already full. Further economy would also seem out of the question. As it is, everything in Japan is utilized. The smallest twigs from the trees are bound into bundles and carried to market on the shoulders of men, boys, and women. Even the leaves in the forests are carefully scraped up and carried away for fuel. The only extravagance of the Japanese is in the gratification of their æsthetic nature. The cherry trees, which are now in bloom, and make every roadside brilliant with clusters of white, bear no edible fruit. They exist for beauty's sake alone. The roadsides near all temples are also everywhere lined with majestic rows of tall cryptomerias, trees much resembling our red cedar, and frequent hilltops are crowned with Buddhistic shrines and temples and their accompanying groves of fantastic Japanese pines. But it would be a sorry day for Japan and the world if they should sacrifice their sense of beauty upon the altar of a gross utilitarianism; while, even then, the limit would soon be reached and the prospect be worse than before. The rate of wages is already as low as is compatible with comfortable existence.

One cannot face the problems of the East without being oppressed with the irresistible force of the Malthusian law that, while population tends to increase in geometrical ratio, production can increase only in arithmetical ratio. England has somewhat postponed the day of reckoning by her colonial system and her great manufacturing development. But Japan, though having some coal, is not rich in mineral wealth, and even her coal is limited and of poor quality.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

LAW DEGREES AT OXFORD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The University of Oxford has within the last few days opened the degrees of B.C.L. (Bachelor of Civil Law) and of D.C.L. (Doctor of Civil Law) to persons who have obtained a degree in Arts in other universities, as, for example, at the University of Harvard, of Yale, or Toronto.

Your readers may well ask, first, what is the exact meaning of this change; and, secondly, why it should interest the readers of the *Nation*. My purpose is to answer as briefly as may be each of these questions.

The essence of the change or reform is, that it enables B.A.'s of American or colonial universities to complete their study of law at Oxford, and, after going through the severest legal examination which exists in England and, I think I may say, in the United Kingdom, to obtain a degree which is a real mark of merit because it must be the result of systematic and careful study of the principles both of English and of Roman Law. Some fifty years ago, it is true, an Oxford B.C.L. or D.C.L. was no more proof that a man who held the title had any knowledge of law than an Oxford B.D. now shows that the holder of the degree is a profound theologian. But during the last thirty years, owing mainly to the energetic labors of Mr. James Bryce, when Professor of Civil Law, and of Mr. Holland, now Professor of International Law, the B.C.L. has been made a reality. It cannot be attained by any student who has not gone through a severe examination in the principles of English and of Roman Law. The man who in such an examination gains a first-class, or even a good second-class, must know more of English law than has been acquired by most young men when about to be called to the bar, and more of Roman law than is ever known to most of our leading lawyers, or, be it spoken with all respect, to many of our judges. What, too, is of far more consequence than any mere degree, the young man who has read with success for the B.C.L. examination has of necessity given proof of capacity for legal thought, and has also been compelled to study law not piecemeal but systematically.

Of the D.C.L. degree it is not necessary to say much. It cannot be obtained by any one who has not produced a dissertation of merit on some legal topic; but, though the standard by which a dissertation for the D.C.L. degree is judged is rising every year, it must be admitted that one who has passed successfully through an examination for a B.C.L. can, if not always, yet usually, after the lapse of a due number of years and by a little industry, obtain the D.C.L. Up till the passing, however, of the recent University enactment (or, as we call it, statute), the B.C.L. examination, and therefore both the B.C.L. and the D.C.L. degree, were not accessible to any man who had not taken the degree of B.A. at Oxford. A young man, therefore, who had passed through his university career, say, at Harvard, could not take a law degree at Oxford unless he was prepared (which, of course, he hardly ever was) to become again an undergraduate and go through the whole of the Oxford University curriculum. This has now been altered. A B.A. of Harvard or of Toronto can now come to Oxford and obtain, subject to certain conditions, the B.C.L. and ultimately the D.C.L. degree.

The conditions are in substance three: he must be of the age of twenty-one; he must study law at Oxford for eight terms—that is, for two University years; he must pass with success through the B.C.L. examination—or, in other words, he must have mastered the principles both of English and of Roman Law. These conditions are in one respect less onerous than they sound. The University year consists in reality of six months in each year. The time, therefore, during which, *e. g.*, an American B.A. must study law at Oxford in order to obtain the B.C.L. degree, is in reality twelve months.

The answer to my first question almost supplies the reply to my second inquiry. The reason why the recent statute passed at Oxford may interest readers of the *Nation*, is that among them are many young men who, having worked at law, say, at Harvard, Yale, or Toronto, wish to complete their legal studies in Europe. Such students have hitherto all but invariably gone to Germany or France. They may now begin to consider whether, in some cases, they had not better come to England. Oxford, now that the University has opened its law degrees to B.A.'s of other universities, presents some very real advantages to American students. They will, no doubt, find that, at the present moment, there is a lack of special arrangements for post-graduate study. This is a defect which, if once the students whom I have in my mind begin to frequent Oxford, will soon disappear. And, moreover, the legal knowledge in which the graduates of an American university are most likely to be deficient is, I conceive, acquaintance with Roman law, and Roman law is assuredly well taught at Oxford.

It must be, again, a great advantage for a student from America that in England he can be taught law without the necessity of at the same time mastering the difficulties of a foreign language. Nor will the interest be slight to any one belonging to the English people of studying English law in the country whence the principles of his own law are derived, and where he can actually watch the working of the English courts. But it is certainly not my object either to vaunt the advantages to be derived from legal study at Oxford, or to depreciate the admirable instruction afforded to advanced students by the professors of Germany or of France. The aim of this letter will be attained if I shall have made clear the nature of the change just introduced at Oxford, and the reasons why it may be of some practical interest to a limited but increasing class of American students.—I am, sir, An Observer.

Oxford, May 11, 1900.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I leave it to your *volonté* to print the following remarks, suggested by your words on Prof. Münsterberg's article on education: "I wonder what they think of it at Harvard." I wish to call attention to one result of the elective system which he has *not* mentioned, and which might even strengthen his argument—a result disgraceful yet most common, and whose truth cannot be ignored. I refer to the undisguised custom of electing "snap courses"—courses in which, for various reasons, good marks can be made without much work. For the desire for honors and the fear of being thought a "dig" are two very potent factors in determining a choice.

A Graduate Student.

Cambridge, May 21, 1900.

THE TRANSVAAL ISSUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Why, but for the purpose of humbugging the American people, do so many of those who champion the "Boer cause" affect to liken the present war to that in which the colonists of this country fought for *their* independence?

In the case of this country the colonists fought for a just principle, *i. e.*, against *taxation without representation*. Are the Boers fighting for that? On the contrary, this war was brought about by them in their endeavor to maintain that very injustice against which the colonists of this country rebelled. In the war of the Revolution, the *people* of the mother country were entirely with the *people* of this country, and, but for the fact that kings and ministers in those days had power for mischief which, happily, they now no longer possess, there would have been no such war.

In this Transvaal war, Britain stands for freedom and civilization; the Boer "Republic" represents the barbarism and the despotism that are a survival of the dark ages. While glib enough in the name of "freedom" and "justice" on his own behalf, the Boer has no use for those terms where others are concerned—witness the spoliation of the foreigner, upon whom he has hitherto been dependent; witness, also, his treatment of the native people, whom he has continuously robbed and otherwise shamefully ill-used, so that not the least onerous part of Great Britain's task has been her efforts to prevent the native tribes from rising and wreaking bloody vengeance upon their hated oppressors, the Boers.

Much has been said in reprobation of the employment of the might of the British Empire against a feeble and impotent foe; but what is there in weakness, as such, that justifies it or calls for its perpetuation? A well-intentioned weak Power is bad enough; but, surely, a weak Power actively inimical to progress and civilization cannot reasonably claim consideration on the score of its weakness!

Yours very truly, Alfred Swan.

New York, May 21, 1900.

HOW THE MONEY GOES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The city I shall hereinafter refer to is situate on the South Atlantic Coast, has a population of about 65,000 inhabitants, two-thirds negroes. The city was of considerable commercial importance before the civil war, but, since the close of that conflict, its shipping and commerce have been diverted to other more enterprising cities, so that its trade now has practically become extinct, its once busy wharves are now empty and going to decay, and very few vessels now enter its harbor. The city, however, has the largest voting population of any in the State, hence it has a firm hold upon

its Senators and Representatives in Congress, and, through their influence, has been and is still able to make yearly raids upon the national Treasury—at first for moderate appropriations, to be followed up subsequently by others of large proportions for the prosecution and completion of whatever schemes may be pending.

One of the earliest of these jobs was the appropriation of some four million dollars for deepening the channel leading to the city, to which a deep-draught vessel rarely ever passes. This improved means of communication necessitated, in the minds of the inhabitants, a new custom-house for the receipt of customs dues not collectible. Many thousands were expended in erecting a new building which is as useless as the channel.

By this time, it was learned by experience that it was a great deal easier to get in touch with Government appropriations than regain lost commerce, and a post-office was hit upon, and a commodious and costly one was erected in a city with little or no commerce.

Now that the flow of the golden coin had become perennial, it devolved upon a standing committee of the town to concoct plausible schemes, mostly of a chimerical nature, that should render the natural modesty of their Representative less embarrassing. Where evil against the public is in contemplation, reasons can always be adduced to conceal its primary object, and give color of innocence to schemes however questionable. Such were not slow in maturing in the fertile brains of those whose duty it was to concoct them. With these secured, another raid is now being made, and the demand is for the establishment of a soldiers' home and sanitarium near this defunct city, and also for a further appropriation of $250,000 to run a one-horse show, dignified by a long and high-sounding name.

But the impertinence of this town reached its climax when its begging committee boldly demanded from its pliant and servile Senator, aided by the Secretary of the Navy, that, inasmuch as there is no society at Port Royal, the $500,000 appropriated by the House for the improvement of the naval station at Port Royal should, by an amendment to the Navy bill, be diverted towards building a naval station at this defunct city, at an ultimate expense probably of five to seven million dollars, and that the splendid navy-yard at Port Royal, built in the finest harbor on the Atlantic Coast, on whose deep and broad waters the whole of our navy can ride in safety, should be abandoned and left to rot. Through Senatorial courtesy this preposterous proposition was agreed upon and duly enacted into law, and the magnificent Port Royal navy-yard, with its dry-dock that is able to accommodate the largest vessel in our navy, the large wharf and dock, the large and commodious shops, warehouses, and dwellings, are left to decay. HONESTY.

SOUTH CAROLINA, May 15, 1900.

"ON THE HIP."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The phrase "to catch [or "have"] on the hip" occurs three times in Shakspere: twice in the "Merchant of Venice" and once in "Othello." It means, of course, a certain advantageous hold in wrestling. The dictionary of the Philological Society cites no earlier instance of its use than 1460; but it was in the language more than 200 years before that. In the 'Ancren Riwle' (early thirteenth century) we read: "The grimme wrastlare of helle breid [caught] up on his hupe [hip] and werp [threw] mid [with] the haunche turn."

While I am "on the hip," I will make a remark on the curious phrase "smote them hip and thigh," which occurs once in the Bible: Judges xv., 8 (A. V.). I suppose nobody knows exactly what it means, except that it was a very effective smiting; but one feels a certain vigor and agreeableness in the phrase that have commended it to many later writers. The Hebrew, according to Dr. Moore (Polychrome Bible), signifies "leg on thigh," and the doctor remarks that "the exact meaning is not known." The LXX follows the Hebrew with "leg [knēmēn] on thigh." The Vulgate specializes with "calf of the leg"—"ut stupentes suram femori imponerent"; in which "stupentes" seems to have been a gratuitous interpolation of Jerome's. Wyclif, of course, follows Jerome, having "he smot them with a great veniaunce [vengeance], so that astonyinge thei putten on the calf of the leg to the thigh"; while the later version renders it, "putteden the hyndere part of the hip on the thigh." Luther strikes out in a new direction, making Samson smite them "on shoulders and loins"; and so Coverdale, following Luther, as he was too much inclined to do, renders it, "both upon the shoulders and loins." The Bishops' Bible goes back to the Hebrew with "leg and thigh." The Geneva version renders it "smote them hip and thigh" (instead of "hip on thigh"), and the A. V. adopted the rendering.

WM. HAND BROWNE.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, May 16, 1900.

Notes.

One of the most notable in the series of memoirs of the civil-war period will be put to press this summer by Messrs. Scribner, being the Reminiscences of General J. D. Cox, widely known and esteemed as a military historian. His own service embraced the fields of West Virginia, Virginia (under Pope), Georgia, Tennessee (under Thomas), and North Carolina. But his Reminiscences will doubtless be as rich and important on the civil as on the military side, in view of General Cox's varied experience in public life in high places. They will make two stout volumes.

McClure, Phillips & Co. have nearly ready 'Coöperation and Public Welfare,' addresses at the annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science in Philadelphia last month.

R. H. Russell announces that he has purchased from M. Edmond Rostand the American copyright of his new play "L'Aiglon," and will publish the English translation in America simultaneously with the publication of the book in England and in Paris.

Henry Holt & Co. will soon publish 'English Political Philosophy, from Hobbes to Maine,' by Prof. William Graham of Queen's College, Belfast; 'Side Lights on English History,' edited by Ernest F. Henderson; and 'A Source-Book of English History,' by Dr. Guy Carleton Lee of Johns Hopkins.

D. Appleton & Co. will add to their "Literatures of the World" series 'A History of Sanskrit Literature,' by A. A. Macdonell, Deputy Professor of Sanskrit at Oxford. They announce also 'Familiar Fish,' by Eugene McCarthy, with an introduction by Dr. David Starr Jordan.

Paderewski is to be editor-in-chief of 'The Century Library of Music,' in twenty illustrated volumes, which the Century Co. will begin to issue in September.

Frederick Warne & Co. have nearly ready 'The Nuttall Encyclopædia of Useful Information,' compiled by the Rev. James Wood.

'A Summer Journey to Brazil,' by Alice R. Humphrey, and 'Old Ocean's Ferry,' by John Colgate Hoyt, are forthcoming from Bonnell, Silver & Co.

The Brothers of the Book, Gouverneur, N. Y., will print for subscribers alone, in a limited edition, 'Some Children's Bookplates: An Essay in Little,' by Wilbur Macey Stone.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, publish immediately 'Prophets of the 19th Century: Carlyle, Ruskin and Tolstoy,' by Mrs. May Alden Ward.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'The Integrity of Christian Science,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney.

The uniform edition of the works of Frank R. Stockton (Scribners) makes rapid progress. 'The Great Stone of Sardis,' 'The Girl at Cobhurst,' 'Mrs. Cliff's Yacht,' 'The Adventures of Captain Horn,' form, with one minor piece, four volumes more of this beautiful series. Each one has its frontispiece by a different hand.

We receive from Charles Scribner's Sons four of the freshest Baedekers, viz., guides to Austria, Central Italy, the Rhine (from Rotterdam to Constance), and Switzerland. It would be worth a little research to compare the European playground of to-day with that of half a century ago. Perhaps something is to be learned from the fact that the Austrian guide has now reached its 9th edition, following Central Italy (13th), the Rhine (14th), and Switzerland (18th). These works have made their name and need no praise.

The Macmillan Company is the publisher of a new series of geographies. R. S. Tarr of Cornell University and F. M. McMurry of the Teachers' College, Columbia University, are the authors of the first of the three volumes, which has just appeared under the title of 'Home Geography.' In several respects it is an innovation. It is smaller than the ordinary school geography. Its numerous maps are small to fit the page, but are unusually distinct, owing to the omission of all unnecessary detail. The illustrations are many, well chosen, and are frequently referred to in the text, so that the pupils cannot fail to examine them carefully. The matter also presents some innovations. A foundation of geographical knowledge is laid in the first 110 pages by a careful treatment of, first, the soil, hills, valleys, industries, government—a part of every child's environment; and, secondly, of other features, such as mountains, rivers, lakes, and the ocean, with some of which many children are not familiar from personal observation. Mere definitions are avoided, detailed descriptions and discussions being used in their place. A constant and consistent effort is made to emphasize the relation between man and the earth, his dependence upon his environment. In part ii. the earth as a whole is considered, with a steadfast exhibition of

only the important and essential facts. The causal idea is kept in the foreground, so that the pupil's "why" receives a frequent answer. The second volume in the series, promised for May, will be entitled 'North America,' and the third volume, in preparation, 'Europe and Other Continents.' Their appearance will be awaited with interest.

Richter's saying, "It is not the goal, but the course, that makes us happy," is justified by Mr. Mallock's 'Doctrine and Doctrinal Disruption' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan), and, however unconvincing his arguments or unpalatable his conclusion, there is abundant entertainment all the way along. He magnifies unduly the novelty of his ideas, which are, in fact, extremely stale. The only freshness is in his handling of them and in his amusing illustrations, such as that of "The Anglican Trans-Klondyke Ivory Company." His object is to show that the new criticism of the Bible puts a new face upon Protestant authority. He does not exaggerate the importance of the change in this particular. The Ritualists have rejoiced in it as accenting the superiority of the Church to the Bible as an organ of religious instruction. But Mr. Mallock argues that neither High Churchman nor Ritualist, whom he distinguishes throughout, nor Low Churchman nor Broad Churchman, has any logical security. The only logical thing for them to do is to make their peace with Rome. He is much more successful in showing up their inconsistencies than in recommending the Roman panacea, even where he resorts to an elaborate biological analogy, which, with audacious glee, he takes over from Herbert Spencer. It does not appear why the impotency of Anglicanism should be accounted to Rome for infallibility. Mr. Mallock writes as if Rome had no history by which to test the justice of his claims. He is aware that his *argumentum ad hominem* is as good as wasted on the Broad Churchman. It is more obviously wasted on all those who do not recognize the necessity for an organized infallibility for religion any more than for science or politics. Many will feel a sharp revulsion from his summons to believe, upon the Church's declaration, historical and other statements which have been discredited by natural and critical science.

The 'Life of Dwight L. Moody,' by his son (Fleming H. Revell Co.), is confessedly a provisional book, intended to forestall other biographies with which the public is threatened. The publishers have spared no pains to make it unattractive in its general appearance, and either the biographer has not made a good use of his material, or Mr. Moody's life was not such as to compel a successful biographical rendering. There was something in the immediacy of his method that would pretty certainly prove intractable to the annalist of his career. It is, however, not difficult, reading in and between the lines, to discover the elements that constituted the strength of this evangelist. There is no question of his entire sincerity; as little of his unwavering confidence in the traditional scheme of salvation, and in the Bible as a book of magical properties. There was a great deal of human nature in him, with such simple, homely traits as everywhere make friends. His devotion to his mother and to the Northfield woods and hills was eloquent of the goodness of his heart. With enthusiasm he mingled common sense and shrewdness in full measure. His face-to-face dealings with bad men and women were as remarkable as his manipulation of the swarming multitudes. His revival methods were an improvement on those of his famous predecessors. It is interesting to find him ordering the suppression of an hysterical woman where Wesley would have seen the hand of God; also, to find his educational schemes engrossing him more than his monster meetings as he grew old. His was a timely work; a little later, and the general acceptance of a scientific criticism of the Bible would have made it impossible. His numerous pictures are interesting—always the same dull, heavy face, with thick, sensuous lips and sleepy eyes; but that, too, improving steadily.

The 'Helen Keller Souvenir' (Volta Bureau, Washington), commemorating Helen's passing—with credit in advanced Latin—the Harvard final examination in 1899, is a noteworthy contribution to pedagogical science. The methods pursued in her education since 1893 are described by her three principal teachers, and Miss Keller herself gives a simple chronological statement of her studies. These separate accounts—especially that of Mr. M. S. Keith, who superintended the final preparation for college, and shows the manner in which his pupil learned algebra and geometry—teachers will find helpful and suggestive in their instruction of all children, not merely of the deaf and blind. The chief interest of the publication, however, centres in the admirable manner in which, "by a union of patience, determination, and affection," the almost insurmountable obstacles to Miss Keller's education were overcome. We are inclined to think that Miss A. M. Sullivan unconsciously underrates her pupil's original mental power, though doubtless she is correct in saying that "Helen Keller is neither a 'phenomenal child,' 'an intellectual prodigy,' nor an 'extraordinary genius.'" She evidently possesses an uncommon brain, to which she joins, as Mr. A. Gilman points out, "the inestimable advantage of a concentration that the rest of us never know," an unusual memory, and an enthusiasm for knowledge, with intense energy in its acquisition. A remarkable statement is made in a note by her instructor in voice development, that "she can, by placing her hand on the throat of a singer, determine the pitch of the tone he is singing, and can produce a tone of the same pitch with her own voice." There are some interesting photographs of Miss Keller and her teachers, Miss Sullivan and Mr. Keith.

In connection with the celebration, in which American delegates will take part, of the five-hundredth anniversary of the University of Cracow, in Austrian Poland, where Dr. Johann Faust studied magic, in order to regain his wealth and enjoyments after a life of extravagance and licentiousness, we may mention the issue of Dr. Henri Logeman's edition of 'The English Faust-Book of 1592' (Ghent: H. Engelcke). Though his personality has been obscured by extravagant fiction, this student at the University of Cracow was an historic character. The legend containing the popular story of his life was first published by the printer Spies of Frankfort-on-the-Main, in 1587, the second edition coming out the following year. So popular was this work, embodying as it does the superstitions and terrors of the old mediæval world, which was then passing away, that the book became very useful to the clergy. Two English translations came out as early as 1590, one of which was probably used by Marlowe as the basis of his drama. It was during a study of Marlowe's "Dr. Faustus" that Prof. Logeman felt the need of a reprint of the oldest extant edition of the poet's source, which in Dyck's edition is incomplete, besides swarming with inferior readings. Dr. Logeman had already, in 1898, published 'Faustus-Notes: A Supplement to the Commentaries on Marlowe's "Tragical History of Dr. Faustus,"' it being then understood that Miss H. A. Andrews of New York was about to publish a verbatim reprint of the English text. When unable to do this herself, Miss Andrews placed her copy, made from an original in the British Museum, into the hands of the professor of English philosophy in the University of Ghent, and we have now a trustworthy working basis for Faustus students. Dr. Logeman, who furnishes a luminous introduction of sixteen pages, has been unable to establish the identity of the translator. His text contains the whole of chapter sixtieth, which is omitted in Thoms's edition. His notes, which fill forty-one pages, though chiefly textual, after careful comparison with Spies's original German text, are also explanatory, and show easy familiarity with the whole literature of the subject.

Mr. Joseph Bédier, whose authoritative work on 'Les Fabliaux' was reviewed in these columns on its appearance, has entered the field in which M. Edmond Biré has distinguished himself, and he scores at the very start. He has published in separate form the two articles on Chateaubriand's trip to America which originally appeared in the *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France*, under the title 'Chateaubriand en Amérique—Vérité et Fiction' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). He has examined the accounts the great Romanticist gives of his wanderings in this country, and finds that it was physically impossible for him to have visited all the places mentioned as traversed by him, even allowing for a rapidity of travel that was unusual, not to say unheard-of, in those days. Having shown that Chateaubriand did not see all the places, he next proceeds to indicate the sources of Chateaubriand's information, which he drew from various writers, and which he generally embellished with the wondrous literary form of which he was such a consummate master. The booklet makes very interesting reading, and is a valuable contribution to the critical knowledge we now possess of Chateaubriand.

The *Argosy*, one of the best-known newspapers in the West Indies and South America, has just passed from the hands of Mr. James Thomson, its founder, proprietor, and editor, to the ownership of a limited liability company. The domicile of the paper is in Georgetown, British Guiana, but its circulation extends not only to the neighboring colonies, but to many far-off countries. Mr. Thomson (who is at present Mayor of Georgetown, the capital of the colony) is a man of vigorous character, strong brain-power, and much wit and humor. He will remain in British Guiana, where he has long made his home, and it is not unlikely that he will be an occasional contributor to the columns of his old journal. Mr. William

Macdonald, an experienced journalist, has become the editor of the *Argosy*.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for May opens with a suggestive sketch, by Prof. Grosvenor of Amherst College, of such parts of Russian history as illustrate the growth of the empire. Its abiding strength, in which he detects no symptoms of decay, is in the peculiar character of the common Russian: "Tenacious, docile, imitative, but not inventive; receptive, but not constructive; profoundly religious, as he understands religion; submissive to what he considers the will of God and the Czar." A series of outline maps show the successive acquisitions of territory from 1303 to the present time. Major W. A. Simpson, U.S.A., treats of the influence of geographical conditions on military operations in South Africa, and Mr. M. E. Kelton describes a systematic method of teaching geography. It appears to be similar to the Swiss "Heimatkunde," in basing the instruction on the "direct observation of geographical subject-matter as it occurs in the neighborhood of the school."

The veteran traveller and publicist A. Vámbéry writes in the *Rundschau* for May on the European rivalry in Persia, and the prospective influence of the German railroad to Bagdad upon the commercial relations between that country and Europe. The only two Powers seriously contending for commercial supremacy in the Shah's realm, of course, are Russia and England, and of these the former evidently has the better chances. Another article in the same number, on "Das Bettelwesen in Groszstädten," is by Dr. Emil Münsterberg, a specialist in matters pertaining to the care of the poor. He attacks his subject systematically, analyzing and defining the idea of begging and discussing its various phases. Several of the recorded experiences with professional beggars are not without a certain humor; thus, the case of the woman in Paris who, during a severe winter, managed to have her child baptized twelve times by a Protestant pastor and fourteen times by a Catholic priest, receiving at each performance of the ceremony one franc and a new dress. *Se non è vero, è ben trovato.* This can hardly be said of the story of disguised cripples successfully begging in New York on the pretence of having fought under Dewey, and, after being severely wounded in the attack on San Juan, suffered cruel treatment at the hands of the Spaniards in Cuba. Fiction, however, is worthily represented in the May *Rundschau* in a new story, "Neid," by Ernst von Wildenbruch.

The age of the earth is a question concerning which there is some popular curiosity. It is also a question of no little dispute between physicists and astronomers on the one side, and geologists on the other. Lord Kelvin, speaking for the former, will allow not more than 40,000,000 years, probably nearer 20,000,000, since the earth's crust solidified. Geologists demand in some cases ten or fifteen times as much as his maximum allowance, in order to account for the facts as they interpret them. The problem has recently been attacked along new lines by Dr. Joly, professor of geology and mineralogy in the University of Dublin (Scientific Transactions of the Royal Dublin Society, volume vii.). Taking the bulk of the ocean to be 339,248,000 cubic miles, the sodium contained in solution constitutes $15{,}627 \times 10^{12}$ tons. The rivers of the globe are estimated to discharge annually into the ocean 157,267,544 tons of sodium. On the assumption that all the sodium of the ocean has been delivered to it by the rivers at the same rate as at present, the age of the earth, since the formation of the primeval ocean, is estimated to be nearly one hundred million years. Certain corrections, however, are called for because the initial assumptions are not strictly true, and because of factors which cannot be safely set aside. Some of these corrections would increase and some decrease the above result. The author's final conclusion is that between 80 and 90 million years have elapsed since water condensed upon the earth. These figures are more satisfactory to most geologists than the estimates of Lord Kelvin.

The Yale Forest School, just founded by the liberality of the Pinchot family, has issued an interesting prospectus. It will for the present occupy the home of the late Prof. O. C. Marsh, but a summer-school of forestry at Milford, Pa., and large tracts in the Adirondacks for practical instruction are superadded to the local habitation at New Haven. The first term will open on September 27, 1900.

—Dr. Samuel A. Green has reprinted the 'Diary of Increase Mather,' edited by him for the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. It runs from March, 1675, to December, 1676, and is extended by a few pages from another diary kept by Mather between 1674 and 1687. Although the entries are very short, and the abbreviations are reduced to lowest terms —"ct.," for instance, stands for "Christ"— they let us look, as through little chinks in an old wall, right into the daily life of a Puritan parson 225 years ago. Mather was at that time about forty years old, minister in Boston, fellow at Harvard, and a leader in the colony. The mingling of cantankerousness and piety which characterized both him and his son Cotton appears frequently in these pages. Under the first head we find that he was greatly incensed by certain "scholars" at Cambridge who hinted that he was trying to be elected President of Harvard, and that he wished to remove the college to Boston; whereas, he says, "they knew I might have the presidentship if I would." Under the head of piety, we might quote almost daily references to his parish duties, to his sermons and prayers and fasts. Here, for example, are his private grounds for humiliation before the Lord (10 month, 1 day, 1675): "1. My old sins. 2. Prsent [progress], pride, sensuality, sloth, Hardness of Hrt. Not affected wth ye miserable state of N. E. as yr is cause for. 3. deficiency as to gifts. 4. The vnsuccessfullness of my labors. I doe little good in my generation. 5. The Reproaches wch some cast vpon me." He walked continuously in the fear of the Lord, and saw in everything a special providence. When the Lord favored, Mather was "enlarged," or "put upon preaching," or "quickened" to the extent of a two hours' sermon! If the sermon was shorter, he suspected that the Lord was not pleased. Sometimes he had human confirmation of his being the Lord's spokesman, *e. g.*, "This day, Cous. Coney wth me, who wth many Tears told me how much Hee was affected wth ye sermn. yesterday, saying I seemed to him as if I were come from Heav. & yt Hee had much adoe to forbear crying aloud in ye Meeting House as I was prching."

—On the public side, also, the Diary furnishes many interesting items. Boston was then beset by epidemics, first of fever, and later of smallpox. Provisions began to fail. An Indian war was in progress, causing losses among the outlying settlements and distress everywhere. "News comes," Mather records, "that on Septr. 1 the very day when we were thus fasting & others shd haue been so but would not, the Indians burnt 17 houses & killed one man at Deerfield, which I haue the more reason to take notice of in that my nephew Sam' Mather is Pastor there." The smallpox began its ravages at the Swan Tavern—a sign, Mather believed, "to testify God's displeasure agt the sin of drunkenness & yt of multiplying alehouses." How fierce life was, in spite of much Puritanism, we learn from the frequent references to violent crimes and to public hangings. Somebody erected a pillar under the gallows on which some Quakers had been hanged, and nailed to it a placard intimating that the Quakers' souls were "triumphing in [Heaven?] and their blood crying for Vengeance." "This is an ill Omen," remarks Mather. On Sept. 13, 1676, eight Indians were shot to death in Boston; on Sept. 21 three Indians and an Englishman were hanged. "Another Englishman that was condemned should this day have been hanged, but he died in prison. The like not known"—Mather adds, almost petulantly, as if the poor wretch had defrauded him of a pleasure—"yt a Man should die or be sick on the day appointed for his Execution." In July, 1677, women of Marblehead, coming out of church on the Lord's Day, set upon and slew two Indians who had been brought in as prisoners; so stimulating was the doctrine of the strenuous life to which our ancestors listened! These are but a few specimens culled from fifty pages of the printed diary; but they may serve to show that Dr. Green has done well to edit this genuine fragment of seventeenth-century New England. Many a significant item appears here which would be vainly sought in formal histories; and, as a true sign of authenticity, the character of the diarist is outlined in these quaint entries.

—'The Real French Revolutionist,' by Mr. Henry Jephson (Macmillan), is a study of the war in La Vendée. Whatever its fate may be elsewhere, it is sure of a welcome among those who resented most keenly the French caricatures of the Queen, and the *Schadenfreude* of Paris over the early reverses of Buller and his generals. Hatred is easily aroused, and, when once at the height, demands constant food. Accordingly, we have no doubt, many readers of the *Times*, after they had glanced at the South African telegrams, turned to the adjacent column headed "Continental Opinion," and work themselves into an enjoyable white heat by silently or openly denouncing the editorials of *La Croix* or *La Libre Parole*. Such persons will find page after page to their taste in this book of Mr. Jephson, and will be enabled to justify a modern antipathy on approved historical grounds. The same result, whether in physics or metaphysics, can often be secured by different processes, and so it is with history. For instance, the 'Annual Register' of 1793 and 1794 denounces the Vendean atrocities in terms which admit of no further emphasis, even from Mr. Jephson, but, leaving aside the evidence

which was accounted sufficient a hundred years ago, he now secures the same verdict from the testimony of other witnesses. "In recent years . . . startling facts have been discovered, details of events hitherto buried in obscurity have been unearthed, and the workings of the minds and the true characters of the many revolutionists revealed and laid bare to the world." Out of republican records Mr. Jephson secures his condemnation of the revolutionists. And what a condemnation it is may be inferred from the following passage: "His idea of 'liberty' was unrestrained license for himself to pillage, rape, rob, and murder with impunity, and he acted on it. His idea of 'equality' was to pull down all authority, and to put himself in the places of those he pulled down, and he acted on it; while his idea of 'fraternity' is graven for ever in letters of blood and fire throughout La Vendée." Putting this book beside Mr. Belloc's 'Danton,' we may say that modern critics are as far from agreeing on the net value of the Revolution as those contemporary with the movement were. Mr. Jephson gives a list of his authorities at the end, but he could have produced a stronger effect by giving chapter and verse for the different tragedies in his catalogue of crime. While we see no reason to doubt the long accepted view which places La Vendée among the black spots of the Revolution, we decline to accept Carrier and Turreau as its typical representatives.

—At a recent meeting of the Pedagogic Society of Christiania, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen confessed that he knew the young men and women of the present day only at a distance, but they showed to him a dangerous lack of idealism and character. To a great extent this has been due to literature and politics, which have relaxed the feeling for the ideal. Education, too, is at fault, being too little calculated to produce self-dependent men. "At bottom," said Nansen, "I am a weak man myself, but what I have of strength I owe to my severe bringing up. I will add that I do not exactly mean bodily punishment, but seriousness is required here as everywhere else in life. Children must be educated in self-control and self-help, and the teachers must assist by setting them a good example." He agreed with Prof. Hagerup, one of the speakers on the above occasion, that abolition of instruction in Latin is dangerous to science, on the future of which in Norway he looked with a certain doubt. This study was pursued for its own sake, not for any utilitarian purposes. Such pursuits promote idealism and strengthen the feeling for the ideal. Young men and women must be trained to do without enjoyments. They must not, as now, be exclusively lyrical, sentimental, and dreamy. Here fresh-air exercise may be of help, but not that outgrowth of modern fresh-air exercise, sport. That is dangerous. Record making and breaking spoils body and mind.

KING'S ITALIAN UNITY.

A History of Italian Unity: Being a Political History of Italy from 1814 to 1871. By Bolton King. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The structure of Mr. King's volumes is very clear and workmanlike. The chapters are short, averaging less than twenty pages in length, and each of the forty-three is connected with a prominent topic. Leading features are thus rendered conspicuous and less salient facts are kept in strict subordination. He divides the whole period, 1814-1871, into four parts, which bear the following titles: I. Preparing for Revolution, 1814-1846. II. The Revolution, 1846-1849. III. The Ten Years' Waiting, 1849-1859. IV. Italy United, 1859-1871. No one will find the least difficulty in understanding the reasons for such an allotment of the space, or will fail to recognize that Mr. King has selected the right landmarks for his boundary lines. Nor will any one question the soundness of his judgment in devoting more attention, relatively, to the events which crowd in between the accession of Pius IX. and the battle of Novara, than any other phase of the struggle.

Mazzini, in his essay on Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' maintains that no man who writes on such a subject can help giving his own measure. Carlyle, he says, seems to have pleased every one. Parties the most bitterly opposed to each other in matters of political principle are at one in praising his book. How can this be? "Can any author remain neutral in the presence of two opposing banners in such a contest? How is it possible to avoid taking sides in a conflict between such mighty resentments and such mighty hopes? Yet how is an author to make choice of either side without awakening the anger of those arrayed upon the other?"

If, as we may admit, the French Revolution is one standard by which the writer himself is tried, the Italian national movement is another. Between the Neapolitan Revolution of 1820 and the entry of Rome at the Porta Pia lie fifty years of political idealism, political experiment, diplomatic intrigue, and stern fighting. It is not possible that any historian who possesses convictions should approach the divergent views of republicans, federalists, and constitutional monarchists with his mind in the condition of blank impartiality. In Italy even more than in Germany appear those forces of nationality and democracy which have done so much to vex and to stimulate our age. The unitarian, anti-Austrian movement has, too, so many saints, heroes, and leaders of different fibre that one may be judged by the shrine which he selects. For it makes a great deal of difference whether one writes to glorify Mazzini, or Cavour, or Ugo Bassi, or Manin, or Garibaldi.

Mr. King does not leave us long in doubt with regard to his purposes, but unfolds them categorically in the first page of the preface. Neither is there any difficulty in discovering his point of view. He aims at two things, the composition of a trustworthy narrative, and a fresh introduction of the English to the Italians. "The Englishman's knowledge of the Italian Revolution is summed, it has been said, in the belief that it had something to do with Garibaldi and a red shirt. . . . The tie that united so closely the English and the Italians of the last generation seems slackening, and it needs more mutual knowledge to cement sympathy again." Here we see something which almost resembles a contradiction in terms, for if, as was the case, Englishmen and Italians shared the same spirit in 1860, the one people must still remember more of the other than is implied by this allusion to the red shirt. However, Mr. King's attitude is quite intelligible, and many will wish with him to see the old cordiality between England and Italy restored—that kind of cordiality which is witnessed to by the tablet on the Casa Guidi at Florence. With regard to his other point, Mr. King hardly seems to do justice by one of his predecessors. He says: "Outside a few limited studies, there is hardly an English or even a French writer who has treated the Italian history of the century with much pretence to accuracy or research." Mr. W. R. Thayer's 'Dawn of Italian Independence' is more than a "limited study," and should not have been wholly ignored.

For the rest, Mr. King is a supporter of what happened. He expends no vain regrets upon the disappointment of the Republicans, and his dislike of the papacy in politics is such that he does not lament the failure of Gioberti's "Primacy" scheme. Cavour is his "great man," though he can see faults. "With a conscience more robust than scrupulous," "somewhat careless of the smaller moralities," "to gain present success for his country, he sacrificed the more precious possession of her honor," "he repaid the Bourbons in their own coin of trickery." These are the limitations. But the concluding words of the book set all doubts at rest concerning Mr. King's real sentiments towards the politicians of the movement:

"Italy has youth, she has calmness and docility and devotion, she has humane ideals, a comparatively generous foreign policy. If her political virtues are less than those of some other nations, she is free from some of their vices. She has perhaps neither the population nor the wealth to play a great part in the European polity. But she stands in it on the whole for a sane and liberal policy at a time when sanity and liberalism are at a discount. When she has set her own house in order, her calmness, her moderation, her comparative care for the world's good may give her a great and helpful influence. But she needs another Cavour, wise and honest and loving liberty, to sweep away the little men whose fears and follies hold her back. Soon may he come to let her march again."

Thus, while Mr. King convicts Cavour of sharp practice towards the Government of Naples, at the time of Garibaldi's expedition, and feels that he even, in a measure, sacrificed Garibaldi, it is added that he would have sacrificed himself for Italy with equal readiness. "If we did for ourselves," Cavour told D'Azeglio, "what we are doing for Italy, we should be great knaves." "Cavour," said La Marmora, "was never a trickster; on the contrary, he was confident, often impetuous." In 1860 he certainly steered a devious course, but Mr. King urges that he was impelled by an overweening sense of national peril.

If Cavour is the hero of the piece, one can also name something which corresponds to the villain—clerical influence. Mr. King does not seek the praise which is awarded to the impartiality of indifference. The papacy—though not so much Pius XI. as churchmen like Lambruschini and Antonelli—is the alien force which, in his mind, most retarded emancipation and still prevents Italy from securing the full first-fruits of her liberty. "I have done my best to do justice to all sides, though I have not attempted to conceal my sympathies. I make no apologies if I have said hard things of the Papacy. For Catholicism as a religion I trust I have shown all respect; the Papacy *quâ* political institution is subject to political criticism, and I have said less than the truth rather than more." It is not so

much that Mr. King condemns individual popes and prelates, although he sees little good outside the liberal clergy who were crushed. He opposes the whole clerical system, "in head and members," as it stands revealed by its policy towards liberalism and progress in Italy since the Congress of Vienna.

This aspect of the work is very well illustrated by Mr. King's account of the Syllabus, December, 1864, and the celebrated Law of Guarantees which the national Parliament passed in its first session after Rome became the capital. The weakness of Pius IX. in the critical days of 1848, when he was called on to stand by his early principles, and his repressive government of Rome after the return from Gaeta, are bad enough, but they yield to the damage done by the Holy See after it had been captured by the Ultramontanes. The Syllabus is a proclamation of the Papacy to the world after all symptoms of revolt within the ranks have been met and checked. Mr. King holds that by it "the Church threw down the gauntlet to progress. The Encyclical *Quanta Cura* and the Syllabus, or summary of false opinions, that accompanied it, mark the divorce that the Ultramontanes had made between the Papacy and civilized government. It is an error, says the Syllabus, that 'the Pope can or ought to be reconciled to or compromise with progress or liberalism or modern civilization.'"

But, however strongly he may sympathize with the freedom of thought which the Syllabus assails, Mr. King's special brief against the document is of a political nature. "It condemned religious toleration in Catholic countries, secular schools, civil marriage and divorce. Legal security for liberty of conscience and worship, said the Encyclical, is 'liberty of perdition.'" The worst thing about the Syllabus is its hint of temporal punishments. "In its full mediævalism it asserted the independence of the ecclesiastical power, the divine origin of the Church's laws, and their supremacy over any lay legislation."

Mr. King, when thus dealing with modern clerical claims at their maximum, preserves a calmer tone than Garibaldi, Crispi, or Nicotera would have done in 1864, but the attempt of the Church to use all its available machinery against liberal government elicits from him strong expressions of opinion. The Law of Guarantees comes in just at the close of his work, and he does not discuss it in full detail. Yet what he does say bears the character of a parting quip directed against an old adversary. He thinks Sella the most clear-sighted of the Italian politicians at this juncture, for he urged that the State should retain "its powers of defence against clerical hostility." At any rate the Law of Guarantees, in spite of misgivings, was made "in perfect good faith, and, had the Vatican sought peace, it would have been observed in the spirit as well as in the letter." After what has already been said, the reader will not be surprised that Mr. King's last word on the "Roman Question" is this: "If the Papacy still tries to drag down Italy in a common ruin, it may succeed in part and for a time. One can only pray that some day humanity may seem of greater moment than the ends of sect and party. Italy can afford to wait."

Among the many good qualities of Mr. King's work is the absolute frankness which it shows, without parade, in disclosing to the full the sources upon which it rests. At the end of the second volume may be found an excellent classified bibliography of the sources used, with editions and dates. When a pronounced statement is made, the authority for it is almost always given in a footnote, and the text throughout is very free from petty misrepresentation or special pleading. Besides giving full notes and the bibliographies, Mr. King devotes a part of the preface to describing the classes of information which he has not used. The general character of his material is indicated when one says that he has been confined to the resources of the British Museum. At most he has not gone outside England for his data. He thus leaves the mass of contemporary newspapers unseen, and has been unable to follow the governmental publications step by step. With these exceptions, the British Museum contains almost everything in print, and Mr. King's bibliography of 900 works consulted forms a fairly complete bibliography of the subject down to the present date.

The first of the two volumes, plus the first hundred pages of the second, will prove the most permanently valuable part of this history. Down to the Armistice of Villafranca, there is a great deal of reliable evidence in plain sight, and during the past forty years no government has been more generous in opening its archives to students than Italy. But, of course, only a part of the secrets can be let out at a time, and, beginning with the Sicilian Expedition, mystery still hangs in dense veils about a host of particular acts. The publication of the Ricasoli papers, while certainly assisting investigation, has proved very tantalizing too. What they imply in the way of supplement quite equals what they have solved.

The last decade of the Italian movement must, then, remain but partially revealed until the issues which are involved have lost their practical importance. And as the Roman Question is one of the most prominent during that period, the archives may not be unlocked for another generation. Historians will regret this check to their curiosity the more as the time is intrinsically a difficult one. It was a comparatively easy matter, after Magenta, Solferino, the plébiscites, and the expedition of the Mille, to declare the kingdom of Italy. The crux of the situation was the establishment of sound traditions of government. The interval, 1860-70, has, too, a mixed character. While Venice and Rome still remained outside the boundaries of the new state, the stage of revolution and conspiracy must continue. On the other hand, the administration of Victor Emmanuel's kingdom must be conducted according to normal, and not according to revolutionary, principles. With the utmost need of stability and prudence in domestic government, the spirit of unrest and territorial expansion still remained in the air. Obviously the situation demanded a prime minister of genius, and Cavour, while dying at a happy moment for his reputation, left no one behind him who possessed suitable qualities. Ricasoli, Rattazzi, La Marmora, Menabrea, and Lanza, all received a chance, but the policy of each proved weak, shifting, and unsatisfactory at critical points. Chronologically, the Italian movement may be divided into five acts of ten years each. The last act, even when all lies bare, will be a hard one to present, and though Mr. King enters upon it at relatively great length, this part of his work is confessedly tentative.

A good illustration of the obstacles which confront the historian of modern Italy is afforded by the events of the Aspromonte year, 1862. The mutual relations of Garibaldi, Rattazzi, and Victor Emmanuel are of great consequence and extremely difficult to make out. The episode centres about the months March and April, when Garibaldi was maturing plans for his first invasion of the Papal States. How much did Rattazzi and the King know of the volunteer programme, and how far did they sanction it by coöperation or connivance? Rattazzi stated to the Chamber, June 3, 1862, that he had promised Garibaldi the consolidation of the peninsula, but not by irregular means. Bixio, Nicotera, Mme. Rattazzi, Torelli, and Castelli, all of whom had some personal knowledge of the matter, confirm this assertion with more or less divergence in point of detail. On the other side, an equally large number of credible witnesses is drawn up. Boggio, Ricasoli, Crispi, and Guerzoni are some of those who at the same moment believed in Rattazzi's complicity with the raiders. The case is still further complicated by partial proof of a secret meeting between Garibaldi, Rattazzi, and Victor Emmanuel after the arrest of volunteers at Sarnico. Until further evidence is forthcoming, a question so contested cannot be cleared up to the satisfaction of bystanders.

We have noticed those aspects of Mr. King's history which seemed to us most prominent. We shall conclude with a few words concerning his characteristics as a politician and as a writer. Here it must be said that the present work does not rely for its effect upon any devices of rhetoric, though at times a generous idea or a heroic act may produce a stroke of eloquence. It is in part a narrative and in part an essay; never a panegyric. Mr. King has a warm sympathy for liberalism and an admiration for the Italian genius; but he does not cloak the subterfuges to which all the leading politicians resorted for getting the better of Austria, nor does he gloss over the intellectual and moral apathy which set in so soon after the union of the Sicilies with Piedmont. He espouses the cause of Piedmont, and in criticising her enemies deals harder blows to the Papacy than to Austria. Piedmont, if occasionally unscrupulous, was on the right side. The Papacy was both unscrupulous and on the wrong side.

Mr. King's style of writing is well adapted to his conception of the task. It is clear, calm, and unhurried. It expresses in temperate form the results of careful and arduous research. These volumes have been *un ouvrage de longue haleine* and will not soon lose their value as a worthy addition to our knowledge of a magnificent subject.

MORE NOVELS.

The Greatest Gift. By A. W. Marchmont. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: F. M. Buckles & Co.

The Voice of the People. By Ellen Glasgow. Doubleday, Page & Co.

White Butterflies, and Other Stories. By Kate Upson Clark. New York: J. F. Taylor & Co.

The Soul and the Hammer. By Lina Bartlett

Ditson. New York: Godfrey A. S. Wieners.

The Immortal Garland. By Anna Robeson Brown. D. Appleton & Co.

Garthowen. By Allen Raine. D. Appleton & Co.

The Last Lady of Mulberry. By Henry Wilton Thomas. D. Appleton & Co.

Arden Massiter. By Dr. William Barry. The Century Co.

'The Greatest Gift' is a story wherein, from beginnings not incredible, every one goes on to behave as unnaturally as possible, while yet realism is aimed at by such boring device as the introduction of an omnipresent boy, who talks like a dictionary of slang, and plays practical jokes. It is the story of a girl's unnatural self-sacrifice—unnatural even for a girl. By it, all the characters become involved in scrapes which for evitability would have put the Peterkin family to the blush. The good offices of the Lady from Philadelphia are performed by an all-conquering editor. This hero combines a hard head with a detective's brain and a blameless heart. Small wonder that he is retained as an advocate by all parties, and that a shining talent for benevolent quibbling should have free play. The strange part of the matter is that the story, though preposterous, is interesting. It is on the whole well told, and one or two scenes are dramatically effective from sheer naturalness. Such is the telephone scene, where the effect of a certain name on a bystander is to be noted, and a conversation is improvised adroitly introducing the name; such, too, the chapter where the young girl is saved by her sister from the midnight murderer. Perhaps a girl who keeps cool under such circumstances is less probable than one who immolates herself and her lover for the happiness of an uncle and a cousin; but she is nicer to read about. The trustful acquiescence of the immolated lover is unusual. In spite of its foibles, however, the tale will be read to the end by one who begins it. It will not destroy the interest if we add that all comes out as it should in a novel, even unto the extinction of the widow, faint with pursuing the desirable hero.

Miss Glasgow's novel presents a comprehensive picture of Virginia in the years following the Reconstruction. First there is life in Kingsborough, an old town whose "proudest boast was that she had been and was not"—her people "a people without a present." Then the scene shifts to Richmond's fashionable society and the very pulse of the machine politic. There is a closely observant treatment of all classes—the negro, the poor white, the aristocrat. There are, moreover, divers well-drawn types in character, as well as in class, familiar, yet individual; a blustering ex-General, fierce in fight and fiercely hospitable in peace; a war widow wearing a Confederate button, and saying, "The women of the South have never surrendered"; the patrician Judge; the young girl in whom pride of race is stronger than self; Uncles and Aunties and pickaninnies, and the white-trash farmer, scorned by black and white alike. Out of this last unheroic class the author has evoked her hero, and the novel is a history of his struggles, failures, and successes, with the inevitable clash of races at the last. It is a faithful panorama of Southern life and character, and could have been written only by one reading deeply into the region and the epoch. Robert Louis Stevenson somewhere remarks that "a man who knew how to omit would make an Iliad of a daily paper." The talent for omission is the one chiefly missed in Miss Glasgow's work. Especially in the realm of landscape does commission run wild. The most thrilling moments of the story are hyphenated by purple patches of scenery. Every emotion has its landed estate, and it is the weary reader who pays the tax. This lack of proportion is surprising in a writer who describes with delicious humor the florid oratory of a Southern political convention.

It is unusual to find so wide a range of scene and person in one collection of short stories as is bounded by the covers of 'White Butterflies.' Their author is at home in the region of the semi-supernatural, the historic, and the realistic, and can reproduce alike the air and language of Wisconsin and Maine. The story that gives the book both its name and its pretty cover is, to our thinking, the weakest of the series; the strongest, the two marked "true," of early New England characters, the old Parson and the so-called Witch. In these there is, for the reader, a veritable translation into a bygone day. "Solly," the poor old weakling, whose love for his unreasonable wife converts him into an energetic laborer, is another good story, and so is that of "Tid's Wife," who could not endure life among the miners, and that of "Tomlin Dresser," who disappeared for a year in a fit of jealousy. In each of these a strongly dramatic incident is introduced, ringing both true and real. In the sketches of romance, pure and simple, the grasp is less sure, although not one is devoid of interest.

With much that is mawkish and more that is amateurish in 'The Soul and the Hammer' (familiar traits in novels of painting, sculpture, and music), there is an unaffectedly religious tone that is not without its appeal. The scene is laid in Paris, in the right-minded Bohemian salon of a certain divinely perfect Adrienne, whose only fault is that of being too good, strive as the author will to make us believe that she had a few faults of temper. Strange to say, this artificial creation stands out, palpable and engaging, even to the reader. An incident hinging on the anti-Semite agitation of the Dreyfus era lends a glint of historic interest to the story.

'The Immortal Garland,' if not an entirely strong work itself, is the work of a strong hand. A definite purpose runs through the story—the inculcation of the lesson that "the immortal garland is to be run for, not without heat and dust," in Milton's words; that work is the only educator of man and the only developer of art. Gilbert Carne, putting his whole intellect into his dramatic work and his whole understanding into helping his friends to do their best, is the dominant figure in the novel. The gospel of salvation by labor for one's self and others is what he preaches with lip and life, and his is a fine and interesting figure, standing, however, rather for a noble creed than a living person. How the most promising of his disciples turned back, and the least promising strode on victoriously, and how, in his loosely girt armor, that one fell by the way who lived in his sensations alone, working only by the fitful light of his own moods, may be read in the very readable pages of an interesting story. The literary quality of the book is excellent. There are some admirable criticisms on dramatic art and the interpretation of Shakspere. "To *Iago*," writes Gilbert in his journal, "things were not fixed but relative. Has any one ever shown his exultation when he sees the simpler man go frantic from the same passion of jealousy which he himself was conscious of mastering? . . . If I ever act him it shall be as a ruthless intellect, towering above the others and knowing it, at the expense of a total lack of emotion, kindliness, or delicacy of feeling." And that is a charming scene where Gilbert, who is about to act *Hamlet*, talks over her part with his *Ophelia*, and, unfelt, guides her into thinking out the character, whereas hitherto she had given a merely graceful interpretation, following a fine dramatic instinct alone.

The author's marked talent for characterization is perhaps the source of one of the blemishes in a clever and thoughtful work. She has made elaborate likenesses and has herself directly skyed them. Such are those of the hero's mother and sister, who, in view of their early dismissal, might as well have been sketched—a mode of portraiture in which the writer has shown herself equally able. Finally, we find a moral as well as constructive collapse from exalted beginnings in the airy attitude taken towards the "thoroughly emancipated" pair of lovers, with "natures simple and emotional drifted over from the Elizabethan age." Their fault stands uncondemned, and the brand of Philistinism is fastened on those who blame. This conclusion is jarringly at odds with the previous trend of the book—a plea, one would have said, for the reign of Law as well as of labor and kindness, so strongly put that one feels, whether as novel-reader or moralist, cheated out of retribution.

In the pretty idyl of 'Garthowen' are found the usual features of Welsh stories—the simple manners, devout piety, shrewd tact, clairvoyant tendencies of the Welsh peasant, with temperament finely touched by wild Welsh scenery of mountain and coast and by romantically strong clan feeling. Allen Raine has told well a graceful little story, full of these pleasant things. To read it is to spend an hour in Wales in a healthful, buttermilky way.

The Italy of New York has had many reporters, and some very good ones. But in Henry Wilton Thomas has arisen its historic playwright if not historian. His tale of "Mulberry" is conceived and executed in so faithful a spirit and manner that it makes the reader for the time being quite oblivious of any region west of the east side of the Bowery and of every mind and disposition not an Italian's. Nothing could be better than the reproduction of the color and movement of the colony, except the replica of that labyrinthine simplicity, the Italian character, never exalted beyond garlic and the lie, never plebeianized below the love of beauty and the vendetta. How much of Italy is in the phrase of the heroine, "I think yellow boots for a bride are very sympathetic"! How much in the emigration of Domenico with his family out into the soothing villegiatura of a happy home in two prostrate water-pipes on the broad flats of Long Island! Perhaps there is nothing more Italian about Domenico than his Irish wife, who sets up the cooking-stove and knits at the pipe's mouth while

the children pick dandelions for sale from the family push-cart in Mulberry. Brief glimpses of the real Italy and of the young Genoese artist whose aspirations lead to the thickening of the plot, afford the proper relief to the sordid chronicle of colonial life. All is so well done that it seems almost a pity that, from the genuine humor of the beginning, the story should slip into farce at the last.

An Italian story, too, but no farce, is the broad, fine, stirring novel, 'Arden Massiter.' A young English Socialist, breaking with his father for his opinions' sake, goes to Italy, cherishing generous dreams of the reformation of humanity, and finds himself involved with revolutionaries of various codes—those who have noble visions like his own, and those who are mere anarchists, working for selfish ends by bloody means. The ease with which the hero gravitates into the snare of the chief of the Camorra, dragging his best friends with him, is not quite accounted for. Nevertheless, when once he is in, his adventures link themselves along dramatically and with sufficient consequence, affording a story of well-sustained interest. The villain, it is true, is something of a stage villain, whose actions often can be explained only on the stage principle of the need of prolonging the play. The villain's pretty page, with his variously brown, pink, and purple eyes, by every law known to novel-readers should have turned out to be a girl, and—mark the prophecy—certainly will do so in Dr. Barry's next novel. The Roman Prince saying "It is the city of blood—blood of the kings, the consuls, the Emperors, the Martyrs—blood of the nobles and the nations—blood in the palace, temple, church, castle, market-place—blood in the prison and on the scaffold—blood washed in blood"—seems to have dropped into the style of a sermon by Dr. Talmage. But these are surface criticisms. The picture is none the less in flowing lines and in glowing colors for having its drawing here and there askew. There is a well-imparted atmosphere of United Italy; of the silent antagonism of the older Roman nobles, and the outspoken rebellion of the younger scions of such houses—they hoping for "a new and better feudalism"; the distrustful attitude of the Churchmen, and (from the other side) the Camorra, eating its way into all ranks, and the army of brigands, serving whichever party best serves them. Among such types, and a crowd of lesser but always well-defined figures, with a beautiful saint for heroine, wanders our young Socialist through mountain vineyards and in Roman streets, now making blunders from which any novel-reader could have rescued him, now teaching wisdom to the governing powers or delivering the distressed damsel—all in that first person wherein the modern hero has his being, yet always attractive and alive. One who reads the book will possess himself of an absorbing story, and must gain an insight into the political conditions of the Italy of a decade ago. A romance in the best and soundest sense of the name, 'Arden Massiter' is also an illuminating document upon modern Italy, its lovely face, its enthralling charm, and the tangle of currents that flow close under the surface.

THE HEART OF CHINA.

The Yangtze Valley, and Beyond. By Mrs. J. F. Bishop. 2 vols., 8vo, illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mrs. Bishop has crowned her long and fruitful record as a traveller by completing journeys through the richest and most populous part of China, the basin of the Yangtze River. Setting out from home in 1894, revisiting Japan and entering Korea, she was driven out for a while by the war, but, after reëntering and finishing her travels in Korea and Mantchuria, she moved up China's great river, making her journey by means of Chinese boats as far as Wanhsien, near the 108th parallel of east longitude. By overland routes she penetrated as far as Somo, among the Miaotze people, near the 102d parallel. Then, striking southeastwardly down the Fu River, at Suifu she began to descend the Yangtze through new scenery, and from Wanhsien retraced her route.

She came out with a whole skin, but went through many perils, escaped fatal accidents, often apparently by hair's-breadth, and suffered not a little from cold, wet, the terrors of Chinese mobs, and the uninviting and often repulsive quarters, which she was obliged to occupy along with pigs and vermin and every sort of Chinese human beings. With imperturbable good temper she won her way. Her record is in itself marvellous from the reserve and self-control which she exhibited. Every page shows the cultivated woman of judicial temper, eager for truth and willing to endure the labor necessary to secure the facts which are the raw material for the expression of truth. A diligent photographer and student of Chinese art, she has reinforced her book with over a hundred illustrations, every one of which tells a story clearly, and some of which are worthy of prolonged study. The map not only shows her travels, but gives a bird's-eye view of that central band of Chinese territory from about the 24th to the 36th parallel of north latitude which, in resources, extent, quality of the population, and spirit of its people, may be safely said to be worth all the rest of China. It is that portion which Great Britain has sought and will probably secure as its "sphere of influence." Although Mrs. Bishop must of necessity keep on her pages a large number of Chinese geographical names, so repulsive and unmeaning to the Occidental reader, she translates most of them, and thus aids us in this, as in so many other ways, to enjoy her brace of portly octavos.

Above all other books we have read on China, this one shades and discriminates, lends tone and color, and reveals the amazing variety of Chinese life. While China's social system is the great bond which gives cohesion and uniformity and is the secret of her long life, yet here, as elsewhere, man is moulded by his environment. What is said about the country and the people of one part of China is apt to be different, even to contradiction, from what is affirmed of those in another, the features of nature being so varied. One who will study the text and pictures in this book, must come to the conclusion that only a very powerful ethical and social system could hold such a race of people in orderly union. Indeed, Mrs. Bishop's narrative rather strengthens than otherwise the judgment that the Chinese are less a nation than a race, while it is also true that the majority of the Chinese, even the erudite, are almost hopelessly ignorant prepense of the rest of mankind and of the world. It is also certain that the war with Japan has been a powerful influence in stirring them to inquiry, and making them ready to drink of other truths than those flowing from Confucian fountains.

To the geographical scholar the book is a very helpful contribution. There is a great deal of exact information as to landmarks and distances, and of description, both physical and topographic. The mighty river, the influence of whose tide is felt in the ocean for two hundred miles, "sows the dust of continents to be," for it has created the vast alluvial plains eight hundred miles inward from the sea, and its annual overflow supplies fresh material to keep up an unsurpassed fertility, while discharging 770,000 feet of solid substance into the sea every second. It is thus the creator of islands. At 600 miles from its mouth it is nearly a mile wide. A thousand miles from the sea it has a volume of water estimated at 244 times that of the Thames at London Bridge. Seven thousand junks traverse it annually, employing a quarter of a million men. Steamers run up the first thousand miles; then come the Hupeh gorges, cataracts, and mountain ranges, up and down which the junks work their way. From Kueichow to Suifu the smaller boats keep up a ceaseless traffic.

Mrs. Bishop desired especially to visit, and the bulk of her book concerns, the empire province of Sze-Chuan, which is richly watered by the great navigable tributaries of the Yangtze. The province has an area equal to that of France, a population of 70,000,000, a superb climate, a soil that yields three or four crops annually, unestimated areas of grand timber, rich mineral resources, and some of the most valuable and extensive coal-fields in the world. The Yangtze is the sole outlet and inlet of its export and import trade, already estimated to be over $28,000,000 annually. The chief roads are waterways, and probably nowhere else in China has one such an exhibition of Chinese energy, industry, resourcefulness, and power of battling with difficulties. The vast import trade has to be dragged up 500 miles of hills of water by the sheer force of man-power—at two or three of the worst rapids, a junk of over 100 tons requiring the haulage of nearly 400 men.

With the exception of certain tribes of the far West, the population of this region is homogeneous—that is, Chinese—though in art, architecture, methods of transportation, and motors, as well as in food, habits, and characteristics, there is astonishing variety and difference. The ruling class in China has suffered from over-pensioning the military. The Tartars or Mantchus, who have supplied the throne with the present dynasty, whose fathers drove the Chinese before them like sheep, and who still garrison the great cities, have mainly degenerated into opium-smoking loafers, the agent in their downfall being hereditary pensions. The population of the Yangtze basin is about 180,000,000, living for the most part in law, order, prosperity, and peace. There is little friction or antagonism between the "three religions," or between them and the system of education and government; all making, with the methods of trade, trade guilds, trade unions, charities, banking and postal systems, and powerful trade combinations, a tough composite—that social system which seems to be the solvent of

everything, except Occidentalism and Christianity.

It is very evident to the student who knows the Orientals, and every chapter of Mrs. Bishop's book confirms his view, that the Chinese people as a whole are not likely to be profoundly influenced or materially modified by Western ideas and institutions, as brought by the foreigners themselves; but that the Japanese have here a unique opportunity and an unlimited field. A Chinaman can see the reason of the thing as presented by a Japanese, when the same idea, institution, or invention offered by an Englishman, for example, would appear droll, repulsive, or absurd. Mrs. Bishop, in discussing missionary work, brings out powerfully the contrast between two standard books or libraries, each the slow growth of time and both precious and indispensable to herself—the Bible and the Prayer Book. The former, an Oriental library, both as to imagery and thought, is enjoyed and understood by Asiatics. They see into it more deeply and more delightedly than we possibly can, whatever we may have the conceit of thinking to ourselves; but the Prayer Book is so absolutely and intensely European in its ideas, which are unthinkable to the Oriental and so manifestly lack equivalents in their languages, that she does not believe it desirable to perpetuate this manual of devotion as it stands, for it is, for the most part, unintelligible. The cry going up all over Japan for a Christianity divested of its foreign accretions, of an undisguised Christ, intelligible to Oriental minds, Mrs. Bishop hears in China.

In her earlier years she was uninterested in Christian missions. Now she is one of the heartiest of supporters of them, and her book is a mine of information for both friends and enemies of missionary work. The growing influence of Christianity, she says, cannot be measured either by the numbers of communicants or inquirers. Despite the lapses of disappointed converts, or those who find Christian ethics too difficult in practice, there is an increasing Christian community, zealous and influential.

If China is ever to be Christianized, it must inevitably be by native agency, under foreign instruction and guidance. She gives an array of reasons why Christianity has made such slow progress, and shows that ancestor worship is the greatest of all difficulties in the way. Some of the best Christian work is done by women, for preaching is not a Chinese mode of instruction. The Chinese methods of influencing are literary, catechetical, and conversational. Foreign methods, whether in teaching or architecture, and especially in the etiquette which ignores Chinese custom, must perpetuate Christianity only as a sickly exotic. Christianity must ally itself with all which is not evil in the national life before the regeneration of China is brought about.

Mrs. Bishop does not believe in any imminent "break-up" of China, she does not see any visible "decay," she protests against the phrase "sphere of influence." She thinks the people better than their government. While spreading the feast of information, she gives seasoned opinions and judgments which make her book worth tons of ephemeral literature produced by globe-trotters, while her knowledge of other Asiatic countries, including Japan and Korea, makes her judgments all the more valuable. After reading this book, one feels justified in holding reasonably optimistic views as to China's being the greatest market, the best missionary field, and the country most worthy of the traveller's attention and the observation of the student of sociology, as well as of the engineer, geologist, miner, and merchant.

Religion in Greek Literature. By Lewis Campbell, M.A., LL.D. Longmans.

Believing that there is room for a connected account of "the way in which ritual and mythology reacted upon the higher minds of Hellas, as this is clearly reflected in classical Greek Literature," Prof. Campbell attempted to supply such an account in his Gifford lectures of 1894-'95, since published in the above volume. His "sketch in outline of Religion in Greek Literature," accordingly, aims at a portrayal of religion as expressed by Greek poets and philosophers, taken, so far as may be, apart from prevalent discussions concerning origins, local cults, and primitive or prehistoric survivals. "Not origins chiefly, but rather tendencies" are his theme, and it is therefore remarkable that nearly one-half of this book (160-odd pages out of 385) is occupied with discussions on those very topics from which our lecturer had determined, so far as his theme allowed, to abstain. This was, perhaps, inevitable, for the trend of contemporary investigation has plainly forced our author's hand, obliging him to grapple in some fashion with theories, controversies, and discoveries lying beyond the strict limits of his chosen field. Nevertheless, a different distribution of his subject would have helped him to achieve more fully the impression of continuity in the development of religion in Greek literature, to which he naturally attaches much importance. The Phœnicians, for instance, are allowed to harry his reader throughout eleven of his sixteen chapters without really making anywhere a very definite impression, and the newly expanded horizons of early civilization in the Mediterranean are somewhat inconclusively scanned in the first chapter (pp. 31-39), chiefly, it would seem, in order to allow of a conclusion in chapter viii. (p. 192), that early intercommunication in those parts was "more frequent and more intimate than is often supposed," and to justify a not very definite surmise as to the legends of Delos and Dodona (p. 194). All these interesting and important concerns, lying as they do outside of the subject proper of this book, might perhaps have been compacted together in some section apart, and would then hardly have become the stumbling-blocks which they inevitably seem to the reader, whom they baffle and confuse in his pursuit of religion in classical Greek literature.

Nor is it captious to pass a similar criticism on the distribution of many of Prof. Campbell's interesting side glances at Greek sculpture and other branches of Hellenic art. They too seem again and again to block the way. A case in point is his reference to the style of the Aeginetan marbles, and to a Victory, by Ageladax (?), on page 200, and again (p. 156) his reference to Greek coins as an important subject for which he has no space. Here, instead of a redistribution, perhaps more or less complete excision would have been the heroic remedy best adapted to a "sketch in outline." At all events these hurried references and inevitably incomplete summaries have the unfortunate effect of blurring the outline given, as well as of defeating in some measure our author's attempt to show us the continuity of religious thought in Greek literature.

Turning now to the larger half of the book, where religion in Greek literature is directly dealt with, we find many striking and effective literary illustrations and parallels (pp. 172, 177, 305, 346, and 354). Especially in the chapters on Philosophy does the merit of our author's mature scholarship shine out. Much as the Platonic Socrates has been discoursed about, there is a freshness and nobility attaching to the account of him in our author's fourteenth chapter, which is beyond all praise. The interest, however, culminates in the next chapter, devoted to Plato, where Prof. Campbell's life-long addiction to Platonic study enables him to give in brief a most memorable picture of the "poet-scholar's" characteristic attitude towards God and mankind.

Among Greek poets, the reader will easily single out Sophocles as the one of whose religion our author speaks with the greatest authority and effect. Much also that he has to say of Euripides is invaluable, while his account of Pindar, though noteworthy, is light in comparison. A striking feature throughout is Prof. Campbell's readiness and skill in gaining effective side-lights from Greek history, and in disentangling from the narratives of Herodotus and Thucydides the gist of their characteristic modes of thought in regard to religion. In particular what he has to say of Thucydides (pp. 290, 300-302), although said with Thucydidean brevity and pithiness, is a real contribution to the understanding of that great writer—a greater contribution, on the whole, than he makes in his more extended account of Herodotus.

As to the two chapters (iii. and iv.) devoted to the Homeric religion, they are certainly not a strong point in the book, although it would be going too far to call them weak. Our lecturer but follows a prevailing fashion in his readiness to twist almost any discoverable points of difference between the two Homeric epics into some sort of proof that there was a great lapse of time between the poems and a parallel movement or growth of religious thought. This point appears to be forced in the account given of Athena in the two poems (p. 93). Surely Athena cannot be so conspicuously associated with war in the 'Odyssey' as in the 'Iliad,' which completely "moves amongst scenes of battle." Also there seems little point in insisting that the legend of the Dioscuri has grown in the lapse of time between the two poems, since their immortality of alternate days could not, with dramatic or poetic propriety, have been referred to in the third book of the 'Iliad' (see pp. 64, 97, and 174).

Other prevalent views will be found in Prof. Campbell's insistence upon the remorse of fair Helen, which, in spite of Gladstone's highly emotional account of it as "Christian penitence," is employed by the poet as an added and most irresistible grace given to the most enchanting of women. Helen's remorse is but skin-deep, as even her devoted Menelaus plainly implies in a well-known scene of the 'Odyssey.' More far-reaching in its effect upon our lecturer's appreciation of Homeric religion is his unqualified acceptance and development of the

current view that the poet takes the representation of superhuman beings and their actions "less seriously" than "those scenes in which his principal characters are involved" (p. 76). Turning to the 'Odyssey,' he says that the poet there takes the gods even less seriously. This surely calls for grave qualification, as is shown by one of the least convincing passages in the book (p. 57), where Prof. Campbell joins issue with Mr. Walter Leaf in his interpretation of the prevailing sensation produced on the typical Greek by Homer's account of the savagery of Achilles and his outrages upon the body of dead Hector. That sensation was not so much, according to our author, "How mightily the power of Zeus is working!" as "How intensely Achilles loved his friend!" Here the truth seems rather to be that Homer's typical pious auditor or reader would have failed to distinguish clearly between the power of Zeus and the affection of Achilles. These were to him equivalent and convertible terms, so true is it that Plato's "God and not man is the measure of all things" was spoken from the heart of Greek polytheism.

In conclusion comes a sense of genuine obligation to Prof. Campbell for writing upon the subject of religion in Greek literature at all. There is a passing mood which prompts men to turn away from this topic and deny the importance of any religious feeling in Greece save that embodied in local cults, rituals, half mechanically adhered to, myths half forgotten and wholly misunderstood, grotesque observances, and gross superstitions. This makes the need of some methodical presentation of the genuine and characteristic religious spirit of Hellas all the more desirable, because so difficult, under momentary circumstances, to obtain. Scholars are, however, beginning to realize that their individual span of life may not easily last till the time when ancestor-worship and sympathetic magic shall lie down together, and totemism and fetishism shall have exchanged the kiss of peace. All the more gratitude is there due to Prof. Campbell, who has adventured into the midst of these roaring combatants, each bent upon swallowing up Greek religion, and has plucked for us, as it were from the jaws of death, the privilege of expatiating on a delightful and little frequented province of the world of Hellas.

Diary of David McClure, Doctor of Divinity, 1748-1820. With Notes by Franklin B. Dexter, M.A. Privately printed. Edition of 250 copies. New York: The Knickerbocker Press. 1899. 8vo, pp. 219.

It may be said that memoirs of the last century are so rare as to deserve the honors of print under all circumstances, and hence this publication is to be welcomed. Certainly Dr. McClure may have been an instructive preacher, but he was not a Pepys or an Evelyn as a diarist. David was a grandson of Samuel McClure, one of the colony of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians who came to Boston, under the Rev. John Moorhead, in 1729. Samuel was the first deacon of this church, and lived in the house in Milk Street in which Dr. Franklin was born. His son John, of Boston and Rhode Island, married Rachel McClintock, and had twelve children who lived to maturity, but these children were left orphans early.

David, born in 1748, was aged sixteen when Dr. Moorhead received a letter from the Rev. Eleazer Wheelock of Lebanon, Conn., who had a school for Indians and for incipient missionaries, offering to educate one or two youths. The opportunity was gladly embraced, and David's vocation was thus settled for life. In June, 1764, young McClure arrived at Lebanon and joined a class of six in a school of thirty, whereof one-half were Indian youths. In the autumn of 1765 he went to New Haven, and was made a freshman of Yale, where he was graduated September 13, 1769. He then took charge of Moor's Charity School at Lebanon, Conn., and in 1770 removed with it to Hanover, N. H., where, as he says, "from a small beginning arose Dartmouth College."

In May, 1772, McClure and Levi Frisbee were ordained and were sent on a mission to the River Muskingum to preach to the Indians. The Journal of his visit takes up the greater part of this book, and, though fairly good reading, adds little to our knowledge. McClure evidently was not a proselytizer, and, if we may be allowed to suggest it, does not seem to have been very strongly impressed with the merit of his undertaking. He merely records the commonplace events of a horseback journey in Ohio, not specially dangerous nor difficult. He mentions (p. 57) an encounter with Capt. Logan, the famous Indian chief, quite dramatic and appropriate, but leading to nothing.

The times were certainly unfavorable for missionary work, especially among the Indians, and by 1773 McClure turned to the more settled duties of a clergyman. October 1, 1773, McClure arrived at Dartmouth College, after having been absent for sixteen months and travelled more than 4,000 miles. He then taught school for misses at Hampton and preached sporadically as occasion offered. While acting as a supply at Dr. Moorhead's old church at Boston, he was a resident there at the date of the battle of Lexington. His account is not specially striking, yet is worth consulting by the historian. He says of Lord Percy's brigade: "I stood in the street as they passed. They all appeared, except a few officers, to be young men, and had never been in action. Not a smiling face was among them. Some of them appeared to have been weeping. Their countenances were sad." That afternoon he rode to Charlestown ferry, hoping to leave town, but "a British man-of-war lay in the river, and a barge from her met the ferry-boat crowded with passengers and ordered her back." The next day he rode through Roxbury and Watertown to Lexington, arriving there while the bodies of the British still encumbered the roads, but he adds nothing to our knowledge of the famous fight.

In 1776 he was installed at North Hampton, N. H., where he remained for nine years, and on December 10, 1780, married his first wife, Hannah Pomeroy. He resigned in 1785. The following year he was called to the church at East Windsor, Conn., where he preached until 1809, when the failure of his voice caused him to quit the ministry. His wife died in 1814, and he married secondly Mrs. Betsy Martin. By his first wife he had issue only five daughters, of whom two married and had children. Among the numerous descendants herein mentioned will be found Edward O. Wolcott, the eccentric but able United States Senator from Colorado.

Dr. McClure published two volumes of sermons (in 1795 and 1818), 'Memoirs of Rev. Eleazer Wheelock' (1811), and a 'History of East Windsor.' Sprague's 'Annals' says of him that he was a small man, well formed, and with very attractive manners; a man of culture and scholarship. His portrait here engraved corroborates the description.

Interpretations of Poetry and Religion. By George Santayana. Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is said of a lively Cambridge lady, recently arrived upon that scene of action, that she called upon a highly cultivated Catholic priest residing there, and sought frank conversation with him as to the mysteries of the Church. On being courteously invited to express her own views on the theme, she promptly responded: "Well, you know, the first thing you have to do is to get rid of your Pope." Upon which, as the story declares, the reverend gentleman threw himself back in his chair and laughed most heartily. If this lady had turned her batteries upon Mr. Santayana, she would have been overmatched, for she would have found herself in the presence of a young and winning advocate, to whom the necessity of a Pope was so clear that he would even consent to act in that capacity himself, could no one else be found to fill the vacancy. Even his essays fill that gracious function from their limpid and bloodless style, not unsuggestive of Walter Pater, and from the inexhaustible patience with which he explains things lucidly up to the last moment, and then retires behind an impenetrable veil. He describes himself, perhaps unintentionally, in his preface, as the man who stands stanchly to an establishment, of whom he says, "A reasonable deference once shown to authority, the mind remains under such an establishment inwardly and happily free." With the sweetest amiability he provides for all the subjects of authority by saying, "The mass of mankind is divided into two classes: the Sancho Panzas, who have a sense for reality, but no ideals; and the Don Quixotes, with a sense for ideals, but mad." For both these classes, Mr. Santayana, with his Spanish ancestry, at least does the part of Cervantes, if not of Chief Pontiff.

The cultivated Protestant commonly feels, in hearing any abstract theme discussed by a highly trained Catholic, the great and lingering strength of that Latin discipline which takes into its hands the ignorant Irish or French-Canadian boy and turns him out, when it has done with him, a master of keen intellectual discrimination, of iron logic, and of felicitous statement. Once enter within his walls, accept a single one of his premises, and the average Protestant is lost. In the case of Mr. Santayana, a mental texture resembling this is combined with a Harvard cultivation and Spanish blood. He never loses his temper, yet never places his antagonist for an instant on his own level. He handles Emerson, for instance, with an analysis as clear, and a discrimination as judicious, as that of Matthew Arnold, yet never stoops to call him, with English patronage, "the good Emerson." No one has ever stated more exquisitely the manner, for instance, in which Emerson's influence was enhanced by his personality. Speaking of his immediate disciples, Mr. Santayana says: "They felt themselves in the presence of a

rare and beautiful spirit, who was in communion with a higher world. More than the truth his teaching might express, they valued the sense it gave them of a truth that was inexpressible. They became aware, if we may say so, of the ultra-violet rays of his spectrum, of the inaudible highest notes of his gamut, too pure and thin for common ears" (p. 217).

The limitations of Mr. Santayana's temperament or training are far less visible in dealing with Emerson—with whom, indeed, he has much in common—than when he encounters a robust and comprehensive genius like Browning, whom he can dispose of only by calling him "barbaric." Sincere and single-minded himself, the critic is obviously by his very temperament undramatic, and can only say, of the most absolutely dramatic passages of Browning, "The impulsive utterances and the crudities of most of the speakers are passionately adopted by the poet as his own." This mode of criticism is brought to bear peculiarly and avowedly (p. 144) where Browning paints the passion of love. The poet depicts throughout "In a Gondola" a situation which is generally recognized as being a matter as purely objective as if Shakspere had written it; then comes Mr. Santayana, who says of its successive stanzas, "Browning unmistakably adopts them as expressing his own highest intuition." You might as well say that Shakspere "unmistakably" adopts as his own the sentiments expressed by *Dogberry* or by *Mr. Justice Shallow.*

It would be easy to point out that Browning paints in his various poems fifty different types of love between the sexes, each characteristic in its own way. Of which of these types has Mr. Santayana been privileged to decide that it is "unmistakably" Browning's personal attitude, or that he "passionately" adopts its "crudities"? The fact is, that the critic's own attitude throughout in respect to human passion, at least so far as the evidence of this volume goes, is absolutely monastic. All human love, even the most elevated, is always mentioned by him as low and transient, simply because it is personal. It is "a personal impulse, a hypnotization with another person for its object or its cause" (p. 195). It is "crude emotion," a thing only to be justified as it passes with years into "an austere and impersonal religion" (p. 197). Mr. Santayana even quotes for condemnation the noble and beautiful close of "Prospice":

> "O thou soul of my soul! I shall clasp thee again,
> And with God be the rest!"

Upon this passage, which so many pure and thoughtful minds have read and reread with deep delight, the verdict of Mr. Santayana, emerging placidly from his cloister, is this: "It is in spirit the direct opposite of the philosophic maxim of regarding the end, of taking care to leave a finished life and a perfect character behind us" (p. 203). If, however, this attitude makes Browning barbarous, we confess to an honest preference for barbarism.

Li Livres du Gouvernement des Rois. Edited by Samuel Paul Molenaer, A.M., Ph.D. Macmillan. 1899.

This volume, a late addition to the list of the Columbia University Press Publications, presents in easy archaic French the educational theory of a once famous mediæval ecclesiastic. Egidio Colonna's treatise 'De Regimine Principum,' written for Philip the Fair, was rendered into French by Henri de Gauchi. The original was not published till 1473, more than one hundred and fifty years after its author's death, while this French version has heretofore remained in manuscript. Colonna's indebtedness to a prior treatise bearing the same title, begun by St. Thomas Aquinas, and probably concluded by Bartholomæus of Lucca, has been variously estimated. Dr. Molenaer, relying chiefly on German authority, holds that the two works have little in common save the title; but Mr. H. H. S. Croft, the English editor of Sir Thomas Elyot's 'The Governour,' charges Colonna with plagiarism of idea as well. General educational conceptions are, however, common property in any age; it is consequently impossible to establish absolute originality beyond dispute, at a time when the education of princes fell entirely into the hands of the clergy. And no comparison of the two texts reveals such borrowing of idea or expression as would constitute genuine plagiarism.

The excessive formalism of the present treatise renders it unalluring to any but a hardened reader. To use the phrase of a professor of logic, the book shows its mediæval character by expounding its purpose in a series of "meticulously concatenated syllogisms." Feminine inferiority to man, for example, is deductively inferred from several general propositions, of which one of the strongest declares that "n'a pas la femme parfetement l'usage de reson." Colonna ignores the obvious rejoinder, that in that respect many a man should be classed with the opposite sex. And it certainly argues a truly clerical inexperience of the world to assert that "conseil de femme est de petite value." At the same time, "cil qui ne se veut marier . . . est beste et pire que homme." Through similar processes of reasoning, Colonna establishes the conventional mediæval objection against usury, as follows: Things artificial and invented are incapable of self-multiplication. Houses do not procreate houses; and he who would have ten pence increase to twenty, desires money to do that which is contrary to its own nature. All this, too, is conveyed in a style the aridity of which simply parches curiosity and interest.

For these reasons, Dr. Molenaer deserves very unusual credit for the patience and scrupulous accuracy with which he has edited and verified the text. Glosses and variants in abundance have been taken into account, and obscure or doubtful passages explained without the help of hazardous conjecture.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, S. J. William Watson Andrews: A Religious Biography. Putnams.
Baedeker, Karl. Austria. $2.40. Italy. $2.25. Switzerland. $2.40. The Rhine. $2.10. Leipzig: Baedeker; New York: Scribner.
Carpenter, J. E., and Harford-Battersby, G. The Hexateuch. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.
Casey, Rev. P. H. The Bible and Its Interpreter. Philadelphia: John Joseph McVey. 25c.
Day, L. F., and Buckle, Mary. Art in Needlework. London: B. T. Botsford; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
De Fleury, M. Medicine and the Mind. [Translated by Stacy B. Collins.] London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Field, C. K., and Irwin, W. H. Stanford Stories. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Fletcher, Horace. Glutton or Epicure? Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Citizen of the World. 2 vols. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Harland, Henry. The Cardinal's Snuff-Box. John Lane. $1.50.
Harte, Bret. From Sand Hill to Pine. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Jörgensen, A. Micro-organisms and Fermentation. New ed. Macmillan.
Keller, G. Romeo und Julia auf dem Dorfe. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Kelly, Edmond. Government or Human Evolution. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Travels in England. John Lane. $1.50.
Marsh, Richard. A Second Coming. John Lane. $1.50.
Martin, H. R. The Elusive Hildegarde. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Newell, W. W. Sonnets and Madrigals of Michelangelo Buonarroti. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Oppenheim, N. The Care of the Child in Health. Macmillan.
Petit de Julleville, L. Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Vol. VIII. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 16 francs.
Robert, J. T. Primer of Parliamentary Law. Doubleday & McClure. 75c.
Robinson, P. A. Coin, Currency, and Commerce. Washington: The Neale Company. $1.25.
Shakespeare's Pericles. Cassell & Co. 10c.
Sidgwick, A. Aeschyli Tragoediae. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Smythe, William E. The Conquest of Arid America. Harpers. $1.50.
Spence, W. Back to Christ. Chicago: McClurg. $1.
Spence, Rev. H. D. M. The White Robe of Churches. London: J. M. Dent; New York: Scribners. $3.00.
Stevensonia. Part I. M. F. Mansfield. 25c.
Stockton, F. The Girl at Cobhurst. Vol. XII. Scribners.
Von Bar, Dr. L. Der Burenkrieg, die Russificirung Finnlands, die Haager Friedensconferenz. Hanover: Helwing.
Wallace, Helen. Lotus or Laurel? London: Edward Arnold. 6 shillings.
Warren, E. P. The Prince Who did not Exist. Scribners. $2.
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. The Integrity of Christian Science. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wilson, Woodrow. George Washington. [Popular Edition.] Harpers. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1900.

The Week.

All who would see the standard of the Federal judiciary maintained have reason for great encouragement that the Judiciary Committee of the Senate on Monday refused to report favorably the nomination of John R. Hazel for Judge of the new United States District Court in this State, and decided to give representatives of the New York Bar Association an opportunity to be heard in protest against its confirmation on Saturday. The great danger in this case was the success of the favorite Platt policy of "jamming through" the nomination before opposition could make itself felt. The delay gives a chance to inform the Senate of the feeling over the outrage among all right-minded men. The Bar Association does well to take the lead in this matter.

Senator Spooner's Philippine speech, with its cross-fire of not very dignified question and retort during three days last week in the Senate, reveals three different characteristics struggling for the mastery in him. One is the legal joy of combat. He likes to take up a political question as a lawyer would a case, eagerly argue for his contention as a matter of mental gymnastics, and meet all comers on the floor of the Senate as he would opposing counsel in the rough-and-tumble of a Western country court-room, with an audience of farmers agape at his readiness of repartee. There has been something too much of this, and too evident, in his discussion of the brief which he holds for the President in the case of the Filipinos vs. McKinley. And from his legal attitude he glided too often into that of the mere partisan, as where he accused Senator Hale of making a "Democratic speech" in so much as referring to the Cuban frauds. This commitment of Mr. Spooner to the defence of all that has been done in the Republican name is what embarrasses him in his speech, and lends an air of insincerity to certain parts of it, while it obscures and neutralizes the utterance of his sentiments as, what we are bound to believe him, an Anti-Imperialist by conviction.

Passing by the words of the lawyer and the thorough-going Republican, what is to be said of Senator Spooner's peroration, in which he professed to speak as a liberty-loving American? He declared his willingness, and his belief in that of the American people, to give the Filipinos "an autonomous government." Does he mean an independent government? He does, unless he stoops to a juggle with words quite unworthy of him. Then why did he not say independent? The partisan in him would not let him. If he said "independent," he might be getting unawares upon Mr. Bryan's platform, which is independence under an American protectorate. If he said independent, he would make the only difference between his policy and that of Mr. Schurz one of time. Senator Spooner says "the day will come" when we shall find it our duty to give the Filipinos an autonomous government. What the Anti-Imperialists say is that the day has already come—at least that the day has come to *promise* an independent government to the Filipinos, as we have promised it to the Cubans, and to work with them to establish it by peaceful coöperation, instead of pursuing our present policy of bloody extermination of all who resist us. Is the only difference that Mr. Spooner would wait a year, or five years, before doing it? The terms of his speech leave this doubtful. But one thing it puts beyond all doubt, and that is the revolt of the Republicans of the Northwest, for whom Mr. Spooner speaks, at the vulgar and mercenary Imperialism which Hanna would fasten upon the Republican party, and their desire to see something like decency and humanity put into the utterances of the Philadelphia platform. They sneer at their critics, but when it comes to going before the people in a Presidential year, they would like right well to be able to use some of those old American watchwords of liberty, sympathy with oppressed peoples, and the consent of the governed, which have so rapidly become the monopoly of the hateful Anti-Imperialists.

Secretary Root and Senator Lodge, with a war with Germany on their hands and the Monroe Doctrine in deadly peril, ought to be in an excited and alarmed state of mind. Army reorganization has failed in Congress. Not even a beggarly addition of 5,000 men to the artillery will be voted. Armor for the new ships is withheld. Then why are Root and Lodge so calm? The net outcome of their warnings and exertions is a smuggled amendment to make Corbin a Major-General. That makes all safe. When the Emperor William hears of Corbin's promotion, he will abandon his Brazilian campaign. The Monroe Doctrine will take a new lease of life on the strength of Corbin's new shoulder-straps. At least, if all these happy consequences will not follow, Lodge and Root ought, in their character of far-sighted patriots, to be filling the air with lamentations. But they are taking their rebuff by Congress with surprising meekness, considering their recent warlike fury. Speaker Henderson has discovered that a few German votes in doubtful districts are against Imperialism, and down goes the gorgeous programme of a large standing army. Think of a "world-Power" halted in its splendid career by a handful of German-American voters in Iowa! And Root and Lodge silent! They are probably reflecting bitterly on that saying of Bacon's in his essay, "Of Empire," "It is the solecism of power to think to command the end and yet not to endure the mean." There can be no American Empire without the "mean" of a big army, and here is an Imperialist party and Congress afraid to vote it.

Mr. Payne's statement regarding war taxes and revenue, made to Congress on May 23, strikes us as hardly ingenuous. The first reason produced by the Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, by way of explaining the Committee's unwillingness to reduce the taxes, is that the monthly surplus revenue is decreasing. Until April it had averaged eight million dollars a month; during April, it was only four millions. Mr. Payne was careful to leave the inference that this change means continuous reduction. But the inference is wholly unwarranted. The decrease in April's surplus revenue last year was much larger than last month's decrease, and its cause was precisely similar—slackening in customs duties (always incident to the later spring months), and payment, on April 1, of some five million dollars in quarterly interest on the public debt. Last year, the monthly surplus at once began to rise again in the summer months, and by autumn was running $20,000,000 above the totals for the same months in 1898. Similar recovery will occur in the ordinary revenues this year. The surplus revenue for May to date is not exceptionally large, and Mr. Payne was careful to point out the fact. He was equally careful, however, not to mention that it is larger by a million and a half than it was last year. So far as current revenue is concerned, the Treasury is far better able now to dispense with some of the war taxes than it was six months ago.

In his reference to bond-redemptions, Mr. Payne's presentation of facts was more honest. It is true that the Treasury has paid out, in addition to ordinary expenditure, $28,000,000 for premiums on high-rate bonds voluntarily reduced to 2 per cent., and has already notified its creditors that it proposes to buy in $25,000,000 old bonds redeemable at the Government's pleasure. There is fair ground of argument for use of the current surplus in redemption of the debt; but the Government ought to define its position

clearly. As matters stand, the Treasury has no fixed policy, and can have none. Mr. Gage has given the Ways and Means Committee the benefit of his views, and the Committee has not adopted them. The Secretary estimated that the surplus of seventy millions for the fiscal year ending next month would be increased to eighty-two millions in the ensuing fiscal year, and asked for reduction in the taxes. What does Congress purpose doing with this accruing surplus? Redemption of the $25,000,000 old two per cents, as proposed a fortnight ago by Secretary Gage, will remove the last of the public debt redeemable at par at the Government's pleasure. This done, the Treasury will be left to confront a possible tight money market in the autumn, with no alternative except purchase of bonds by wholesale at the market price, or extension of the Government bank deposits, which already exceed a hundred million dollars. We do not doubt that the problem of equitable tax-reduction is embarrassing; how much so was indicated by Mr. Richardson's rejoinder, for the Opposition, that he would like to see the beer tax repealed. No doubt the brewers would have their say if the committee undertook reduction of the stamp taxes. But wherein does the committee gain by mere postponements?

The defence urged in the case of the extra allowances made to our army officers in Cuba is beside the mark. The question is not whether the men are paid extravagantly or lived luxuriously; but whether they were paid at all out of the Cuban Treasury. If they were United States officers, assigned to duty in a place where they could not live on their salaries, they should undoubtedly have been allowed more pay, but it should have come from our own Treasury. To help ourselves, as we think needful, out of other people's funds is the vicious thing. Nor is it any excuse to say that the Cubans have not complained—that they are aware that they have a better government than they ever had before; their taxes being lighter, and the net amount of public money employed in useful public works greater than in any year of the Spanish régime. This would be only to say that, whereas the Spanish Government improperly diverted, say, $5,000,000 a year from the Cuban Treasury, the charge against us is only $500,000. The point is, of course, that there ought not to be the improper diversion of one centavo.

The "Industrial Commission" is not composed of men whose opinions are of commanding importance, and its report to Congress on labor legislation contains nothing novel. The advice to the State Legislatures that they should all agree to enact the same statutes concerning labor is simply puerile, and the other suggestions of the Commission are not likely to receive much attention. The real purpose for which this Commission was created was to find places for a certain number of politicians, and not to bore Congress with reports. Its existence will presently terminate by limitation, and an amendment has been introduced in the Sundry Civil Bill providing for its extension. But the Democrats and Populists do not propose to let the Republicans secure so much of this patronage as they have. The President has the appointment of nine of the Commissioners, and he has given all these places to Republicans. The other parties do not regard this as a fair distribution of spoils, and they insist that if the Commission is to be continued, the nine Presidential appointments shall be made from the three parties in equal numbers. It would be as well that the real character of the Commission should be thus advertised.

The Comptroller of New York city continues his laudable efforts to promote reform in our financial administration by showing how the proceeds of taxation are applied to the support of politicians. Mr. Coler finds, on investigation, that during the last two years Mr. Elliot Danforth, who became known to the public through his active support of Bryan and free silver, has received some $50,000 as counsel fees in transfer-tax proceedings. He was appointed as counsel in these proceedings by the Republican Comptroller of the State of New York, for reasons which, it is safe to say, will never be publicly announced. Possibly the Republican managers agreed to reward Mr. Danforth for his assiduous labors in hanging millstones about the neck of the Democratic party in this State, success in which well deserved to be paid for. But Republican lawyers may properly think that to give an active Democratic politician $50,000 out of $130,000 worth of patronage is carrying political generosity too far. Mr. Olcott, who obtained some $42,000, and Mr. Fallows, who came in for nearly $20,000, may not be envious, but even the addition of the new appraiserships to the list of the emoluments provided for politicians will hardly satisfy them that the distribution of spoils is equitable.

The evil effects of the Kentucky imbroglio are not confined to that State. Happily, the Supreme Court has decided that the Federal Government is not called on to intervene, but Gov. Mount of Indiana has felt obliged to take the Republican side in the controversy. Charles Finley, formerly Secretary of State, having been indicted in Kentucky as an accessory to the murder of Gov. Goebel, fled to Indiana. The Governor of Kentucky thereupon demanded his extradition, which the Governor of Indiana refused. He justified his refusal as "a bounden duty owed to God and mankind," asserting that, in the present condition of affairs in Kentucky, Finley would probably be murdered if he were surrendered. The Constitution of the United States ordains that a person charged in any State with crime, who shall flee from justice and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime. In 1793 Congress enacted a law making it the duty of the Executive of the State where the fugitive is found to surrender him, and prescribing the form of demand. There is a law in Indiana, signed by the present Governor of that State, which says that, on due demand of the executive authority of any State or Territory in the Union, the Governor of Indiana shall issue his warrant for the arrest of a fugitive from justice. Gov. Mount has therefore acted in apparent violation of the Constitution of the United States and of the law of Indiana, in refusing to entertain the demand of the Governor of Kentucky for the extradition of Finley.

Censure of so good a man as Mr. McKinley is, we know, calumny and a crime in those who have no pretensions of piety equal to his; but what are we to think when two great church assemblies venture to assail him? The Methodists, in their General Conference, have had some terribly frank and unpleasant things to say of their dear brother McKinley and his friendly attitude towards liquor-dealers. They point out, what is absolutely true, that he could, as irresponsible autocrat in the Philippines, prevent the importation of a single gallon of whiskey or beer, instead of letting them go in by the carload and ship-load. The good man sighs and suffers these wounds in the house of his friends in silence; but, nevertheless, he gets a friend to introduce a new anti-canteen bill in Congress, at this late day, when it cannot possibly pass. This shows that the Methodist shafts have gone home. As for the Presbyterian Assembly, it adopted a report full of grave implications about the President's hobnobbing with "Catholic prelates," and being thereby induced to be altogether too complacent in his alliance with the Scarlet Woman in the Philippines. Ought not some Administration Senator to rise and accuse these clerical fault-finders of prolonging the war, and being really responsible for every American life lost in the Philippines?

Abolition of the time-limit of pastorates in the Methodist Church has been led up to by successive approximations, and has for some time been clearly fore-

seen as inevitable; yet its final acceptance by the General Conference on May 23 will seem to many almost revolutionary. What it chiefly indicates is a change of method. In fact, the change of method has already come about, and the action of the Conference is one of the results. What we mean is the transition from the old style and type of "revival" preaching, with cataclysmic conversion as the main thing aimed at, to the conception of the slow upbuilding of Christian character. Education and personal influence, long applied, have come to hold a larger place in the work of all churches than the sharp and fiery appeals of the circuit-rider. One year or two years was long enough for a minister to spend in one parish if all he had to do was to warn every man in it to flee from the wrath to come. But the moment we arrive at the idea and ideal of Christian nurture, of the cumulative power of personal character, of influence which is necessarily the slow growth of years, the need of making longer pastorates possible, when desirable, becomes evident. This the Methodist Church has at last recognized; and the change is both significant and wise.

The action of the Conference in voting to change the Constitution of the Church so as to admit women to representation in all future conferences, whether local or national, represents the tardy triumph of fair play and common sense over a conservatism which was strongly intrenched in the fundamental law of the denomination. There is no other religious organization in the country which gives women a larger share in the work of the average church, or which depends more fully upon the help of the sex for its efficiency. Nor is there any other denomination which is more largely made up of plain people, living in country districts where the coöperation of men and women in work for the public good is so common that the argument from experience for the representation of women in conferences should long ago have proved decisive. But it is precisely among people of this type that respect for tradition is strongest, and that the plea that the old landmarks should not be disturbed is most effective. The conservatives were also strengthened by the fact that some of the strongest Bourbons were men who occupied positions of influence, the editor of perhaps the most powerful newspaper organ being almost a fanatic in his championship of the bygone ideas. Not a few conferences, in Pennsylvania and in various States beyond the Alleghanies, are largely composed of people of foreign descent, who maintain the most antiquated notions about "woman's sphere." Finally, it was necessary that a two-thirds vote in favor of any radical change should be secured in the local conferences, and after this that the General Conference should give its consent. Hence, protracted and earnest efforts to bring about the adoption of a rule which had in its favor from the start every argument that appeals to good sense.

While the new German meat bill, which passed the Reichstag on May 23, was shorn of many of its original offensive features, its obvious intent is still to throw fresh obstacles in the way of food importations from the United States. That it tends, at the same time, to increase the cost of living to German artisans, is no objection whatever in the minds of the Agrarians. They are thorough-paced protectionists, and would gladly exclude all food products if they could. What they have now won came to them only after a hard fight, and as the price of their acquiescence in the Emperor's pet scheme for a new navy. The Agrarians shrewdly took advantage of the Government's necessities and of their own parliamentary strength, to exact terms. They first pretended that they could not vote at all for the enlarged navy; Dr. Hahn, the Secretary of the Agrarian League, having lobbied with the Clericals in the Reichstag to vote against the "horrid navy bill," as one of them testified that he called it. But finally the navy bill was somewhat modified, and then the Agrarians boldly issued their ultimatum. They must have a meat bill seriously crippling imports at once, and decreeing absolute prohibition after 1903. They asserted that they had the votes to pass such a bill. But presently appeared a notice in the official *Norddeutsche Zeitung* that the Government could not possibly ratify such a law, even if it were voted. Since that time, a month ago, it has only been a question of haggling for the best terms obtainable, and these were embodied in the bill just passed. Doubtless the navy bill will soon follow. The Emperor will have his way, but only after an amount of bargaining and log-rolling which ill becomes one ruling by right divine. "He talked to me as if I were a public assembly," was Bismarck's indignant comment on a man who had addressed him with the usual flourishes of a politician.

Great Britain's military difficulties in South Africa are nearly surmounted, but the political problem remains, and daily looks tougher as the time draws near when it must be attacked. To bring the resources of a vast empire to bear upon two small republics so as to crush their military power was only a question of time; but shall we see a following statesmanship as skilful as Lord Roberts's generalship? Mr. Chamberlain has already designated a military government as the proper thing for the Dutch republics for a long time to come. And there is a strong push, mostly made by ferocious non-combatants like Mr. Kipling, to have a lot of hanging and deportation follow the fighting, so as to draw a clear line, even in Cape Colony, between those who have been "loyal" and those who have not. With all this talk going on, the burghers can scarcely be expected to take kindly to the idea of meekly submitting to British rule. "Independence" is the magic word for them, and they apparently continue to hope for it, even against hope. But they cannot have it now. Even the English Radicals, and Liberals like Mr. Bryce, no longer think Dutch independence in South Africa possible, except in a very limited and unnatural sense. Mr. Bryce, for example, has suggested the annexation of the Rand, the entire disarming of the burghers, and the reaffirmation of suzerainty over them in all foreign relations; and would then leave them their independence thus mutilated. Probably they would see little to choose between these proposals and those of Mr. Chamberlain. But, as things are, it betrays a want of grasp of the hard facts for the Boer envoys and the Dutch professors who have just issued their appeal to American universities, to ask or expect a restoration of the old independence. Under what pledges could it now be had?

Monday's flurry in the French Chamber was only the latest, and probably the last, attempt to upset the present Ministry before the Exposition is over. It was the direct result of the success of the Nationalists in the recent Paris elections. Out of 80 members of the Municipal Council, they elected the unexpectedly large number of 51, and have since spent the time falling on each other's necks, with cries of "Je vous embrasse," so sure were they that they would turn out Waldeck-Rousseau before the month was over. The pretence they made in the Chamber was that the Government meant to reopen the Dreyfus case. As foundation for the charge, they asserted that a speech by M. Joseph Reinach, in which he said that amnesty was not justice, and that Dreyfus should be, not merely pardoned, but acquitted, was semi-official. They also pointed to the fact that secret-service officers had been investigating the record of some of the anti-Dreyfus witnesses, which was naturally found to be bad. With all this prejudice to work upon, and with the prestige of their electoral victory in Paris fresh in the public mind, they made what is generally considered the most formidable assault upon the Ministry which it has as yet had to endure. But it came off triumphant. How much it owed to the Exposition, and the dread of driving away visitors by turmoil in Paris, no one can say positively; but it must have owed a good deal. They have remodelled the old saying now in France, and made it read, "L'Exposition, c'est la paix."

"REPOSING CONFIDENCE."

At the end of Postmaster-General Smith's letter of instructions to the official investigator of the Cuban frauds, he said that the President was "deeply shocked" at the "shameful betrayal of trust" by officials in whom "confidence had been reposed." This simple-hearted utterance might evoke the cynical retort from those who have, in their turn, reposed confidence in President McKinley, that they are glad he knows himself what it is to be deeply shocked by official betrayal. They had their shock long ago in his civil-service pledges violated, and his plain duty become plainer shuffling. But we pass, with the Methodists, from such painful personalities about a brother beloved, to say a word concerning the total misconception of the principles involved which is implied in the President's lamentation over his Cuban rascals.

"Reposing confidence," we must first remind him, is an exploded doctrine of the civil service. Minor appointments, like that of Neely, are no longer made, by decent governments, on the basis of confidence, but on that of demonstrated competence and character. What does Mr. McKinley think the civil-service-reform laws are for? Are they not for the express purpose of removing the great body of national employees—80,000 to 100,000 of them—from the category of "confidence" to that of ascertained fitness? The point is that we have a system of recognized checks and safeguards, to prevent just such breaches of official trust as have shocked the good President. We do not proceed upon happy-go-lucky hopes that all will turn out well, but we examine, we test, we observe, we promote the men in subordinate positions, and thus take a bond of fate instead of reposing confidence. The President knew all about this established method. He promised to apply it in Cuba. Secretary Root pointed out the imperative need of applying it there. But Mr. McKinley complacently reposed confidence instead. That is, he walked over the precipice in plain daylight, and is shocked to find himself lying at the bottom bruised and bleeding.

All this is supposing that Mr. McKinley really reposed confidence in Neely, Reeves, Thompson, and the other accused officials. But he did nothing of the kind. The true objects of his confidence were Hanna and Senator Fairbanks and Assistant Postmaster-General Heath. He took their word for it that their henchmen were fit for office. The slightest application of civil-service tests would have thrown out Neely, with such a harum-scarum record as he had. Five minutes' talk with him would have been enough to show that the Cuban service was the last place in which to turn loose a shifty speculator. But the President simply took the nominee of the bosses at their own valuation. This is the ultimate truth in his lament over betrayed confidence. It was the bosses in whom he trusted—not the thieving officials; he knew nothing about them—and they have smirched his Administration by loading their needy followers upon it. There was "confidence" involved, but so there is in the operations of the "confidence-man." The President's outcries are very like those of the innocent farmer to whom a sharper has sold a gold brick. He "reposed confidence" in Hanna and the Indiana bosses with true bucolic simplicity.

But not even here does the President's confidence game end. We see in the case of the Buffalo politician whom he has named for the Federal bench, that he is willing to appoint men to important offices even after he knows that they are not deserving of confidence. No mistake is possible about this. Mr. McKinley might conceivably believe, in the goodness of his heart, that a Platt wire-puller who suddenly announced himself as "out for the ermine," was just the man to make a learned and upright judge. He might even suppose that Platt and Depew could not possibly impose an unfit candidate upon him. But if he had any illusion on either of these points he has been thoroughly undeceived. The delegations from Buffalo have given the verdict of the vicinage upon Platt's man Hazel, and it is that his elevation to the bench would be a disgrace and a danger. But has that made any difference to Mr. McKinley? Oh no, he continues to "repose confidence"; and if Hazel should hereafter disappoint him he would be duly "shocked." But this would not prevent him, were opportunity ever given him, from solemnly arraigning Mr. Bryan for an intended assault upon the purity and independence of the Federal Judiciary!

There is a final defence which Mr. McKinley's friends make for these outrages of his upon the public service. It is the same defence which Gov. Roosevelt's lone apologist offers for his outrage, both upon the public service and his own professions, in making spoils of the transfer-tax appraisers. It is that, when all is said, you have to stand by the chosen leader of your party. If Comptroller Morgan chose to make bad appointments (everybody knows, of course, that he did not make them; he was only Platt's registering clerk), the remedy is to elect a better man. In the same way Mr. McKinley says: Platt and Depew are the recognized leaders of the party and I must defer to them. Don't blame me; choose better leaders. But how plain a tale puts down this Roosevelt-McKinley plea. In the first place, they have assured us, by word and act, that these wicked leaders were worthy men. Was not Morgan elected on the same ticket as Roosevelt, and with his open endorsement? Did not McKinley give the voters to understand that Platt and Depew were men after his own heart? It is late in the day to turn now and say they should never have been chosen to represent the party. Furthermore, they do not now represent it, except as the ringleaders of a mutiny who had taken possession of the ship might be said to represent the owners and passengers. Is it not a fact that Platt's control of the Republican party in this State is just about the same as that of a brig by a riotous boatswain who has killed the first mate, flung the captain overboard, gagged the passengers, and left them locked in the cabin? Depew, in this case, would be an old tar who had consented to become acting mate, partly through threats, partly through the promise of extra grog. And the President recognizes these successful mutineers as legitimately in command of the ship! And he does his best, by shutting his ears to the cries of the helpless passengers and the appeals of the loyal members of the crew, to make that piratical command permanent! But he will go on "reposing confidence." He will also go on complaining of confidence betrayed, and illustrate once more that old saying of Mountstuart Elphinstone, the great Anglo-Indian statesman, that politicians could never be got to understand that "things cannot be and not be at the same time."

THE WAR ON MONOPOLIES.

Many interesting questions are raised by the decision of the Attorney-General of New York to take proceedings to restrain the American Ice Company from selling ice in this State. Vigorously as most persons denounce monopoly, they must admit that it would be a very serious matter to cut off the supply of ice from this city. Immense quantities of perishable food are kept here in cold-storage, and the single article of milk, in hot weather, requires a great deal of ice for its preservation. If the American Ice Company has a monopoly, to prohibit it from selling ice would mean something like starvation to many of the inhabitants of this city. If the charge against it is sustained, we must, therefore, be prepared to suffer for our principles. Possibly it may be thought judicious to protract the proceedings until cold weather approaches, when a decision against the ice company would have less serious consequences.

The reply to such considerations which naturally suggests itself is, that the ice belonging to the wicked corporation would somehow be supplied to the public. No doubt it would; but in that event the legal proceedings are rather farcical. Will the ice be sold at lower prices than those now asked? It is hard to see why it should be, and easy to see why the legal complications should tend to increase the price. The American Ice Company will be dissolved into its constitu-

ent companies, the owners of its stock will become owners of the stock of these companies, and its managers will be their managers. The original Sugar Trust was dissolved because it was an unlawful combination; but consumers of sugar obtained that product no cheaper because of the dissolution of the Trust. The Standard Oil Trust was terminated by legal proceedings in Ohio; but the oil business appears to be carried on as before. So it may be with ice. As the inhabitants of this city cannot live without it, and as the stock held by the monopoly is indispensable, we must regard its suppression as a kind of legal fiction. Of course there is no doubt that the American Ice Company was formed for an illegal purpose. Its purpose is illegal under the statute passed last year, under the previous statutes, and at common law. Any and every combination whereby competition in producing or dealing in things of common use may be prevented, comes under the ban. Nothing, however, is better understood by business men than that such combinations are infinite in number. Some are on a great scale and attract much attention; but the innumerable small ones are quite as illegal. The labor unions fix the price of their services. Professional men do the same. In every trade there are continual attempts to control competition and to regulate prices. At one time, under the influence of Adam Smith's exposure of the futility of legislative restraints, the outcry against monopolies and combinations subsided; but at present it is more vehement than ever, and we shall probably have to go through a course of legislative experiments.

It must be admitted that, so far as making political capital out of hostility to monopolies is concerned, the Republicans are in luck. The action which the Attorney-General of New York is to bring against the American Ice Company can hardly fail to show that it is a combination of Democratic politicians. Should this be the case, it will be a most effective campaign argument. Most of the denunciation of Trusts and monopolies comes from the Democratic orators. They have been confidently telling the people that all the friends of monopoly and oppression were in the Republican party; and the people have been inclined to believe them. But now comes this shocking disclosure in the stronghold of the Democrats, and it really appears to be sufficient to shut the mouths of their campaign speakers. It is all very well to assert that your adversaries are bad on general principles, but it is far more effective to refer to specific instances. The Republicans can now do this, while the Democrats cannot, and the latter will thus be put on the defensive.

We may add that the legislation against combinations, proposed by the Republican members of the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives, is quite as drastic as anything that the Democrats can suggest. The proposed amendment to the Constitution amounts to nothing; but the prohibition of the transportation of the products of combinations across State boundaries would be unquestionably efficacious. True, such a law would cut both ways. It would prevent the ice company from bringing its ice from the State of Maine, and would, therefore, hurt that company. It would also prevent this city and others from getting ice from Maine, which would hurt the inhabitants of those places. It would, perhaps, prevent the Standard Oil Company from selling oil and materials for making gas in many of the States, thereby causing loss to that company, and perhaps leaving many communities in darkness. But we can hardly expect to destroy such extensive and inveterate evils without causing ourselves much suffering; and, as we say, the law proposed by the Judiciary Committee is a drastic measure. The Democrats cannot criticise it on the ground that it does not go far enough.

On the whole, so far as the Trust issue is concerned, the position of the Republicans has considerably improved. They can point to the law recommended by the Judiciary Committee as showing their intentions, and to the prosecution of the American Ice Company as showing their achievements. The Democrats, on the other hand, will have to explain away their achievements in the formation and operation of this company, while they can suggest nothing better than the Republican Interstate Commerce Bill as indicating their intentions. In fact, Mr. Bryan and the leaders of his party seem to be committed to inconsistent policies. He would put Congress in control of all corporations; they would respect the rights of the States. But we may be assured that the platforms of both parties will be as outspoken against monopoly and oppression as any one can desire.

MUNICIPAL REFORM IN CHICAGO.

The problem of securing good government in a large city is perhaps nowhere harder than in Chicago. The second municipality in the country in point of size, it seems in some respects the first in the difficulties which confront any attempt to weld discordant elements into a harmonious whole. About three-fourths of the voters are of foreign birth or parentage, and many of them understand the English language but imperfectly, if at all. This hodge-podge of an electorate has been called upon of late years to settle questions of the greatest importance in the development of the city, involving oftentimes property rights of vast value, and offering easy opportunities for a resort to corruption.

The result of all this was that five years ago the municipal government of Chicago had become a disgrace to an American city. The Board of Aldermen contained sixty-eight members. Most of them were without personal standing or character, and fifty-eight of the sixty-eight were organized into a "gang" for the service and blackmail of corporations like the street-car companies. During the year 1895 six great franchises of enormous value were granted by the gang, the vetoes of the Mayor and the indignation of the public being alike ineffective. In 1900, what was in 1895 a small minority of honest men in the Council, practically without voice or influence, has become the dominant force in the body. The "aldermanic business" has ceased to be so profitable that politicians pay large amounts to secure an office with only a nominal salary. Corporations no longer find it a good investment to make large expenditures for the reëlection of notorious boodlers who have served them. It has even become again an honor to be a member of the Council, and any capable man may make an enviable reputation by faithful service.

The change is largely due to the work of the Municipal Voters' League, the story of which is told in the June *Atlantic* by Mr. Edwin Burritt Smith, who has been from the first prominently connected with the movement. There had been before 1895 a Civil-Service-Reform Association, a Civic Federation, and other reform organizations, which had aroused a wide interest in local administration and developed a general desire for better things. In 1895 the Legislature passed a civil-service law, which, by popular vote, the city decided to accept. In January, 1896, the Federation called together about 200 men, representing various clubs and reform organizations, to consider how the coöperation of good citizens, regardless of national politics, in the reform of the city government might best be secured. A committee of fifteen representative men was appointed, which subsequently reported in favor of the organization of a Municipal Voters' League, to be composed of a hundred men, and to have power to act. The principal objects announced were to secure the election of "aggressively honest men" to the Council, and to sustain the civil-service law.

The Committee of One Hundred at its first meeting appointed a small Executive Committee, and held only one other meeting—to hear the Executive Committee's report after the first campaign. It then disbanded, giving the smaller committee power to perpetuate itself. This committee consists of nine members, the terms of one-third expiring each year, and successors being elected by those holding over. It chooses officers, but their duties are only administrative, and no final action is taken

without the vote of the committee. No person, committee, or organization in the wards has authority to use the name of the League or to commit it in any way. The general membership is composed of voters, who sign cards expressing approval of its purposes and methods.

The League devotes itself to securing a good City Council, and it has found the most effective way of accomplishing this result to consist in obtaining and publishing the records of members and would-be members. In every campaign before nominations are made, a full report of the official action of retiring members is prepared and printed, with specific judgments as to whether they deserve defeat or reëlection. On the eve of the election a like report on all candidates is published for the information of voters. There is a "League platform" which pledges the signer to exact full compensation for franchises, support the civil-service law, and unite with others to secure a non-partisan organization of the Council, and the voters are told whether or not every candidate stands on this platform. The importance of the League's endorsement has become so well recognized that party managers in many wards submit names of candidates in advance to the Executive Committee, its policy being to suggest candidates of its own only rarely.

The great lesson of the League's work is the immense importance of publicity in exposing bad men who seek office, and thus securing their defeat. As Mr. Smith says, "There is nothing that the city statesman of the ordinary spoils variety so dislikes as a campaign in which the issue is upon the facts of his own record." Another lesson of this experience is the demonstration of the fact that "there is nothing of such interest to the voters, on the eve of a municipal election, as an authoritative statement of these suggestive facts."

The Chicago League may not be a model which could be imitated to advantage in every detail of its organization and methods elsewhere—every city is likely to develop its own distinctive system. But some organization working to such ends every municipality ought to have, and the remarkable success of the Chicago body is full of encouragement to reformers everywhere throughout the country.

CONTEMPT OF COURT.

Senator Bate of Tennessee has introduced a bill which is correctly described as of considerable political importance. Nothing political, however, appears on the face of the measure. It purports only to regulate the trial and punishment of contempt of the courts of the United States. It merely provides that, in all cases of contempt except those committed in the presence of the court, or so near it as to obstruct its proceedings, the accused shall have a right to a trial by jury. To understand why this should be regarded as a political measure, we must go back to the time of the Chicago riots and to the Democratic platform of 1896. Some of the Federal courts issued extremely sweeping injunctions against all persons hindering the movements of railroad trains, and punished summarily several agitators who were charged with disobedience of these injunctions. Such "government by injunction" was denounced in the platform of the Democratic party.

It is said that Senator Bate maintains that his bill has no reference to the political situation, and no question is raised concerning his veracity. Nevertheless, the Democrats are reported to feel that a measure of this kind is required in order to place them "in the right attitude before the people on one of the issues of the campaign." They consider that a popular prejudice exists against the declaration concerning government by injunction, which declaration will be repeated in the platform to be adopted this summer. The misconception arises from supposing that the power of the courts to issue injunctions is threatened, whereas it is really the power of arbitrary punishment for violating injunctions. Whether these explanations are correct or not is comparatively immaterial. Senator Bate may have been influenced solely by legal considerations, and yet his measure will unquestionably strengthen the Democrats if they support it, and embarrass the Republicans if they oppose it.

In the first place, the bill has merits from a purely legal point of view. It tends to avoid confusion of remedies and clashing of authorities. It gives the courts power to preserve order in their precincts, and to maintain the dignity of their proceedings. Probably they should also have power to enforce mandates directing the performance of, or the abstention from, particular acts by specified individuals. To permit a litigant to disregard an injunction in a suit in equity, trusting to obtaining an eventual acquittal from a jury, would be quite too revolutionary. The remedy of injunction was devised precisely because the common-law penalties were found in certain cases insufficient. Irreparable injury may often be done unless the power of the court is exerted as soon as it is invoked. This power must be preserved, but it should not be extended to apply to cases where the common law and the criminal statutes provide an adequate remedy. When a man commits a breach of the peace, he should be dealt with by the sheriff or the policeman, not by a court of equity.

In the second place, the bill is meritorious on political as distinguished from party grounds. We cannot ignore the fact that we live under a dual government. The several States are constitutionally empowered to preserve order within their own boundaries, and the general Government is to intervene only when the authority of the State is successfully defied. There are some exceptions to this rule, as when the general Government is authorized to use its forces to prevent interference with the post; but "the exception proves the rule." At the time of the Chicago riots the authority of the State of Illinois was not overthrown; it was simply not effectively exerted. The Executive apparently sympathized with the rioters; but that can hardly be regarded as a reason why the Federal courts should have enjoined them from rioting and punished them for contempt when they disobeyed. Much loss and inconvenience may be caused by a bad State Government; but, as we see in the Kentucky case, there are great advantages in keeping the Federal Government out of the field which the State Governments are competent to regulate.

In the third place, there are obvious social reasons why such a measure is wise. We cannot ignore the fact that a large number of our citizens think that the Federal Judges are inclined to sympathize with employers when they quarrel with laborers. The belief exists that the rich men who direct our great industries are very potent when nominations to Federal offices are made, and that they use their influence in support of judicial candidates who will make satisfactory decisions. This belief may be unfounded, but if the law can be so changed as to discredit this belief, without hampering the administration of justice, it is wise to change it. Social discontent will be thus allayed, and if the Republican leaders should consider the matter, they might conclude that they had better make the reform themselves and get the credit of it.

We cannot maintain, in the face of such a judicial appointment as President McKinley has just made in this State, that the prejudice against the Federal judiciary is altogether unfounded. The new District Judge was appointed, it is generally understood, on the recommendation of Senators Platt and Depew. He was not appointed because he had distinguished himself as a lawyer. He had distinguished himself only as a politician. Perhaps he will make a good judge. Some politicians have made good judges; but, in spite of this fact, it is a bad plan to appoint politicians as judges. That means, under our present party system, that the party bosses will select the judges; and as the party bosses are in close touch with the men who direct our great corporations, unpleasant inferences will be drawn. So long as our judges are under this cloud, they should welcome any measure that will tend to avert suspicion and odium from their official acts.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 10, 1900.

If a rail of protection had to be put up at the Academy, as in the year of Mr. Frith's "Derby Day," it would be before Mr. Sargent's large portrait group. This is the painting selected by the Prince of Wales for special mention in his speech at the banquet on Saturday; it is the painting that all the world and many artists agree to admire. Such universal admiration is apt to make one sceptical, but still the work that attracts it is worth consideration.

In the course of his long, ambitious career, Mr. Sargent has never yet shown himself so ambitious as in this portrait of Lady Elcho, Mrs. Adeane, and Mrs. Tennant, the three daughters of Mrs. Percy Wyndham, of whom a famous portrait has already been painted, the masterpiece of Mr. Watts. Mr. Sargent, with a courage less common in England than in France, has taken for the work a large canvas—as large as those upon which the old Dutch Masters painted their Regent-Pieces. The three sisters are grouped immediately in the foreground, two sitting on a couch, the third standing just behind it. They wear white gowns of rich and shining stuffs that fall in voluminous folds. The couch is white, and on the floor is a jar filled with a great bunch of magnolias in full bloom. To render this mass of white, to give it variety, to express the different textures, to preserve the truth of the relative tones—above all, still to concentrate the interest on the faces—would be in itself no easy matter. But Mr. Sargent has succeeded in this; moreover, he has succeeded, which is more unusual with him, in carrying out an elaborate background and making it part of the picture. The three sisters do not spring out of vague shadows, like the little girl in red now at the New Gallery. They sit well within the cool green room. On the wall, just above them, hangs Mr. Watts's portrait of Mrs. Wyndham; on either side are other pictures; there is a cabinet of inlaid work in a corner, and opposite are one or two more large jars with magnolia blossoms and their glossy leaves. The sunlight, from an unseen window, falls here and there on the wall, and just touches the gilt of a frame. Mr. Sargent has never painted a more beautiful background.

Faults, of course, can be pointed out, and serious faults. The drawing is at times a little vague. One of the sisters, the youngest and fairest, seems to float along the couch instead of sitting solidly upon it; her outstretched arms—she is the only one to whom an animated gesture is allowed—are put in with almost too careless a sweep of the clever brush. The brush-work, indeed, is all too careless and rough; it insists upon proclaiming its dexterity and daring; the painter is determined that you shall see how the trick is done. Then there is always the suspicion that Mr. Sargent derives no small part of his strength from the weakness of his surroundings. In an Academy of pigmies, he towers a giant. Would the picture be so striking in the Trafalgar Square gallery, or even in the new Salon? Then, too, as I have said, the excessive praise of the crowd encourages doubt. The picture has been called *the* picture of the century, which is sheer nonsense; it has been declared the greatest portrait group ever painted—an assertion that sends you off, in fancy, post haste to Haarlem, to Amsterdam, to Madrid, and the greatness of Mr. Sargent's glory is effectually dimmed. But just the same, it is certain that he himself has never exhibited so complete and so serious a picture. It is a distinct improvement upon the "Mrs. Meyer," now at Paris, and the other portraits of the last few years.

A small sketch, which he calls "An Interior of Venice," is as clever in its way. It is a vivacious note of a palatial apartment, florid, gay, and delightful, as only Venetian architecture and decoration can be, with four figures—an old man reading and an old lady sitting on one side of the spacious room; a young girl busy with the tea things, and a young man idling gracefully on the other. Every touch is expressive, and the composition is as complete as in that larger group. But the handling seems to me too bold for so small a canvas. I cannot help thinking of the exquisiteness of a little interior by Terburg, for instance, or, to come down to our own day, by M. Stevens. That the sketch is clever is not to be denied, but art is not mere cleverness. However, Mr. Sargent has chosen this sketch for the "Diploma Work" which he, like every other Academician, is obliged to "deposit" with the Academy upon election. Because it is a sketch is no reason why it should not find a place in a public gallery, especially in a "Diploma Gallery" of mediocrities. But Mr. Sargent would have shown finer appreciation of the supposed dignity of the Academy, had he presented a work of more importance. It is curious with what a pang of regret Academicians always seem to part with the picture expected of them. Mr. Abbey is not more generous, but is giving a small canvas called "A Lute-Player," which, for his own reputation, might as well have remained in his studio.

Mr. Sargent has four other portraits. Two are not very notable; but two, of the Lord Chief Justice, are strong studies of character. Thanks to the vagaries of the Academy, to which many painters are no longer willing to expose themselves, Mr. Sargent enjoys his success alone and without rivals. The more accomplished of the younger men, like Mr. Steer and Mr. Greiffenhagen, have stayed away altogether; the Glasgow School is unrepresented; and, while M. Benjamin Constant, in all his flamboyancy, hangs on the line, an American like Mr. McLure Hamilton, who happens to be outside the Academical ranks, is placed about as badly as he can be.

Of academical portraits it is kinder to say nothing. Over the President's wooden puppet of a lady, over Mr. Herkomer's violent color schemes that hurt the eye, I draw a veil. But there is one other portrait group which, though it be a failure, cannot be passed in silence. When it was announced, some months ago, that Mr. Orchardson was to paint the Queen accompanied by the three future kings who are to succeed her—the Prince of Wales, the Duke of York, and the little Prince Edward of York—there was universal rejoicing. One might almost think the royal family had cultivated a taste for bad art, so persistent has been their preference for the mediocre painter. But Mr. Orchardson is an artist of distinction. His scope is limited, he has a tendency to anecdote, he always sees the world and the people in it through the same golden haze. But technically he is accomplished, his work is full of refinement, and he has produced more than one portrait of a high order of merit. Much, therefore, was expected of him, for which reason disappointment now is the keener. Like Mr. Sargent, he has painted a beautiful room—a pale golden room; its sumptuous ornament, its pictures and its busts, its gorgeous furniture, rendered with genuine charm, and all well enveloped in atmosphere and keeping their place in the picture. But, unlike Mr. Sargent, he has not been able to make his figures a part of the room; it is too big for them; they are lost in it. The Queen sits apart to the left, years younger and much slimmer than she was as all London saw her but the other day. Had Mr. Orchardson borrowed a hint from Rembrandt and painted her uncompromisingly in the dignity of her old age, he might have given her at least the beauty of character. To the right, the Prince of Wales stands stiff and upright, while the Duke of York bends over, in his irreproachable frock coat like a tailor's dummy, and urges the unwilling Prince Edward to present the huge nosegay grasped firmly in his two little hands. It is feeble to the last degree. Love of anecdote has been Mr. Orchardson's undoing. He probably was afraid of being photographic. But those old men and women in the Haarlem masterpieces, who sit in solemn groups doing nothing, are not photographic. Dignity, courtliness, splendor is what is asked of royalty, what Vandyck and Velasquez knew how to give. Mr. Orchardson has made the least of a fine opportunity.

Except among the landscapes, I found little else that interested me very keenly. Mr. Abbey's "Trial of Queen Katharine" is a large, ambitious piece of work; but, sometimes, Mr. Abbey, in his conscientious study of costume, is in danger of forgetting his picture. The eye wanders through a wilderness of gorgeous robes and gorgeous accoutrements, set against a background of gorgeous architecture and gorgeous stained-glass windows. The amount of research Mr. Abbey must have spent upon this one composition is marvellous. The trouble is, he has not concealed it skilfully enough, and the design suffers. There is no concentration, though he has sought—as in several of his big pictures—to produce his effect by the strong, almost violent, contrast of the red robes of the King and Cardinals with the white of the Queen and her ladies, whose faces are seen in a curious sharp silhouette that forces them quite out of the picture; an ingenious fitting together of many distinct parts, you would say, rather than one perfect whole. His smaller "Penance of Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester," is more complete. Here again, for color scheme, there is the opposition of vivid reds and whites. The composition is more harmoniously balanced. The effect is concentrated on the central figure in her penitential draperies. But Mr. Abbey should have frankly accepted a decorative formula; flat convention of modelling would have been more appropriate in a design that is wholly and entirely without light or atmosphere.

When it comes to the landscapes, there are a few good pictures. It is true that Mr. Clausen, who began his career as a follower of Bastien-Lepage, has since sought his inspiration in Millet, and that originality is not his most conspicuous merit. But he has

studied in a good school; he has learned from his master, more thoroughly than most other men of this generation, the secret of the dignity of labor; while he has trained himself to see not only its tragedy, but the gayety to which Millet was ever blind. Mr. Clausen's tillers of the soil work under a soft blue sky, where the white clouds float in a slow, grandiose flight, as they can only in England; his sowers and reapers and gleaners go about their daily task in fields radiant with sunlight. It is a pleasure to be alive in such a sunlit, wind-swept world. He has two little pictures of the kind this year, "Setting up Sheaves" and "Making a Rick," in which a few laborers are grouped statuesquely in a brilliant summer landscape. Mr. Clausen is inspired by Millet, but he works in England, and it always seems to me there is in his pictures something of the spirit of romance that you feel in Mr. Hardy's pastoral novels. Mr. La Thangue is supposed to have studied in the same school, and he does paint much the same subjects. But where Mr. Clausen has looked through the eyes of Millet, Mr. La Thangue has looked through the camera. Not that he ever condescends to use a camera, but there is the brutal realism of the photograph in his ploughboy and horses sauntering down a sunlit lane right out of the canvas, or in his geese fluttering down another lane upon as indiscreet an outing. He can paint with a well-trained brush the actual things before him, but he has not the power to transform them by the magic of poetry.

Of Mr. Edward Stott, I need say but little, as he sends only one canvas to the Academy, reserving for the New Gallery his most important pictures, which I have already described. Mr. Alfred Parsons, though his motives are so different, is as inveterate a realist as Mr. La Thangue. Mr. Alfred East, on the other hand, is so eager to escape the charge of realism that every landscape he paints reveals him in his pose of idealist. He has a sense of composition, but you cannot look at his canvas without being conscious of the effort. Two bright, sunny landscapes by Mr. Mark Fisher are well hung, but, by way of antidote, the third is skied. For the rest, the vagaries of the Academy are as well known to landscape as to portrait painters, and many of the more distinguished prefer to show with the New English Art Club, or in the smaller galleries.

The average of the sculpture—probably because the difficulties frighten away the amateur and the dabbler—is always higher than the average of painting, and this year there are two or three works that stand out in distinct relief. One is Mr. John M. Swan's "Puma and Macaw," a powerful piece of modelling. The puma, with the bird in its mouth, is stealthily creeping away, the lithe body, from the head, with the savage turned-back ears, to the curling tail, making a long sinuous line of great grace and beauty, the movement admirably expressed. Barye could not have surpassed it. Mr. Alfred Gilbert has a Baptismal Font of strikingly original design. It is tall and slender, the alabaster basin supported on delicate pillars of bronze, and the top surmounted by a very lovely little enamelled figure of Christ. Mr. Onslow Ford has evidently been as much oppressed by the difficulties in producing an effective statue of Huxley—it has just been unveiled in South Kensington—as Falguière, in his Balzac, was handicapped by the failure of M. Rodin. The Huxley, like the Balzac, is a seated figure, the official robes answering the same kindly purpose as the famous dressing-gown; and, like the Balzac, it is heavy and shapeless, and not at all impressive. Mr. Frampton and Mr. Pomeroy are also represented, and there are enamels by Mr. Alexander Fisher.

The black-and-white and the water-color rooms are always to be avoided. Apparently, every effort is made not to include the men who are most accomplished in the use of either medium. It will thus be seen that a collection of over two thousand exhibits, in the official headquarters of art in this country, contains less than a dozen portrait and figure subjects, about a dozen landscapes, and half-a-dozen pieces of sculpture worth seeing. One of the smaller rooms would hold them all easily. And it is this annual exhibition of weakness that the English public loves to honor in the Royal Academy.

N. N.

CARDUCCI'S MURATORI.

FLORENCE, May 6, 1900.

On the 20th of October, 1872, the Municipality of Modena inaugurated the first of the nine days' commemoration of the second centenary of Muratori's birth, and Giosuè Carducci, then neither *commendatore* nor Senator, went as guest, not as orator, and gave his impressions in one of those delightful sketches which are so rare in Italy. Among the guests he noted Cesare Cantù—" fine head; resolute, strong, sharp features; looking scarcely fifty, though sixty years of age"; Atto Vannucci, "tall, slightly bent, with a face they call English, while to me it seems that of an honest Tuscan peasant"; and the lofty, martial figure of Gen. Fabrizi. "Worthy of note was it" that while the Mayor and Prefect sat with their hats on, in the church of Vignola, where Muratori was baptized, Cantù, Vannucci, and Fabrizi stood with uncovered heads. After visiting Vignola, "which, like Florence, but with more openings and background, lies at the foot of the Apennines between beautiful hills and rivers, and is fertile in talent (Barozzi, Muratori, and Paradisi were born there), in stupendous cabbages, exquisite fruits, and tempting hams (to me a fine cabbage, perfectly cultivated, is more æsthetic than fifty modern poems, or 1,500 articles of even the Opposition press)," our poet spent three days among the treasures of the museums, archives, and libraries. Then, having examined the relics of Muratori contained in them, and those lent to the Lyceum by the last lineal descendant of the historian, he returned to Bologna "without gifts or banquets," "without seeing the illuminations or hearing the concerts," but sufficiently confirmed in his abiding veneration for Muratori to accept the proposal made by the publisher, S. Lapi, of Città di Castello, that he should supervise the publication of the huge new edition of the 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores' which is being issued in numbers, now that the Preface is complete.

First Carducci repeats, in the historian's simple, old-fashioned words, his reasons for setting himself to the vast undertaking. The Middle Ages, according to Muratori, had been too much neglected; it was not fair that only the golden times of Greece and Rome should be recorded. The French, the Germans, the Spaniards, the English sought out and preserved all they could discover concerning their past. The Dutch Grevio had collected several volumes of Italian history, and if such works are not signs of genius, they evince two excellent qualities—erudition, and judgment in choosing good and omitting bad matter. This and much more is set forth from 1708 to 1715, when he was between thirty-seven and forty-three years of age (born at Vignola at the fifteenth hour of the 21st of October, 1672), by Antonio Lodovico.

Muratori wrote his 'Reflections on Good Taste in Art and Science,' wherein he defines in great part his intentions and methods for the grand collection 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores.' Up to 1695 he had worked for the College of Doctors of the Ambrosian Library at Milan; then he was recalled by his "legal lord," Duke Rinaldo I. of Este, to regulate the archives and the library of that princely house. His researches in Milan resulted in four volumes of 'Anecdota Latina'—poems, orations, histories, chronicles of various ages and peoples, selected and illustrated with vast erudition; a volume of 'Anecdota Græca,' epigrams and letters of Gregory Nazianzen and of Julian the Apostate, translated with commentaries. Two volumes of Italian 'Anecdotes' were to have followed, but were absorbed in the vortex of the 'Scriptores.' The archivist and librarian had in 1708 to fling himself into the controversy between the Pope and the Duke of Este as to the rights of dominion over the city of Comacchio and the state of Ferrara; and in defence of the rights of his "Signore" Muratori published five volumes, and wrote many more to prove the antiquity of the house of Este.

Much cordial assistance he received from Apostolo Zeno, the first reformer of melodrama, founder of the first literary journal, historian of Italian literature and poetry, who had set his heart on writing an ample and serious history. He, in 1699, writes to Muratori, whose Latin Anecdotes have much pleased him, giving an outline of his proposed work; saying how he is collecting chronicles from Sicily and the Vatican and there in Venice, having copied the Chronicles of the Doge Dandolo and his continuators, Benintendi and Carisini. He enumerates all the treasures he has accumulated. "Why this large collection? you may ask. To tell the truth, I meditate a vast publication, *Rerum Italicarum Scriptores hactenus desiderati*, even as is done in Germany, England, France, and Spain. Great men who have honored her in letters have never been wanting in our Italy." Muratori helps his friend with manuscripts and collected materials, and when Zeno is summoned to the court of Vienna as poet laureate, successor to Silvio Stampiglio and predecessor of Metastasio, he encourages Muratori to persevere in his researches and publications. "Too long the prejudice that no studies were worth pursuing unless they threw new light on the manners, customs, and institutions of Greece and Rome, prevailed in Italy," so that the centuries following the decline of the Empire were held to contain only vice, horrors, and barbarism. But Muratori considered it a fault of too proud or fastidious minds—nay, an ungrateful thing—to lavish regard on Italy triumphant and victorious, and to turn from her when down-

trodden and vanquished. In both estates she was our very same mother, and it is the duty of children to learn all about her in evil as in good fortune, in order to gain experience from all times, to find charts of life, to understand how nations rise and fall, the causes, methods, and effects of decadence as of glory, especially when so much of modern society is derived from the blendings of barbarous races. Such thoughts and feelings persuaded and encouraged Muratori to collect in ordinated series of huge volumes all that could be discovered of the history of Italy during the Middle Ages.

After the exhausting period of the Renaissance, a painful weariness, a cold isolation, an arid vanity enveloped the Latin peoples. The ecclesiastical element alone was awakened and aroused by the tempest of the Reformation. Carducci tells of the vast work accomplished in Germany, where all armed themselves to confront and dominate Latin supremacy; then, when Germany rested on her oars, England stept in. France in her most troubled times gave to her historical works the double impress of her devotion to the Church and to Monarchy. Italy, which had collected all the treasures of ancient Greece and Rome, and had given them to the world with lavish generosity, was looked upon as a nation whose part was played out, and in which no vital spark remained. Nevertheless, at the commencement of the eighteenth century some faint light—though whether a reflection of the latest sunset, or a gleam from the future dawn, it is difficult to say—glimmered in Italy. G. B. Caruso (1673-1724) took up the thread of Sicilian history broken off in 1550. Pier Caterino Zeno, brother of the laureate, continued his history of Venetian affairs, while Apostolo Zeno himself, grateful for early services, on quitting Italy left Muratori heir to his youthful scheme, helping him with advice, and sending him all the material accumulated, including the manuscript Chronicles of Dino Compagni.

"Such histories as did appear in Italy were sporadic—like plants sprung up from seeds of former culture long since buried, or dropped by migrating birds, or borne by the wind to solitary heights. Extensive cultivation, generous sowing, grand historical flowering was no longer to be found in Italy; example, motive, impulse, all came to us from without. Italy, as long as she saw living history develop in herself or from herself, well or badly, contemplated it, wrapt in the mirage of antiquity which the deathless magic of the Renaissance kept before her eyes as a continuation, in perpetual transformation, of Roman history. She contemplated it and represented it to herself and to others in the spirit and the form of those times. . . . No one, with the exception, perhaps, of Guicciardini, acquired or cared for the science of facts. Our great ones of the fifth century rejoiced complacently in their acute, self-sufficing philosophy, their superbly draped narration. When history was no longer written in Italy, when the energy of the country went abroad, attracted by the flame of civil war, or by the turmoil of political agitations in Spain, Flanders, Germany, France, even by the fervor of religious missions in Asia, then were written by Italians histories of foreigners in fifth-century style—bolder in words, but less intensely thought out. The scientific conception of the general history of Italy was not progressive, but retrogressive."

"But Italy," continues Carducci, "so eloquent in narrating the story of foreign nations, lost consciousness of herself in her own, or rather took refuge in the cosmopolitanism of science. Science was the one occupation of Italy in the seventeenth century. After the close of that century and during the first half of the eighteenth, while her scientific acquisitions passed to other nations and were by them applied and amplified, from France, Germany, Holland, came back to Italy examples and impulses for fresh work on the 'new antiquity' (if I may be allowed the expression) of the Middle Ages and on history; came during that brief halt between two eras to men who, after the disintegration of the seventeenth century, accustomed themselves to the philosophical ideas of antiquity without rhetoric, to the erudition of the Renaissance without scholastics, to the jurisprudence of the Empire without sophistry. These examples and impulses affected such men as G. B. Vico, L. A. Muratori, and Pietro Giannone. While Leibnitz brought the search-light of politics to bear upon his inquiries, and Mabillon that of diplomacy and criticism on his publications, Muratori set himself to apply the aids and instruments recovered by Italy from foreign nations to a new work—Italy's own—the 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores,' the mightiest mass of national history ever published in Europe up to that date.

"First he clearly defined his materials and the limit set to his work: chronicles, historic documents, narrations relating to Italian affairs from 500 to 1500 A. D., from the commencement of the sixth to the close of the fifteenth century—*i. e.*, from the decline of Literature, and especially of History, to the highest point in the refulgence of both. Omitting what formed the greater portion of German collections—the historians of the fifth century whose fame was world-wide; admitting only such humanists of the fourth century as were unpublished or but dimly known, he set himself to collate his printed and manuscript material, publishing and republishing after comparison with new texts, adding emendations and commentaries to the printed matter, then publishing the manuscripts with prefaces and brief, clear notes to elucidate the text, explain facts, and add such historical notices as were necessary. One hundred and sixteen new editions of works already printed were thus republished; two thousand chronicles, histories, stories, poems, statutes, diplomas were by Muratori brought to light for the first time, from archives belonging to families, to cities, to bishoprics, to monasteries, to chapters, to public and private libraries."

Carducci proceeds to narrate all the difficulties and disappointments encountered by the undaunted explorer—how the Genoese and the Lucchese denied him access to their archives; how Victor Amadeus II. broke his twice-pledged promise, adding that he had suppressed a chronicle of Saluzzo, much desired by Muratori, "as it contained things neither decorous nor useful to our interests"; how the Vatican and all adherents of the papal predominance gave him a Roland for his Oliver, etc. But the 'Scriptores' grew in strength and size. One of its novelties was the admission of "vulgar" chronicles—vulgar not merely for the rough speech in which the Latin people, reawakened, proclaimed their advent, but for the actual barrenness of the things narrated.

" 'But this very simplicity,' observes this most learned collector, in words which savor of a new order of criticism—'this very simplicity and popular way of describing things that happen has its value: neither art nor coloring is there to veil the truth, and we find details which we are interested in knowing, yet which writers of greater talent would have omitted.' Muratori did not attain to the new critical method—he retained the dry rigidity of his age; but he abjured legends and fables, mutilated and threw away all the useless portions of chronicles, history, stories. Such were the methods prescribed and adhered to by Muratori in his vast collection." J. W. M.

NOTES ON JAPAN.—II.

KOBE, April 20, 1900.

The statesmen of Japan are not slow to see that relief from a prospective overcrowding of population can legitimately come only from those social and moral influences which check the birth-rate by raising the standard of intellectual life. This idea is largely coming to influence the educational system of the Empire, especially as related to the education of women. At present the provision for the education of girls is far below that for boys. Beginning at six, the girls have four years of preparatory work, and then there are six years more open to them in the middle high schools, which correspond to our grammar grade. Naturally, therefore, their education would be finished at sixteen, and then the Japanese girl as naturally marries and at once becomes a factor in increasing the population of the already overburdened Empire. Of course it is out of the question to prevent this by any arbitrary methods. The remedy lies in raising the intellectual standards of the common people, both men and women, especially of the women.

Strenuous efforts are being made to do this, and with fair promise of success. According to the last educational report, there were 4,083,430 male and 3,647,011 female children of school age. Of these there were 3,066,278 male and only 1,716,483 female children in schools. But even this is a great increase in the ratio of female children in school over that of a few years ago. In the normal schools, also, the proportion is still more striking. While the males number 1,061, the females number only 224. In the ordinary higher schools for women there was, however, a gratifying increase from 2,026 in 1894 to 6,406 in 1897, but these figures would have to be greatly increased now, for the growth of the interest in the education of women has been increasingly rapid the last two years. This appears in the propositions before the Diet for the enlargement of such schools, in the increased attendance at the many private schools maintained by the various missionary societies (whose work in this direction is more and more appreciated by the Japanese), and in the societies for the promotion of literary culture among Japanese women. One such correspondence society has several thousand members, scattered over the Empire, and publishes compendious summaries of information for the guidance of readers. In numerous addresses on scientific subjects given in Tokio and other large cities the presence of Japanese ladies of high rank was particularly notable.

The schools in general throughout the Empire are the pride of the people, but it has taken some years to provide a suitable number of efficient teachers. A visit to the laboratories of the schools of several of the interior towns has, however, given me a high appreciation of the thoroughness of the education which is being provided for Japanese youth. The apparatus and working museums are fully equal to what one finds in places of equal size in the United States, while the preparation on the part of the teachers is probably somewhat more thorough. Certainly the geological and chemical instructors who accompanied us to the mountains were most thoroughly informed in their departments—not only familiar with local facts, but having a wide knowledge of the world, and minute information concerning the many problems upon which we conversed.

This thorough equipment for their special work is accompanied by a simplicity of character that is as charming as it is un-

usual. This was illustrated in a ride of some distance in a car with the professor of chemistry and physics to whom I have referred. When we had about exhausted our capacity for conversation on scientific subjects, on account partly of our imperfect understanding of each other's language without an interpreter, the professor opened his travelling bag, and drew out a carefully wrapped small parcel, which proved to be a mouth-organ of German manufacture. He also unrolled a small music-book used in the schools, whereupon he entertained me with playing "Auld Lang Syne," "There is a happy land," and a few other similar tunes. He was delighted to learn that I knew the words of "There is a happy land," and insisted that I should write them out for him. I afterwards found that these tunes, with "Marching through Georgia," are special favorites all over Japan, and that the music of the mouth-organ is specially prized by the children, who are often good performers upon it.

At several places I have had the privilege of meeting the leading educators, officials, and philanthropists of the Empire, and am deeply impressed with the strength and depth of the movement which is lifting Japan to the level of Western civilization. The civilization which they have borrowed from the West is not a veneer, as many have represented. The Japanese are building war-ships and fortifying their harbors after the most approved style, and are seeing to the organization and equipment of their army and navy (as their late war with China demonstrated) with all the thoroughness of Germany, and they are doing this with little aid from foreign engineers. The few foreign consulting engineers complain that they are consulted so little that life is a burden. In the interior, extensive works are planned and executed everywhere by native engineers to protect the fields from the devastating floods which descend with terrific force from the mountain slopes. Some of their mistakes have been serious, but they prefer to trust to their own ability, and experience proves a good teacher.

One is everywhere impressed with the vast amount of labor and engineering skill that was bestowed in former times upon fortifications and irrigating enterprises. The more than one hundred fortresses surrounding as many castles where the leading Daimios lived, represent an enormous amount of labor and an equal amount of skill in adaptation to the defensive warfare of the time. In the aggregate the walls and moats exceed in amount that of the Chinese wall. All their national energy is now turned towards the accomplishment of more beneficent purposes. In the olden times the family life was so strong that there were no orphans. Some relative was found to adopt each waif. But now this product of Western civilization is appearing in increasing numbers. An orphan asylum, under Japanese management, with all the natural paraphernalia of such an institution, was an interesting object of inspection in Okayama. There were here nearly two hundred children, under the best of discipline, receiving instruction in industrial as well as intellectual branches. They are also following our example in the establishment of reform-schools for juvenile criminals, and in all other prison reforms. I found in Tokio two Japanese who have devoted all their energies to the work of caring for ex-convicts. In this they received the generous support of many noble Japanese families. More than eight hundred prisoners have been helped to independent means of employment, and nearly all had become respected members of society.

One can but be interested in studying the effects of the gradual introduction of labor-saving machinery into this dense population, and of the introduction of the gold standard which was adopted three years ago. The general testimony is that, notwithstanding the introduction of machinery and steam transportation, wages have risen during the last twenty-five years about 75 per cent., and that reckoned on a gold basis. But even so, they seem to us ridiculously low, especially in official appointments. Postmen receive from four to six and a half dollars (in our currency) per month in the city, and from two to three in the country, and policemen only six dollars. But in both cases their uniforms are furnished by the Government. Regular teachers in the elementary schools receive five dollars and a half per month, and in the middle schools seven dollars and fifty cents. In ordinary occupations, head carpenters receive from forty to fifty cents per day, under-carpenters from thirty to forty, while ordinary laborers receive from twenty to twenty-five cents. Trained nurses get thirty cents a day and their board.

But the prices of articles of necessity have nearly doubled during the last ten years, notwithstanding the change in standard. This, however, is partly due to the fact that the gold standard was adopted by bringing everything to the silver standard as it was in 1896. But prices have risen rapidly since that time, thus demonstrating the fallacy of the silver agitators. The stability given to business has led to a rapid development of industries. This rapid rise, both in wages and in the price of living, must speedily bring about great social changes. Tokio alone has 50,000 jinrikisha men, whose sole dependence for a livelihood is upon pulling these convenient vehicles. The authorities look with trembling upon the effect upon these of the introduction of street-cars, though the streets of a Japanese city are ill adapted to electric cars. They are so narrow and crowded that in Kioto a boy runs ahead at every street crossing to give the alarm. The jinrikisha, moreover, is so advantageous, in being able to come to every door, that the result is likely to be street-cars and jinrikishas both, without diminution of demand for either.

A month in Japan is, of course, insufficient to give one more than a superficial insight into the complicated movements which are in progress everywhere. But it is doubtful if any one has more than a superficial knowledge of the course of events in the Empire, so rapidly are the changes proceeding. Prof. Chamberlain, who has been here thirty years, says significantly that he has already seen four hundred years of national life. I look almost with dismay at the prospect before me during the summer of plunging from this seething cauldron of activity into the stolidity of China and the undeveloped resources of Siberia.

G. Frederick Wright.

Correspondence.

THE DUTCH PROFESSORS' MANIFESTO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The distribution broadcast through the universities of this country of a manifesto by the professors of the universities in Holland, in favor of the Transvaal and Orange Free State Boers, would not in itself be a cause of offence to such of us as are not of the Boer party, were it not that the manifesto deliberately falsifies facts, and misrepresents the issues involved in the present war. For these reasons I beg the privilege of replying to some of these misstatements, as, through your columns, I can the most readily reach a large number of my colleagues in other universities.

The Dutch professors quote the Declaration of Independence. It is the worst thing they could do, for every word of that Declaration condemns them and justifies the British. "We hold these truths to be self-evident," says the Declaration, "that *all* men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The *Grondwet* expressly lays down the doctrine that colored men are not equals of the white. The Transvaal oligarchy has refused the right of representation to the Uitlanders, and has endeavored to deceive the civilized world into the belief that it was ready to grant the franchise on the most liberal conditions, while, as a matter of fact, the very latest bill passed by the Volksraad rendered the franchise more illusory than before. The Transvaal oligarchy has obstructed the naturalization of foreigners after inviting them to come in and settle in the land, promising, if they did so, that they should have equal rights. It has obstructed the administration of justice, passing laws, without due notice to the people, for the express purpose of robbing citizens of their undoubted rights. It has made the judges of the Supreme Court dependent on its will alone for the tenure of their office, and for the amount of the payment of their salaries, thus depriving the foreigner of the last and sole safeguard against "absolute despotism." It has protected the assailants and murderers of the Uitlanders from punishment, sometimes by mock trial, sometimes by relief from the absurdly light punishment imposed. It has deprived men of the right of petition by declaring that those who petition to have a law changed or amended, are rebels to the law, and deserving of punishment. It has violated its pledged word and the solemn engagements into which it voluntarily entered. And now the two Republics, so called, having failed in their attempt to drive the English into the sea, finding that they did not, as President Steyn boasted, "hold England in the hollow of their hand," are endeavoring to excite, on utterly false grounds, sympathy in the breasts of the Americans by claiming to fight for the principles of 1776 when, in point of fact, these principles are of all the most cordially detested by them, and would never be applied did the fortune of war enable them to regain the opportunities for tyranny which they formerly enjoyed.

Nor let it be forgotten that the two so-called republics were the aggressors, and at

once proceeded to invade, plunder, and annex British territory.—Yours sincerely,

F. C. DE SUMICHRAST.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., May 28, 1900.

Notes.

A perhaps unique corporation in the publishers' line is the new Boston firm of Noyes, Platt & Co., which is to serve as a go-between for Curtis & Cameron and Small, Maynard & Co., "in the publication of certain books on art and illustrated books," of a high class. Its first imprint will be given to the official illustrated catalogue of the United States Fine Arts exhibit at the Paris Exposition. There will be forty-eight full-page half-tone reproductions of select American pictures, statuary, etc.

Anglo-American interests are catered to in two books about to be issued by John Lane, viz., 'The Rhodesians,' by Stracey Chambers, and 'The Filipino Martyrs: A Story of the Crime of the 4th February, 1899,' by Richard Brinsley Sheridan, an English barrister who visited Manila after the American occupation.

'A White Woman in Central Africa,' Helen Caddick's account of her transcontinental journey; 'Personal Recollections,' by H. Sutherland Edwards; 'With Dante in Paradise,' and 'How Dante Climbed the Mountain,' by Rose Emily Selfe; 'The Story of the Heavens,' by Sir Robert Stawell Ball; 'The Coming of the Kilogram; or, The Battle of the Standards,' by H. O. Arnold-Forster, M. P.; 'A Course of Landscape-Painting in Water-Colors,' by J. MacWhirter, R.A.; 'Tree-Painting in Water-Colors,' by W. H. J. Boot; Royal Academy Pictures, 1900, in five parts; with illustrated Guides to Paris, London, and the Clyde, are on the May list of announcements of Cassell & Co.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish directly Mrs. Meynell's monograph on Ruskin.

'Dwight L. Moody: Impressions and Facts,' by the late Henry Drummond, with an introduction by George Adam Smith, will be published immediately by McClure, Phillips & Co.

The *Cornhill Booklet* projected by Alfred Bartlett, 21 Cornhill, Boston, will contain monthly "some complete piece of literature, either a reprint of some scarce and little-known work, or original matter."

Two books by women come to us with a certain timeliness, 'Paris as It Is,' by Katherine De Forest (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and 'A Woman's Paris' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). Miss De Forest's first chapter is entitled "The Charm of Paris," and such might well have been her general title. Certainly a great deal of that charm has found its way between the covers of her volume. This is, says the preface, "perhaps less a guide-book than a dream-book. Certainly it was written not so much to give information as to interpret the genius of Paris." The author has lived long in the city she describes, and has used her eyes to advantage. Her "interpretation" is interesting, and her account of many phases of Parisian life unusually accurate. Of the proof-reading this cannot be said; printer's errors, particularly in the French, abound.

The anonymous author of 'A Woman's Paris' has had a much more practical object in view. Hers is not a guide-book either, but a book of guidance. It is intended to supply a kind of information not to be found elsewhere, and adapted to the wants of ladies visiting Paris, not as tourists, but as residents for longer or shorter periods. It discusses with liveliness and sense such topics as hotels and *pensions*, advises housekeeping, goes at length into the questions of servants, marketing, prices, *pourboires*, cabs, shops, dressmakers, climate, language, theatres, and French society. To bring it up to date, there are a couple of chapters at the end devoted to the Exposition and Exposition Prices, but here the author has to confess that most of the instruction contained in the rest of the volume is inapplicable to Exposition time, and that her scheme of modest and delightful living in Paris is not to be practised this year. We fancy that, if she gave it frankly, her advice to ladies of small means contemplating going to Paris this summer would be much like that of *Punch* to the young man contemplating matrimony. Both books are illustrated with small but fairly executed half-tone plates from photographs.

Miss Hurll's 'Millet' in the Riverside Art Series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the best of the series so far, both as to text and as to quality of reproduction in the illustrations. Miss Hurll deserves credit for her refusal to sentimentalize and to see in Millet's work what he distinctly disclaimed having put there; and her comment that Markham's "impassioned protest against 'the degradation of labor' . . . has nothing to do with the picture" is in the right vein.

Mr. W. W. Jacobs's 'Many Cargoes' disclosed a small but distinctly original vein of humor, which he has subsequently worked with much success, and still continues to develop. 'A Master of Craft' (Frederick A. Stokes Company), his latest novel, possesses a most intricate plot, in which the personages are old friends under new names, acting and speaking exactly as sailormen on Thames freighters have always done in his stories. Those to whom his previous books have given pleasure will doubtless enjoy this one, and in any event it is perfectly wholesome fooling; but the subject is in danger of becoming exhausted by him.

G. P. Putnam's Sons publish the memoirs of Gen. Keifer (2 vols., 8vo), under the title of 'Slavery and Four Years of War.' The first part is an outline of the history of slavery in the United States, covering 157 pages. The author's own military experience in the civil war follows, with his observations on campaigns in which he had a part and officers with whom he served. Few had a more active war experience than his. Beginning as Major of the Third Ohio Infantry in April, 1861, he was in McClellan's first campaign in West Virginia, next with Ormsby Mitchell's division in Middle Tennessee, and with Buell in the retreat to Louisville, Ky., in 1862, and in the battle of Perryville. Made Colonel of the One Hundred and Tenth Ohio, he returned to West Virginia, and was under Milroy in the operations in the Shenandoah Valley in 1863. His regiment joined the Sixth Corps in the autumn, and from that time Col. Keifer served in that corps, commanding a brigade. He was therefore in nearly all the bloody work of the Potomac army till Lee's final surrender. He proved himself a brave and intelligent officer, and was brevetted Brigadier-General. The personal narrative of such a service contains, as it cannot fail to do, much interesting and valuable matter. The appendices, besides a brief autobiography, treat of his subsequent career in Congress, as Speaker of the House of Representatives, and his return to military life in the Spanish war, in which, however, he saw no active field-work.

Mr. S. R. Bottone's 'Wireless Telegraphy and Hertzian Waves' (Whittaker & Co.), otherwise not a reliable book, has the peculiar merit of describing, in every detail, how a beginner can construct for himself all the apparatus. A mechanical turn is one qualification for a modern electrician; but it will not go far without it be backed by an intellect that will not falter before the most complicated mathematical problem. Mr. Bottone, writing a little later than Kerr and Fahie, mentions a few inventions that those writers could not know.

M. Charles Le Goffic, writing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for May on "The Panceltic Movement," shows to what extent the Celtic race, in its several homes, has been affected by that strong feeling for national or ethnical relationship which is a characteristic, more especially, of modern times. The essay is in part historical. The author includes in his survey not only Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, the Isle of Man, and Brittany, but also the Celtic communities which have resulted from emigration in other parts of the world. He thus presents us with a well-nigh complete and very readable study of the Celtic question. Such reunions as the Eisteddfod, which met at Cardiff in July last, and the greater congress of Dublin, planned for the near future under the auspices of the Panceltic League, have for their immediate object (as expressed by Lord Castletown) "the manifestation, to the entire world, of their [the people represented] desire to preserve their nationality and to coöperate in the preservation and development of the treasures of language, literature, art, and music bequeathed to them by their common ancestors." That other aspirations and other results are not for ever precluded, seems evident from M. Le Goffic's *exposé*.

A further fragment of the Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus has been found by E. R. Adler, who reports the particulars in the *Athenæum*. This remnant is evidently a part of the collection of manuscripts belonging to the Ginezah in Cairo, and seems to belong to the manuscript of the Cambridge edition. At any rate, it exactly fills out the lacuna of that manuscript. This unexpected discovery justifies the hope that the whole text will yet be discovered. Such, at any rate, is the expectation of no less an authority than Noeldeke, in his essay on the Hebrew Ecclesiasticus in Stade's *Zeitschrift* (1900, No. I.).

The *Hochschul-Nachrichten* publishes the surprising though well authenticated news that the juristic faculty of the University of Vienna has formally requested of the Ministry of Education that women be admitted as regular students to all the lectures and examinations in that department. But the faculty goes still further in asking that women who have passed the required state examinations shall enjoy the right of practising as advocates and notaries, and of entering any branch of the legal profession in which their employment is not positively impracticable.

Switzerland did pioneer work in making it possible for women to secure a university education in Europe, and that little repub-

lic is still the most liberal in the privileges it accords in this direction. In the five universities, Basle, Bern, Geneva, Lausanne, and Zurich, women are admitted on a perfect equality with men, while in the sixth and last university, Freiburg, they are admitted to the faculties as "hearers." Recently published official reports show that, of the total attendance at the Swiss universities, nearly one-fourth are women, or 1,026 out of 4,611. As has been the case all along, Russia sends the largest contingent of matriculated women students, namely, about two-thirds, or 422, and of these, again, 326 are students of medicine. It is interesting, in this connection, to note that there seems to be but little danger in Europe, at any rate, of the professional women crowding out the men. The latest reports state that in Berlin there are only three women physicians; and the Government reports of Switzerland, where for twenty-six years the practice of medicine has been open to women, state that there are only twenty-six women doctors in the whole country, as against more than 2,000 male physicians.

The bulletin of the Central National Library at Florence for April 30 contains a description of the happy effects produced on infirm paper and parchment by Dr. Schill's solution, first published last September at Dresden. It is injurious neither to ink nor to colors, and permits disinfection. It furnishes a new, impervious surface that may be written on and the writing expunged. Bindings, too, are rendered more durable by it. The compound is known commercially as "Zapon," and it is to be had at three marks the litre of Otto Winkler, Uferstrasse 8, Leipzig, along with the necessary apparatus and instructions.

In the current Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, Mr. John T. Hassam concludes his painstaking biographical sketches of the Boston Registers of Deeds (1735-1900). Like that published two years ago, they abound in curious pictures of the times. The office of Register has always been political, though it has been filled for long terms. Ezekiel Goldthwait was up for reëlection in 1771, when Sam Adams ran against him, but without success. The two men afterwards were appointed on a committee with John Hancock and others to make representations to the Governor concerning the Boston Massacre. Later, Goldthwait was more and more a Loyalist, and, to his honor, was one of the addressers of Gov. Hutchinson, on the latter's departure for England, never to return. He also signed the address of welcome to Hutchinson's successor, Gen. Gage. Oddly, a fellow-addresser, in both cases, was ancestor of Andrew Cazenau, who became Register in 1870. Josiah Henshaw was disturbed in his tenure by the demand for rotation in office, coupled with pleas of poverty by and in behalf of his competitor. This was a sorry spectacle, as Mr. Hassam points out. Three Allines, father, son, and grandson, held the office successively, and Andrew Cazenau was a cousin to the last.

The *Geographical Journal* for May contains some interesting facts about the people of the Shan states north of Burmah, by Mr. F. W. Carey, an officer in the Chinese customs. The object of one of his journeys was to obtain material for the Paris Exposition. He found the greatest difficulty in getting a complete woman's costume, especially the remarkable head-dress of the Akkas, in which "most of their superstitious beliefs seem centred." When the French first established a post at Meng Wu, there were several Akka tribes living in the district; but they were so much disturbed at the Resident's obtaining a dress and hat that they all fled from the French territory. In another district the women are obliged to wear colored cloth gaiters, "as without them it is believed they would be able to fly away, leaving their husbands and sweethearts sorrowful." Among their weapons is an elephant-gun of native make, with a recoil so great, when fired, that, "to prevent losing the gun in the thick undergrowth of the forests, one end of a long cord is attached to the stock, the other being fastened round their bodies." Mount Kenya in British East Africa is described by Mr. H. J. Mackinder, who made the first successful ascent to the summit last September. On the journey up he passed through an almost unknown region, in which were "square miles of standing maize, neatly divided by slight furrows into rectangular half-acre plots, each, we were told, valued for sale at the price of a goat." Both articles are profusely illustrated and accompanied with maps.

Under the appropriate title of "From the Cape to Cairo," Mr. E. S. Grogan describes to the Royal Geographical Society his recent remarkable journey through Africa. His route as far as the northern end of Lake Tanganyika was over comparatively familiar ground. Between this and Lake Albert Edward was a country with superb scenery, in which civilizing influences were conspicuous in the terracing of the hills for cultivation, rudimentary efforts at irrigation, enclosing of villages and cultivated lands by hedges, and even the formation of artificial reservoirs for watering cattle. He passed over a plain where, owing to the porous nature of the soil, there was no water; yet there was an enormous population who obtained the necessary water by tapping the stems of the banana palms. Near the north end of the Albert Lake he observed some ape-like creatures leering at him from behind some banana palms, and with some difficulty his Ruanda guide induced one to come out and be inspected. "He was a tall man, with the long arms, pendant pouch, and short legs of the ape, pronouncedly microcephalous and prognathous." The stamp of the brute was so strong on these people that Mr. Grogan would place them lower in the human scale than any other natives he had seen in Africa. His 400 miles' tramp through the swamp region of the Upper Nile, especially the last ten days' march, was terrible. "Far as the eye could reach, one vast shimmering waste of burnt reed, sun-baked mud, and marabout storks. . . . No trees, no bushes, no grass," and, of course, no natives. Fortunately he fell in with the English sudd-cutting expedition, and his troubles were over.

The coal famine in Europe is the principal subject treated in the Consular Reports for May. The extreme scarcity and high prices of coal in Great Britain have "practically suspended" for a time the supply of coal to Germany, which in 1899 amounted to 5,000,000 tons. This failure comes at an unfortunate time, "when most of the steel works, foundries, ship-yards, and machine-shops of this country are filled with orders which will absorb their entire product for several months to come." In Russia the rapid extension of railways and the development of certain manufactures has completely outstripped the coal-mining industries, which are hampered by insufficient means of transportation. It is said that the Russian Government has sought to relieve the pressure by suspending for an indefinite period the usual prohibitory duty of $2.80 per ton on coal, and the same course has been proposed in France. The amount of coal exported from Great Britain in 1898 was 36,500,000 tons, while that of this country for the last fiscal year was only 5,000,000 tons.

The Department of the Classics at Harvard University announces the establishment of the Charles Eliot Norton Fellowship in Greek Studies, the founder being Mr. James Loeb, of the class of 1888, from personal affection to Prof. Norton and as a tribute to his eminent services to the cause of archæology. The annual income will be $600, and award will be made without regard to the financial means of competitors. Incumbency involves a year's study at the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, with a selected subject and a summary monograph thereon. The theses for the first award to be made in the spring of 1901 are now published, and applications for admission to candidacy must be made not later than November 1, 1900, to Prof. Morris H. Morgan, chairman of the department.

The University of Cambridge (Eng.) Summer Extension Meeting will be held from August 2 to August 27, 1900, and the general subject of the lectures will be "Life and Thought in England in the Nineteenth Century." The several divisions are National Development, Studies in Literature, Scientific Progress, Theology, Education, and Biographical Studies. One American appears upon the list, which embraces not a few eminent names.

The Academic Senate of the University of Athens, in a recent extraordinary session, decided to arrange for an international archæological congress, to be held either next fall or next spring in that city. All the leading universities, academies of sciences, and archæological institutes in the world are to be invited to send representatives; also the foreign schools in Athens, of which the German has recently celebrated its twenty-fifth and the French its fiftieth anniversary.

—The Faculty of the Literary Department of the University of Michigan has just secured the Regents' approval of its revision of the requirements for admission. Hitherto the requirements have been more or less complicated, falling into groups corresponding to the different degrees, A.B., Ph.B., B.S., and B.L. The new requirements are more elastic. The aim is to give the schools, though of different character, a more nearly equal opportunity of preparing students for college. What is demanded is a certain amount and a certain quality, but not the same kind, of preparation. "Fifteen units are required for admission. A unit means one subject pursued for not less than four periods a week throughout a school year. The following subjects must be presented by all candidates: English, 3 units; mathematics (algebra and geometry), 3 units; physics, 1 unit. In addition to these required subjects, eight units must be presented selected from the following list. These eight units must include two units of either Latin, French, or German. The annexed figures

indicate the number of units for which each subject may be counted: Greek, 2; Latin, 2 or 4; French, 2 or 4; German, 2 or 4; English Literature, 1; History, 1, 2, or 3; Chemistry, 1; Botany, 1; Zoölogy, 1; Biology (half a year each of Botany and of Zoology), 1; Physiography, 1." Students enter the University, not a particular course. Only the following note indicates that a particular degree may be aimed at: "Students who intend to become candidates for the degree of A.B. should present two units of Greek and four units of Latin. Students who intend to become candidates for the degree of Ph.B. should present four units of Latin." A remarkable feature of the action was the ease with which it was carried through. It was felt that the time was ripe for the change, and there was no real objection to it. This simplification of the entrance requirements will doubtless be followed in the fall by nearly, if not fully, as harmonious action with reference to the reducing of the bachelor degrees from four to one, or at most two.

—In the years 1853-60, the Arundel Society issued a series of woodcuts after Giotto's frescoes in the Arena Chapel at Padua, accompanied by an explanatory notice written by John Ruskin. The work has not been republished until now, when it appears in "a new and more complete form, with the advantage of modern methods of reproduction," under the title, 'Giotto and his Works in Padua' (London: George Allen; New York: Scribners). The thirty-eight large engravings of scenes from the life of Christ and of the Virgin are here replaced by very good half-tones, while to these have been added reproductions of the "Christ in Glory," the "Last Judgment," and the fourteen allegorical figures of Virtues and Vices. To the text, otherwise unchanged, have been added a few notes, and extracts from other works by Ruskin and from Lord Lindsay bearing upon the frescoes not included in the original publication. Mr. Ruskin's notices are of no great importance, being often whimsical and sometimes nugatory, and are chiefly interesting as affording instances of his faculty for seeing in a picture what was never there, as he so wonderfully did in his account of the Tintorettos in the Scuola di San Rocco. Take, for one instance, this comment on "The Expulsion from the Temple": "The raising of the right hand, not holding any scourge, resembles the action afterwards adopted by Orcagna, and finally by Michael Angelo in his 'Last Judgment'; and my belief is, that Giotto considered this act of Christ's as partly typical of the final judgment, the Pharisees being placed on the left hand, and the disciples on the right." The omission of the scourge is, in reality, a blunder of either the draughtsman or the engraver of the Arundel Society's cut, as it is plainly present in the half-tone reproduction; and Giotto's treatment of the subject is of the plainest and most matter-of-fact kind.

—Music-sellers report a great Chopin "boom." Both Paderewski and De Pachmann devoted their farewell concerts entirely to that composer, whose pieces, moreover, predominated on most of their programmes, as they do at piano recitals in general. The publication of Mr. Huneker's 'Chopin: The Man and his Music' has added fuel to the flames, and now comes more of it in the form of a new edition of Liszt's 'Life of Chopin,' translated in full for the first time by John Broadhouse (Scribners). The first English edition appeared in 1877. It is well to have a reprint of this famous book, though it cannot be said that the restored portions of the text add much to its value. In all probability they were not written by Liszt anyway, but by the Princess Wittgenstein, Liszt's correspondence with whom (in French) has recently been published by Breitkopf & Härtel. She was his friend for forty years, and assisted him in writing most of his literary essays. Sometimes he walked up and down the room dictating to her; at other times he merely discussed the ideas and plan of an article, leaving its elaboration to her; while not infrequently they sat together at the desk enveloped by the fumes of the cigars they both smoked. Paragraphs devoted to special musical questions Liszt always wrote himself, and these are by far the best things in his essays. The long, rhapsodical episodes of rather empty rhetoric which occur here and there, are undoubtedly additions by the Princess. To the book on Chopin she contributed the interesting remarks on Polish national dances and festivals. This book is not a model biography, as there are not a few errors in regard to dates and facts; but the errors are of no great consequence, and are far outweighed by the merits of the book, which has the charm peculiar to the writings of one genius on another. Liszt was the first to take up the cudgels for Chopin against those who fancied that he could not be really great because he wrote only short pieces. He called attention to the fact that Petrarch is remembered by his sonnets, not his long poem on Africa. He pointed out what was epoch-making in Chopin's style, and characterized his polonaises and mazurkas in terms that have never been equalled. He also gave an admirable definition of the tempo rubato (p. 83) and of the Polish *zal*, "which expresses the entire range of emotions engendered by intense regret, through every shade of feeling from hatred to repentance," and which "colors all the compositions of Chopin." The pages devoted to *zal* appear to have given Liszt great satisfaction, for he refers in one of his letters to the Princess to "la suite des épreuves de 'Chopin' avec le 'zal,' qui me plaît infiniment dans l'impression."

—Prof. Pietro Orsi, of Venice, has written for "The Story of the Nations Series" a popular account of 'Modern Italy, 1748-1898' (Putnam). There is no organic reason for pitching on the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle as the date from which to begin the story of the Italian Risorgimento. That great historical movement, culminating in the conversion of Rome into the capital of the kingdom of Italy, had three distinct objects—liberty, independence, and union; but until the French Revolution swept away the old barriers, not one of these came into play as a political motive. The reforms of the benevolent despots during the middle of the eighteenth century had no more causal relation with the Risorgimento than William the Third's milder treatment of the people of Massachusetts had with the Declaration of Independence. Accordingly the early part of Prof. Orsi's book presents a batch of details which have no great relevance to the main subject. When he comes to the Risorgimento itself, he writes pleasantly and clearly, in a genuinely popular style, which disarms serious criticism. The sternest critic cannot affirm that a reader unfamiliar with the subject could not get from these pages a generally fair acquaintance with it; but he would hardly get a vivid impression of the chief actors, nor of the vital political motives and actions. Prof. Orsi has not freed himself from the dithyrambic impulse which besets most of his countrymen when they write on this theme. But, on the whole, our verdict is favorable. The chapter giving an outline of Italian affairs since 1870 will be found particularly useful, as will that which follows it on contemporary artists and writers; for these are matters about which accurate information comes but slowly to a foreigner. Whoever imagines that Italy has at present no writers should run over Sig. Orsi's lists, from which, we judge, no important name has been omitted. A large number of well-chosen portraits and views illustrate the book, but the process work in the copy at hand is badly done. Mary A. Vialls, the translator, does not always convert the flowing Italian into easy-going English, and occasionally she stumbles over proper names. In the title of Chapter I., for example, "Italy after Aquisgrana," we have a form which, so far as the present writer is aware, has never been used in English to designate Charlemagne's old capital.

—The Asiatic Society of Japan issues part 4 of volume xxvii. of its Transactions, with papers by the Rev. Clay MacCauley and Dr. W. G. Aston. That "ignorance is bliss" seems doubly true in that the former writer was unaware, when he began his task, that the English barrister Mr. F. V. Dickins had already put the 'Hyakunin-Isshiu' into English. So, happily for us, the American in Japan, with the resources of scholarship possible to assemble now, thirty years after Mr. Dickins's attempt, which was made under many limitations, has done into good English these 'Single Songs of a Hundred Poets.' An elaborate introduction, occupying thirty-one pages, prepares the new and refreshes the old student of Japanese poetry for the one hundred and fifty-five pages of text (in Roman script), English translation, commentary, historical annotation, interlinear, literal, and free translation, with analyses and indexing, that follow. This century of poems is the most popular of all the many collections among the Japanese, and their text and metres are made familiar in the household game of cards. Japanese poetry had its origin in a prehistoric age, and reached its culminating excellence a thousand years ago. Its realm is as isolated from the life of to-day as was old Japan among the nations. The profoundest foreign scholars declare that the poetry has "neither rhyme, assonance, alliteration, accentual stress, quantity, nor parallelism." Mr. MacCauley is not so dogmatic, even hoping that "Japanese poetry will come under the same stimulus that has vivified and started forward their sciences and their other modes of mental energy. He also modestly declares that "the real charm of these dainty bits of verse will for ever elude the quest of one who, foreign to the Japanese people and their language, seeks to discover it and to show it to the world." Reading again these ancient poems, enshrining so many mental images dear to the islanders, and first collected in the thirteenth cen-

tury, and familiar as we are with other renderings, we heartily congratulate the translator and all readers of English that they are now accessible. Of the hundred poems, twenty-five treat of Nature, twenty-nine of Sentiment, and forty-six of Love. Dr. Aston's note deals with the Tori-wi, or Shinto gateway, which he believes to have been in origin a foreign importation, as one who knows this scholar's theories might predict before reading.

TILLE'S YULE AND CHRISTMAS.

Yule and Christmas; Their Place in the Germanic Year. By Alexander Tille, Ph.D. London: David Nutt. 1899. Pp. 218.

The contention of the present book is for the originally non-Germanic character of the Yule-tide festival, which in modern times has centred in the celebration of Christmas on the 25th day of December. To carry his argument to a conclusion, the author necessarily takes into consideration the various problems connected with the Germanic year as he conceives it—the three-score-day tide of Yule, the Germanic adoption of the Roman calendar, and the whole rationale of the introduction of the festival of Christ's nativity into a part of the Germanic year which, according to him, had until then apparently been without a festivity. By the fourteenth century most of the fundamental features of the modern Christmas had already come to have their centre, as now, in December 25.

Not only, it at once appears, is Dr. Tille's conclusion at utter variance with the usually accepted belief which sees in the winter festival of Yule the greatest festival of our heathen ancestors, but his argumentation toward such a conclusion, as will be shown, is almost wholly iconoclastic, and in many important matters furnishes us, if we accept it, with an entirely different point of view with regard to fundamental facts of early Germanic culture, and this, too, often along broad lines. In following out an argument of this nature, where destructive criticism must of necessity play an important part, it is, of course, essential to carry a forceful pen. The author's ink, however, is often unnecessarily tinctured with gall, and he misses a point in that, consciously or not, he sets up a position of "Aut Cæsar aut nihil" that frequently repels and thus weakens the force of his reasoning. The book is a diatribe against the Germans. "Another scholar," he says, referring to Kluge in his etymological dictionary, "has told us that he knows better than Tacitus." "Weinhold," in the case of a certain statement with regard to Martinmas, "with a few vague remarks, which can scarcely be taken seriously, jumps over the whole point which ought to have been the centre of his investigation." "Kuhn's article," bearing upon a Germanic knowledge of a solar year with solstices and equinoxes, he says, "is not to be taken seriously, at least as far as the Germanics [*sic*] are concerned." "Ulric Jahn's generalizations, according to which a pre-Christian winter-solstice fire would have to be supposed as a general custom, are void of any historical foundation, and merely represent fantastic speculations." "Even Rudolf Koegel," he writes, "who has a great inclination for finding something Germanic everywhere, admits this custom"—viz., of walking about at Christmas in the hides of calves and deer—"to be of Italian origin." And so they all are unceremoniously bowled over in turn, one after another, until only the author himself is left standing. We can but think this testiness unfortunate, for the book is full of suggestion; and even if we fail to be convinced of the truth of the author's main line of argument, we cannot deny the astuteness of much of his reasoning. His whole treatment of his subject shows wide reading, and his citation of sources, Germanic and Latin, contained in the footnotes, is a valuable storehouse of historical fact that often has a bearing beyond the immediate matter in hand.

The most credible theory of the Germanic year, as of the Indo-Germanic, bespeaks fundamentally a dual division—winter and summer. The author asserts on page 2 that "the tri-partition of the Germanic year is an unshakable fact"; but, after a citation of instances, he is constrained to add that, "however well established these facts are, etymology cannot be adduced in favor of an ancient tri-partition of the Germanic year; ancient names of three ancient seasons cannot be given; nay, etymology decidedly points to a dual division. We have, therefore, to accept this as a fact." He maintains, however, an early tri-partition of the economic year of Oriental extraction, used before the Germanic people came into contact with the Roman pre-Julian calendar, whose ultimate unit is a three-score-day tide, six of these making up the whole. "Yule" is the name of one of these three-score-day tides, and "the strange fact," he says, "that no satisfactory Germanic or even Aryan etymology can be given" for these oldest names "seems to point to the probability that these names, like the institutions they denote, have their origin beyond the world of the Aryan family of languages." Bugge, however, has pointed out the true etymology of "Yule," which is carried back to a primitive Germanic **jehwela*, which in its turn corresponds fundamentally, sound for sound, with Latin *joculus*, indicating, thus, at the very beginning, a merry-making festival season. The author rejects this as "a very bold etymological attempt," which, nevertheless, it is not. The citation of "Yule" in its earliest Gothic form as an inexplicable word does not at all bolster up his argument, for, whatever may have been its application afterward, at the outset it apparently carried with it a sense of festivity. The word is at hand in varying form in Gothic, Old Norse, and Anglo-Saxon; it is, accordingly, Common Germanic, and, as its Latin counterpart shows, Indo-Germanic. There is no valid proof whatsoever, it seems to us, that it is or ever was the name of an Oriental three-score-day tide.

With winter and summer as basal conceptions, we find at an early time, in accordance with a widely accepted theory, that the Germanic year was quartered according to the solstices and equinoxes. The year began, in this way, at the time of the winter solstice, the summer solstice marking the beginning of summer. Natural divisions, again, were formed by the equinoxes, the spring equinox marking the beginning of spring, and the autumn equinox the beginning of autumn. It is not necessary to presuppose here an absolute astronomical knowledge as to the very days of the solstices or the equinoxes. It may very well have been, as was apparently also the case with ancient Germanic festivals—and the two assumptions go hand in hand—that certain short periods were set apart within which these tides should fall. Of the ultimate modification of these conditions as the result of Roman contact there can be, of course, no argument.

Dr. Tille maintains with asperity that there is no such thing as a Germanic quartering of the year, which, he says, is entirely of Roman origin, as is the knowledge of solstices and equinoxes. The summer solstice, he thinks, was "probably taken over directly from popular Roman tradition." Of a knowledge of the winter solstice he finds no early trace. "The equinoxes seem to have become familiar to the clerical Germanic mind through the bearing the spring equinox had on the fixing of Easter." The time subsequently celebrated as the Christian festival of Martinmas is to him the beginning of winter and the beginning of the economic year, which was divided, according to the theory of tri-partition, again at Mid-March and Mid-July. At Martinmas the author finds, then, the ancient Germanic festival of the winter's beginning. When the Roman legions and the Roman administration brought the Julian calendar up into Germanic territory, and with it all sorts of Roman customs, the Calends of January, like others, became, he maintains, a festive tide among the German peoples, without any special reference originally, it may be, to the new year. In the course of time, however, that side came into the foreground to rival and finally to replace the old Germanic New Year toward the middle of November. When Christmas ultimately takes the place which had once been held by Martinmas and becomes the great festival of the year, we find these Calends of January rites, together with Germanic usages having special reference to the beginning of the year (for Dr. Tille still concedes a trace of these latter), all transferred to Christmas—the Calends log, the Calends cakes, the Calends greens, and the Calends mummeries with the rest. "The Germanics," he says, "never had a festival about Christmas." "December 25, the pseudo-solstice of the Julian calendar, was no Germanic festive day until after the contact of Germanic tribes with the Romans."

It is impossible here to go into the niceties of the argument in all its bearings. In spite of the array of apparent testimony, the author, to our mind, does not prove his case. Many of his historical citations are capable of quite another interpretation than that which he puts upon them. A single instance will suffice. In a letter written in 742, by Bonifacius, "the apostle to the Germans," to Pope Zacharias, the missionary complains that his Germans justified themselves in certain heathen customs by the excuse that they had witnessed similar things at Rome, close to St. Peter's Church, where they were regarded as permissible. They had seen, they said, that every year, on the eve of the Calends of January, processions went through the streets with heathen shouts and unchristian songs. Dr. Tille regards this as an example of the perfect unity of popular usage as between the Continental Germans and the Romans, brought about by the complete transference of the Roman customs to German soil; the German Calends rites not only resembling the Roman, but being felt to be identical with them by the peo-

ple who celebrated them. It is perfectly possible, however, to regard this, as Rudolf Koegel has explained it, as the celebration of the Germanic New Year's festival, which, at the time when the beginning of the year coincided with the winter solstice, was a part of the heathen festival of Weinachten, *i. e., wíhen nahten*, "in the holy (twelve) days." A Gothic song of this very character in a Latin translation of the sixth century, but bearing the marks of extreme antiquity, has been preserved in a treatise of the Byzantine Emperor Constantine VII., where it is accompanied with a description of the New Year celebration at the Byzantine Court in his time, *i. e.*, in the tenth century. The sense of the song had at this time been forgotten, but here are still the singing, the shouts and the dancing, the masks and the mummery that we believe were characteristic features of the heathen Germanic festival.

Dr. Tille finds, up to the eleventh century, in England no case in which Christmas is called Yule, but he cites from King Alfred's laws of 888 the phrase *on Gehhol*, which he explains to mean not the day of Nativity, but the time about that day in so far as it was proclaimed holy by the Church. This is undoubtedly the precise state of the case. The oldest Germanic use of the word is a tide, not a day. Old Norse *jól*, inevitably meaning in the heathen time a festal tide, is a neuter plural. Anglo-Saxon *geóla* is a month name. This latter was admirably defined by Leo—who hit the nail squarely on the head—in his *Glossar* of 1877, as "das fröhlich machende, ausgelassen machende Mitwinterfest, und dann die begleitenden Monate *ærra geóla* und *æftera geóla*." The whole passage in which these phrases occur is worthy of citation: "This month is named Decembris in Latin, and in our tongue the former *Yule*, because two months are named with one name: one is the *former Yule*, the other the *after Yule*, because one of them comes before the sun, *i. e., before* it turns itself about to the lengthening of day, whilst the other comes *after*." Gothic *Jiuleis* is also a month name, and, just as in Anglo-Saxon, we find in the Gothic calendar fragment *fruma Jiuleis*, 'the first Yule,' here, however, applied to November, but, as Skeat points out, not necessarily inconsistent with the Anglo-Saxon use, since November may once have also been reckoned as a Yule month.

The true explanation of the matter is, that in all probability "Yule" was originally the heathen festival tide at the beginning of the New Year, which fell about the time of the winter solstice, and to this day in Iceland in popular usage "Yule" is remembered as the year's beginning, in that a man is as many years old as he has passed "Yule nights." Its meaning was gradually extended to a month name, which included the time before and after the actual celebration of the New Year. With the introduction of the Christian Christmas it was then again narrowed down, and this time more closely than before, to indicate a single day, about which day, as a consequence of this process, there is a grouping of customs heathen-Germanic, Roman and Christian.

For the consideration of various other phases of the matter—for the supposed celebration of a Germanic dead festival, about the middle of winter, which the author asserts, again, is but a feature of the Calends of January celebration; for the *Twelve nights* which he maintains are but the *Dodekahemeron* of the Church; for the growth of the regular ecclesiastical celebration of December 25th as the anniversary of the birth of Christ; and for the formulation of the Scandinavian year and its bearings, which chapters contain, if we do not entirely mistake, a deal of corroborative testimony for the attitude taken in this review—we must refer the reader to Dr. Tille's volume itself. It is unfortunate, as seriously impairing its usefulness, that the book should have no index.

MIDSUMMER ABERRATION.

The Midsummer of Italian Art. Containing an examination of the works of Michel Angelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael Santi, and Correggio. By Frank Preston Stearns. Revised Edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

The author of this book makes considerable pretensions for it. In its first edition it was called, by the London *Spectator*, an excellent work to interest beginners in the study of Italian art. This characterization seems to be rather resented by Mr. Stearns, who says:

"If there are others who share in this illusion, I would recommend them to compare my account of Michelangelo's *Last Judgment* or of his *Moses*, with those in Mr. Symond's [*sic*] biography, or my criticism of the *Sistine Madonna*, or the *Victory of Constantine*, with those by Crowe and Cavalcaselle. The *Midsummer of Italian Art* is intended rather as a post-graduate course, and a supplement to Lübke or Woltmann."

He thinks that "there is no thoroughgoing criticism of Michelangelo's works in any language," and that his own is the "first attempt in that direction." His point of view is that "technicalities have their value, . . . but the motive of a great work of art is even more important"; and "to penetrate the intellectual conception of the artist-seer is the object of the present volume." He pays his compliments to Mr. Berenson in a sneer at "tactile values," and, in an appendix entitled "Morelli Resartus," disposes of that critic to his own satisfaction.

The writer who assumes such ground as this must expect to be judged by a high standard. The question as to what is "the intellectual conception" of a work of art is unfortunately one on which infinite argument is possible and conclusion quite impossible, and we must therefore beg leave to examine Mr. Stearns on such technicalities as historic facts and dates and the accuracy of his description of the material contents of works of art. Such "technicalities" have undoubtedly "their value," and the result of such an examination may not unfairly be taken as casting some light upon the probable worth of the author's interpretation of artistic motives. We shall therefore take up, in something like the order of their occurrence, a number of Mr. Stearns's statements of matters of fact.

On p. 31 we are told that "the horse of Coleoni [*sic*] is represented as pacing, and the General himself is rising in his stirrups." Mr. Muybridge's photographs have generally been accepted as demonstrating that Verrocchio's equestrian statue of Colleoni is one of the few correct representations in modern art of the *walk* of the horse, while the General is simply riding on a high mediæval saddle and with long stirrup-leathers. On the same page the "stiffness" of the figure is pointed out as characteristic of Leonardo, though how a gentleman in plate-armor should be otherwise than stiff it is difficult to see. The tail of the horse, it is said, "has been arranged with as much care as a lady's coiffeur," but perhaps it was the printer who confused the barber with his handiwork.

Technicalities of a different sort are the subject of a sentence on p. 50, which, in spite of some practical as well as theoretic knowledge of painting, we are totally unable to understand. We can only transcribe it and leave the reader to make what sense of it he can: "Leonardo painted his shadows one over the other, fusing them together as he did so; a method which requires much more pains than the commoner system of using an opaque dead color, which can be modified, but will not fuse with other tints." After this even "a small study of a youthful head about two inches square" cannot surprise us.

On p. 53 is a discussion of what is called "the competition between Leonardo and Michelangelo," which concludes with the statement that "Soderini and his council clearly made a mistake in deciding against the latter; for if they had given the work to Michelangelo they would have obtained their painting for the city hall." The facts are, of course, that there never was any competition in the strict sense, or any decision. Leonardo was given a commission in 1503 to paint one wall of the hall, and Michelangelo was given a commission in 1504 for the other. There was rivalry, not competition, and as neither cartoon was ever carried out, the council did not "obtain their painting" after all.

Two statements about Michelangelo's early relief known as "The Battle of the Centaurs" occur on page 70. The first is, that the style of this work constituted "a small revolution in Florentine relief work, such as would have astonished Ghiberti, and probably did astonish Donatello." As Donatello died some seven years before Michelangelo was born, the work must have been very astonishing indeed to have produced such an effect. An even greater anachronism is implied in the other statement, which is to the effect that Michelangelo seems to have desired "to show how much more he could include in the same space than the Greeks did in the reliefs of their temples," which he can never have seen.

The significance of the action in several of Michelangelo's figures is doubtful, but the author of the only "thoroughgoing criticism" extant must be held to pretty strict account. No one has satisfactorily explained what the South Kensington Cupid is really doing, but that " he kneels down to draw his arrow to the head, by an upward motion of the arm" is demonstrably not true unless the god is left-handed. The action of the David has been correctly explained by Symonds, and there is no excuse for a reversion to the blunder of earlier critics, who thought that the right hand held the pebble, while any one at all conversant with the drawing of the human hand should know that the Christ of the "Last Judgment" is not "pointing to the wound in his side," and that therefore the whole interpretation of his action falls to the ground. But perhaps the most remarkable instance of that inability to describe correctly a work of art to which so many critics are subject is Mr. Stearns's

statement that, in the fresco of "The Temptation and the Expulsion," "Eve plucks the fruit . . . and offers it to Adam, who reclines in a luxurious attitude beneath." The merest glance at any reproduction of the picture is sufficient to show that Adam is standing and Eve seated upon the ground. Of the so-called "Victory" we are told that "the lower portion of the block is unfinished, and it is not certain what Michelangelo proposed to develop out of it," although it is perfectly plain that it is the kneeling figure of an old man with a heavy beard; and the figure of Lorenzo de' Medici, which Mr. Stearns persists, in spite of Heath Wilson, in calling Giuliano, is said to be dressed in a "suit of plain mediæval armor" instead of the Renaissance-Roman armor which he really wears. Finally, of the "Captives" of the Louvre it is absurdly said that "the muscular system is barely perceptible"; and of that most formal of great compositions, "The Last Judgment," that "the grouping is very remarkable, for it repudiates all suspicion of preconceived design." These are errors enough in easily verifiable matters, and they prepare one for a false statement of fact which carries with it a misconception of Michelangelo's whole temper and method in art. When we are told that he intrusted the "Christ Triumphant" to his assistants "after finishing the head," we have a contradiction not only of the known facts of this particular case, but of all we know of that master's characteristic love for the body and carelessness of the head.

We cannot go through the whole book on this scale, and must, omitting various passages we had marked, come to the author's treatment of the works of Raphael. He begins with a pretty confusion by which the "Solly Madonna" is elaborately described under the title of the "Diotalevi Madonna," while a third picture, the "Madonna with St. Jerome and St. Francis," is called the "Solly Madonna." After this we have a long attempt to prove that the various madonnas of Raphael's Florentine period beginning with the "Gran' Duca" and ending with the "Madonna of the Diadem," "were all, or nearly all, taken from the same models, evidently a Florentine lady of good position, and her children; who, though somewhat idealized, appears [*sic*] at different ages during a space of not less than four years." In order to make out his case Mr. Stearns has to date the "Madonna del Gran' Duca" in "1501 or 1502," although Raphael did not go to Florence until 1504, and he ends with an amazing paragraph which we will quote in full:

" 'The Madonna of the Diadem' in the Louvre forms the last of this series, and in it we meet the same mother as in 'La Belle Jardinière,' at least three years older; with an older St. John and a much younger Christ-child, whom we naturally suppose to be the third in this highly favored family. The picture cannot be dated earlier than 1507, and, owing to the ruins in the landscape background, critics have generally conjectured that it was painted after Raphael had removed to Rome. This is possible, but it is unlikely that his lady model should also have gone to Rome at the same time, especially with a new-born child. If he had painted the group from memory, he would not have represented them older, but as they were when he last saw them. The quality of the painting is essentially Florentine as well as its design."

To puncture this bubble of a "highly favored Florentine family" evolved from the critic's consciousness, it is only necessary to note one little fact: "La Belle Jardinière" is dated 1507.

Mr. Stearns's inability to be accurate in description is shown again in his discussion of the "Disputa." First, we are told that it is "on the ceiling," then that the cherubs "form a large circle about Jehovah," and finally that St. Peter and St. Paul, Adam, Abraham, Moses, and David are "on the earth beneath." The fresco is painted on the wall, the cherubs are about the figure of Christ, and the saints and patriarchs are seated upon the clouds. What is really going on upon "the earth beneath" is not mentioned at all by Mr. Stearns, although it is the subject of the picture. An equally unfounded statement is that, "in the Exorcism of Attila, Leo X. is represented with the Swiss Guard in their well-known uniform." In fact, he is represented surrounded by cardinals, and there is nothing resembling a Swiss Guard in the picture.

It is useless to multiply instances, and we will end our examination with a very flagrant case. In discussing the Cartoons which Mr. Stearns believes are "now at Hampton Court," he describes the group of apostles, ending thus: "The last is a dark-looking personage, whose face is concealed, and *may have been intended for Judas.*" We have taken the liberty of italicizing what is surely a wonderful "penetration of the intellectual conception of the artist-seer," since Raphael has given this "dark-looking personage" an aureole! "They are arranged nearly in two rows," says Mr. Stearns, "so that ten out of the twelve are distinctly visible." It seems that Mr. Stearns cannot even count, for there are only eleven present; so that if Judas was really resurrected for this occasion, and taken into fellowship by the others, there is one missing and unaccounted for.

We have had to express pretty clearly our dissent from many of Mr. Stearns's statements of fact. It gives us pleasure to agree with him in at least one matter of opinion. We are of one mind with him in the conclusion that any one who considers his book an excellent one to place in the hands of beginners is suffering from an illusion. We think a rather good preliminary education quite necessary to any one who would read it with impunity.

Towards Pretoria; A Record of the War between Briton and Boer, to the relief of Kimberley. By Julian Ralph, Special War Correspondent to the *Daily Mail.* F. A. Stokes Co. 12mo, pp. 328.

Mr. Ralph's descriptions of the war in South Africa are of Lord Methuen's campaign, on the line from Cape Town to Kimberley. His chapter on Natal and Ladysmith is a compilation subsequently made. What he saw he tells with his well-known vividness of narration. Beginning with the transformation of Cape Town, when it became at once the base of great military operations and the city of refuge for miners, traders, and speculators flying from the gold and diamond fields, he takes us to De Aar, near the Orange Free State border, where a railway siding in a wilderness was made a camp and an advanced depot of supplies for Methuen's army, almost as rapidly as the shifting of scenes on the stage. Light lumber frames and corrugated iron roofs and sides were thrown together about as fast as tents could be pitched. The dust and the smother, the broiling heat by day and the aching cold by night, the thirsty marches from water to water, we feel, as we follow these pages, with strong imagination of the hard discomforts of soldiering in such a repellent country and such a trying climate.

The battles on this line were close to the railway and its stations at Belmont, Graspan, Modder River, and Maagersfontein. Mr. Ralph gives us the characters of the landscape at each of these battle-fields—the copjes crowned with the boulder breastworks of the Boers, and the brown mealy soil in the lower levels, where the long-range rifles of the enemy decimated the English advancing lines from shallow trenches, while trenches and their occupants were alike invisible in the monotonous dust-colored field. He wisely confines himself to detailed description, and says little by way of criticism, but we see for ourselves the omission of thorough reconnoitring which brought the British under a murderous fire as the first notice that an enemy was near, and the straight rush at the enemy's front over a mile of exposed field, while the magazine-guns of the Boers were sweeping it with a constant deadly hail of bullets. One such lesson should have been enough, if the conditions were wholly new. But they were not new. Our civil war had shown that resolute marksmen in the ditch could destroy any line charging over the open, using only the muzzle-loading Springfield rifles. Mars-la-Tour repeated the lesson in 1870, when the French chassepots took all the fight out of the German assailants under similar conditions. Capt. Hoenig's 'Tactics of the Future,' with its clear comments on all this, is supposed to be familiar reading to every general and field-officer of to-day. The increased range of weapons only adds so much to the measured distance within which one must not venture without the preparation and the tactical methods which common sense would teach if no military writer had enlarged upon it. This new story of the first campaign in Africa only confirms the judgment that it was bad strategy to operate on the two distant lines of Kimberley and Ladysmith, and bad tactics to push headlong against the defensive entrenchments of the Boers. Whether as generals or as private soldiers, the Boer militia proved fully equal to the British regulars—another fact it would be folly to blink; and the lesson will not lose point when fuller information shall have completed the correction of the exaggerated stories of the Boers' numbers.

Mr. Ralph's story does not cover the campaign of Lord Roberts, in which the British force is so largely increased as to correct the error of the original division of it, and in which the commander is content to use a strong containing force in front while his decisive operations are by the flank. As far as he has gone, the author seems as trustworthy as he is vivid in description, and makes us feel that we have the means of understanding each situation in turn. His introductory statement of the causes of the war is a moderate and candid one from the British standpoint.

The Ipswich Emersons, A. D. 1636—1900. By Benjamin Kendall Emerson (1294), assisted by Capt. George A. Gordon, Sec.

N. E. Historic-Genealogical Society. Illustrated. Boston: Printed for private circulation. Pp. 537. 1900.

The current genealogical trend is a new departure. Lists of American genealogies were printed in the *Genealogical Register* from 1857 to 1863. The total aggregate was 246, of which only nineteen contained over 300 pages, and only five had appeared before 1840, namely, Stebbins 1771, Farmer 1812, Sharpless 1816, Sprague 1828, Whitman 1832. But the Wisconsin Historical Society, among whose various specialties genealogy is not the chief, now reports on its shelves 1,453 genealogical volumes and 767 pamphlets. The growth in works of this class has not been more striking in number than in nature. Material to serve has been accumulated from new sources, more justly appreciated and moulded into better form. Among the latest and best specimens of this modern improvement 'The Ipswich Emersons' must unquestionably rank.

The Emersons and their affiliations will absorb the edition, but a wider public, skipping the legion of names and dates, will scrutinize the volume as illustrating the laws of heredity during three centuries. Readers will feel double interest as they see that the authors extenuate nothing. They speak of one Emerson in an almshouse, of several who were non-compos, of a maniac chained for twenty years in his father's house, of one who forced a woman to confess herself a witch, of another who committed suicide, of one divorced, of one charged with counterfeiting; and they set down one in the body of the book as a bank-wrecker and colossal cheat. As to this last unfortunate, however, they give in the appendix evidence of innocence that had been afterwards brought to light. No Emerson will be detected as a slaveholder except by readers who push on to one of the final notes. A silver cup held by seven successive owners for a London product of the sixteenth century is shown in photograph with a tell-tale stamp proving it Boston work and two centuries later. The sketches of some individuals, doubtless inspired by themselves, are rather vainglorious, or have the flavor of business advertisements. (No. 346), a Western fur trader, who had become, as was supposed, the richest man in Vermont, drove a coach and four into the hamlet where he had lived in boyhood, and said to one of his old mates, "What would you give to be me?" The answer was, "Nothing. It is bad enough for me to be myself. God forbid that I be nicknamed, as you are, Lord Pomposity." This shrewd snubbing is not in the book, but is now mentioned because the present writer knows it to be truth.

Among the twenty-eight portraits, the one most typical of Emerson traits in our view is Joseph (No. 334), who lived eighty-eight years, and was a farmer on the coast of Maine. On a coasting voyage in youth he was taken out of the vessel by a British frigate and impressed into its service. A year afterward, when the frigate had anchored a mile from an island, he dropped into the sharkful water by night, swam ashore, scaled a mountain, and lay in hiding, though without food or drink, for four days, till the frigate had set sail. He came home content to live and die where he was born. This hero, whose likeness proclaims the makeup of the man, represents the mass of Emersons—a race of conservatives till roused by supreme emergencies to supreme efforts. Successive generations of them have lived more than a century in the same parish, the same house, and with the same occupation. Sprung from English foresters, or, for some reason, fond of outdoor life, if they changed their base it was to become pioneers where the best lands could be secured. This proclivity brought them into surroundings far out in the West, where necessity proved to them the mother of invention. No. 1033 broke a tooth in his saw, and devised attachable teeth—the first step of a revolution in that industry, which preserves his name as the saver of ten per cent. of the lumber by his thin kerf. (No. 655), when his occupation on a sailing craft was gone, secured the first patent for a screw propeller, and recovered damages for Ericsson's infringement of it. During our civil war the Emerson sawworks turned saws to sabres, and furnished a quarter of a million of them to the Government. Matters military, however, have never been this family's favorites. Some have served, indeed, as privates, subalterns, or chaplains, but while the West Point roster up to 1892 showed 3,384 names, not one of them was Emerson.

The Emersons love that entry of truth which cometh peaceably better than that which cometh with pugnacity. Accordingly, lawyers in their ranks have been fewer than physicians and much fewer than ministers. But "educators" is the best single word to describe the cardinal Emersonian characteristic. This aptitude was perhaps earliest clear in music. It made them teach singing schools, though they were sensitive and must say to many a pupil, "Keep your voice to file saws with" (No. 409). This voice culture has culminated in the Emerson College of Oratory (No. 1006) of Boston, "the largest of its kind in the world," and in (No. 711) who reckons the sale of his musical productions by millions. The best recognition of this musical gift, including, as among the ancient Greeks, all education that was not gymnastic, is afforded by Emerson Hall at Beloit, built, as its founder declared, in honor alike of (No. 807), for fifty years professor there, and of his uncle (No. 392), "whose school in 1818 was the first advanced school for girls." This building was a gift to the college from Dr. Pearson "for the use of the women of the Northwest."

In glancing through Emersoniana we seldom meet a page without the name of a professional teacher. These names, however, are far from embracing the hosts who have been teachers in fact. Teachers concerning labor and how to make the most of it—administrators under the most various names, and without names—are beyond numbering in the Emerson annals. The very name Emerson is held to mean 'head of a hamlet,' or 'clan-chief.' For one of these industrial geniuses a petition was sent to King George in colonial times that the sole privilege of making potash might be granted to (No. 115), an Emerson who was felt to know how to do it best. In more than one group of Congregational churches an Emerson has been styled bishop, though without laying on of hands. Conductors and higher officers on the Underground Railroad were a natural Emersonian growth. Another Emersonian genius in management (No. 927) reports a factory carried on through more than a generation without a strike. But the transcendent example of this guiding gift is afforded by (No. 810), the financial backer of the family book. At first a school-teacher, he has magnified his office till it comprehends the management of men in the most multifarious activities. "He has been a manager, under more titles than space allows us to mention, in the working of over forty different enterprises—some of them of national reputation."

A History of Gothic Art in England. By Edward S. Prior, M.A., with illustrations by Gerald C. Horsley, and many Plans and Diagrams. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co.

This book treats of Gothic architecture in England from the English point of view, according to which it is maintained that this architecture was independent of the Gothic of France, that it was an equally spontaneous art, and the expression of native artistic aptitudes hardly inferior to those which produced the French Gothic style.

In the opening chapter, after some remarks on the uneven progress of the arts in past ages, and some just observations on the ravages of so-called restoration, and the consequent difficulty of now finding architectural monuments of ancient and mediæval times in their integrity, the author enters upon a discussion of the conflicting theories which have recently arisen respecting Gothic art. Then follows a general outline of the rise of this art. The priority and preëminence of the Gothic of the Île de France are admitted, and its evolution out of the elements of older systems is recognized. As the principles of the new art become better understood, the development is quickened;

"the circle of the experimenters becomes immensely widened; instead of Art being the province of a sect, the whole people combine in the pursuit of beauty, and become endowed with the faculties of artists. Instead of slow, traditional skill handed on from father craftsman to son, or from master to pupil, every member of the community instructs his neighbor in artistic effort, and gains a step from him himself. The whole being of the age, its religions and its philosophies, its aspirations and conceptions, are concentrated on art as the one means of expression. The passion for the beautiful controls every sphere of life and feeling."

Thus, "in Western Europe, Gothic art grew from small, widespread beginnings, with slow but irresistible impulse, the master of its conditions, until, in the Île de France, came that expansion which in a few years brought about the most consummate art of building which the world has achieved."

But, with characteristic English zeal to establish the claims of English Gothic, the author proceeds to qualify his praise of the noble French art, remarking that "the idea of articulated and balanced construction which took the Frenchman's fancy and became to him a domineering mistress, was to the English artist only a helpmate. As an indispensable vehicle for the expression of his art he was enamoured of it, but he would not let it stifle every other affection." But he then adds: "The vigor of his Norman building had given him [the English designer] a grand art; and in treatment of mass and wall surface he retained to the end the ideals of this first Romanesque design." He thus unwittingly yields his whole subsequent contention respecting the originality, and the Gothic character, of pointed architecture in England. For the Norman Romanesque was not an English art, and, in retaining

to the end the principles of this Romanesque, the English pointed building could never become really Gothic. Yet, through some twenty more pages of the introductory chapter, it is maintained that the progress of mediæval architecture in England was quite independent of that of France. It is true, indeed, as Mr. Prior affirms, that this English pointed art has a character of its own, which is often very admirable. It can hardly be questioned that the characteristic monuments of the so-called Early English style are sometimes among the most beautiful works of their kind that were ever produced. But to call this style either Gothic or purely English, is to ignore fundamental architectural distinctions and historical facts.

The larger Norman churches in England had been built under Benedictine supremacy, and the rise of what is called English Gothic is said to have been due to "the zeal of the new monastic reformations, which, by the middle of the twelfth century, were making in England determined way in competition with the rule of St. Benedict." But to the lack of power and position on the part of the Augustinian and Cistercian orders is attributed the fact that the Gothic of England was developed "in middle-sized churches rather than in those of the first rank, which had already been provided for England by Norman enterprise." This smallness of scale seems to appear to the writer to constitute the only material inferiority of English Gothic to the Gothic of France.

The account given of the influences which gradually shaped the plan and general proportions of the Anglo-Norman church is interesting, but not new. The lengthening of the nave, the accentuation of the transept, the prolongation of the east end, the square termination of the east end, and the widening of the west front, are discussed with pardonable partiality, as if they constituted conspicuous improvements which gave the English church edifice some sort of artistic superiority. The statement, p. 53, that "the English parish church sprung from the interaction of pre-Conquest elements, which, if in their origin necessarily of foreign introduction, were developed into a native type," is undoubtedly correct. The English parish church certainly became essentially English in character and expression, and as a feature in the sweet English landscape it is altogether charming, and without parallel elsewhere. Nor can it be questioned that in the larger churches, with all their imported elements, Anglo-Norman art had, before the close of the twelfth century, "begun to move in lines of its own." No argument is needed to establish this obvious fact; but a point to be held in mind respecting this movement is that it was not in Gothic lines. It is to be hoped that some English writer may yet arise who will correctly, and appreciatively, illustrate this Anglo-Norman art without drawing comparisons between it and the art of the Continent in the effort to establish any English artistic superiority. Such effort has weakened the writings of Parker and most other English authors. The pointed art of England will not bear comparison with the Gothic of France. The artistic conditions of England in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were not at all comparable to those of the Île de France at the same time.

Through the remainder of the book the author elaborates his thesis, giving many examples of English Gothic which illustrate its history, from the beginnings of the so-called Early English to the fullest development of the Perpendicular style. As a manual of information respecting mediæval art in England the book is valuable; and it is handsomely printed and copiously illustrated.

The History of the European Fauna. By R. F. Scharff. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. 12mo, pp. 364. Illustrated.

To indicate a suitable method of treatment of a very complex subject is said to be the purpose of this book. As a history, present conditions of knowledge necessarily make it only an approximation, yet it illustrates most worthy lines and methods of research concerning the geographical distribution of animals and plants, and in general is as satisfactory as any work of the kind now existing. Living forms are traced back to their original homes, the regions of dispersal, perhaps the present dwelling-places of most of their kindred, through their affinities with recent and fossil forms. Occurrence at various localities fixes the routes of migration and determines the earlier conditions of land and climate. Accidental colonization is put aside as an insignificant factor.

The British Islands are the points of departure for the author. It is decided that, in the early tertiary, these islands were united with one another, with Southern Europe, and, by way of Scandinavia, Spitzbergen, and Greenland, with Arctic America. Any connection with America by way of the Faroes and Iceland is supposed to have disappeared at a much earlier date. About this time a marine connection existed between the Aralo-Caspian and the White Sea. The climate, miocene, was subtropical, and the earliest immigrants (the Lusitanian invasion) reached Britain from the South, where they had arrived still earlier by land connecting Spain, Northern Africa, Southern Italy, Southern Greece, and Asia Minor. Some reptiles, batrachians, and insects, and the rabbit were thus received. The Alps rose as islands which eventually were connected with Asia, whence came a flora and fauna that, after considerable modification, spread over land of later emergence to the west and the northward, forming the author's Alpine invasion, from which were derived particular molluscs and insects. The Lusitanian connection had been broken, but establishment of the more direct northern route from Asia brought about an Oriental immigration, with which came the mammoth, wild boar, badger, dippers and pheasants, reptiles, batrachians, and many invertebrates. The Arctic immigration, the next in order, was comparatively poor; it had no reptiles or batrachians, but was marked by the barren-ground reindeer, the Arctic hare, and by American molluscs, fresh-water sponges, and plants. About this time Ireland was separated from England, the Irish Sea taking the place of a former fresh-water lake, as evidenced by the present distribution of the Salmonidæ.

The advent of the glacial period followed the Arctic migration, possibly to some extent promoted it. The climate had gradually become colder until the glaciation was at hand, but the cold was never so great as is generally supposed; the mean temperature was little lower than at present, while the climate was more equable and more moist, conditions which favored a great deal of snow. During the ice period, Alpine life was only crowded down to lower levels, and even in Greenland the present fauna and flora survived where it is. Towards the beginning of the period the land bridge between Scandinavia and Greenland was broken, and, somewhat later, land rose to break the water connection between the Caspian Sea and the White, which further lowered the Arctic temperature and reduced the habitable area in the north, preparing the way for the Siberian invasion south and westward. When the migrants of this invasion reached England, they were unable to cross to Ireland. Among the species involved were twenty-six mammals, nine of which are still living, and many European beetles. The earliest of these migrants are found in the Forest beds which, lying immediately above the lower boulder clay, are fixed as contemporaneous with the interglacial deposits of Germany, which in turn fixes the time of the migration. By this order some of the commonly placed upper pliocene beds become lower pleistocene. The boulder clays immediately preceding the Siberian migration were marine deposits, and the Forest beds were laid down at the mouth of some great river, probably the Rhine.

Though the foregoing cannot give a fair idea of the general excellence of the book, it will indicate something of its scope and character, and of the conclusions reached, together with the possibilities for differences of opinion and controversy. A few instances indicate that the proofreader was not always alert; for examples, mention is made of "a flora composed of flowering plants and cryptograms," and the lizards *Phrynocephalus auritus* and *Agama sanguinolenta* are placed in the new-world family *Iguanidæ*.

My Mother's Journal: A Young Lady's Diary of Five Years Spent in Manila, Macao, and the Cape of Good Hope, from 1819 to 1834. Edited by Katherine Hillard. Boston: George H. Ellis. 1900.

We have here a book which, though it makes its principal appeal to the descendants and relatives and friends of Mrs. Hillard, who, as Miss Harriet Low, wrote the journal it presents to us, will prove instructive and entertaining to so many others as read it. Those who knew Mrs. Hillard only when her "autumnal face" was growing every year more beautiful, will find something particularly charming in the self-portraiture of the sparkling girl, nor will they fail to recognize in her those traits which were the early prophecies of her maturest grace. It would have been better, to our thinking, if Miss Hillard, who has edited the journal with much delicate discrimination, had been a little less reserved and given us some fuller account of her mother's family connection. A tardy footnote informs us that she was a sister of Mr. A. A. Low, the father of Mr. Seth Low, President of Columbia University. We would not have had the good uncle who figures so conspicuously in the journal left in the vague half-light of anonymity; and we would have been told something definite of the business house he represented and of the general character of the trade in which it was engaged.

Various elements conspire to make Miss

Low's journal an attractive one. It is written in a fresh and piquant manner. How many of our college-bred girls have picked up so good a style? There is also the fascination which habitually inheres in times and manners very different from our own—the voyage of fifteen weeks' duration; the pleasant glimpse of Manila as it was in 1829; the delightful impressions of the South African Dutch in 1834; the visit to St. Helena before Napoleon's dust had been removed to France. The unconscious comment on the personal and social dangers of our new colonial entanglements is not to be escaped. We are frequently made aware of a shady side to that brilliant gayety which at first fascinates the Salem girl so much, and later bores her a good deal. Here were materials for such stories as Mr. Kipling's 'Plain Tales from the Hills,' but hinted at with a reserve in happy contrast to his immense sophistication.

But altogether the most interesting aspect of Miss Low's journal is its entirely frank and simple revelation of the young writer's mind and heart. The social life of Macao contrasted sharply with the petty provincialism of Salem, Mass., and her new liberties and opportunities were at first revelled in with innocent delight, though not without frequent protests against card-playing Saturday nights, and similar infringements of the Puritan rule. Evidently she was very attractive to the Macao bachelors, and so little suspicious of them that more than once she was on the point of accepting an unworthy suitor. Disappointed affection did much to dull the edge of her enjoyment and make the prospect of her return to America welcome. The most interesting episode of her life in China was an attempt to break down the barrier set up in Canton against foreign women. She went to Canton with her aunt, but they were obliged to beat an ignominious retreat. The moralizing and occasional rhapsodizing in her journal sound well-known contemporary notes. She was a stout little Unitarian, and read Buckminster's sermons with warm approval, and held her own against some violent assaults in a praiseworthy fashion. It is a piece of singular good fortune that her portrait was painted in Macao by a good artist, Chinnery, and that its reproduction, in an excellent photogravure, enables us to see her, in habit as she was, with the big sleeves at which she railed in 1830, but to which she finally succumbed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. The Head of the Pasht. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Anglo-American Guide to Paris Exhibition, 1900. London: W. Heinemann; New York: F. A. Stokes. 50c.
Anna Price Dillon: Memoir and Memorials. By her husband. New York: Printed privately.
Arnold, Sarah L., and Kittredge, Prof. G. L. The Mother Tongue. Boston: Ginn & Co. Books I. and II. 55c. and 70c.
Askwith, Rev. E. H. The Christian Conception of Holiness. Macmillan.
Bangs, John Kendrick. The Booming of Acre Hill. Harpers. $1.25.
Baskett, J. N. As the Light Led. Macmillan. $1.50.
Blaisdell, Etta A., and Mary F. Child Life in Literature. Macmillan.
Bloundelle-Burton, J. The Seafarers: A Modern Romance. Appletons. $1.
Boldrewood, R. Babes in the Bush. Macmillan. $1.50.
Burroughs, John. The Light of Day. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Capes, B. From Door to Door. F. A. Stokes Co.
Caxton, William. The Golden Legend. 2 vols. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Cecil, E. On the Eve of War. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Chapman, F. M. Bird Studies with a Camera. Appleton.
Cobbold, R. P. Innermost Asia. Scribners. $5.00.
Colby, Prof. F. M., and Peck, Prof. H. T. The International Year-Book: A Compendium of the World's Progress during the Year 1899. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Cox, Rev. T. E. Biblical Treasury of the Catechism. Wm. H. Young & Co.
Dearmer, P. Highways and Byways in Normandy. Macmillan. $2.
Demolins, Edmond. Boers or English: Who are in the Right? London: Leadenhall Press; New York: Scribners. 40c.
Deschamps, G. La Vie et les Livres. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Dole, Edmund P. Hiwa, A Tale of Ancient Hawaii. Harpers. $1.
Doyle, A. C. The Green Flag, and Other Stories of War and Sport. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Drummond, H. Dwight L. Moody: Impressions and Facts: McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Dugmore, A. R. Bird Homes. Doubleday & McClure. $2.00.
Elshemus, L. M. A Triple Flirtation. New York: The Abbey Press.
Finch, Adelaide V. The Finch First Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fink, Dr. K. A Brief History of Mathematics. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.50.
Fox, John, jr. A Cumberland Vendetta. New ed. Harpers. $1.25.
Genung, Rev. G. F. The Magna Charta of the Kingdom of God. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society.
Hall, F. W., and Geldart, W. M. Aristophanis Comoediae. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Hayman, Rev. H. The Epistles of the New Testament: An Attempt to Present them in Current and Popular Idiom. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan.
Henson, H. H. Church Problems. London: John Murray. 12 shillings.
Hillard, Katherine. My Mother's Journal. Boston: George H. Ellis. $2.
Hoar, George F. The Lust of Empire. Tucker Pub. Co. 25c.
Hocking, D. K. To Pay the Price. Chicago: Advance Pub Co. 25c.
Howard, Blanche Willis. The Garden of Eden. Scribners. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. Forty-Five. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
Hurll, Estelle M. Jean François Millet. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Kinross, A. An Opera and Lady Grasmere. F. A. Stokes Co.
Kipling, R. Stalky & Co. Early Verse. From Sea to Sea. Scribner. 3 vols.
Knox, John Jay. A History of Banking in the United States. Bradford Rhodes & Co.
Lane, M. A. L. Oriole Stories. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Lazarus, M. The Ethics of Judaism. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. Part I.
Luce, R. Going Abroad? Some Advice. New ed. Boston: R. & L. Luce.
Lummis-Paterson, G. W. The Management of Dynamos. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: Macmillan. 3s. 6d.
Macdonell, Prof. A. A. A History of Sanskrit Literature. Appleton. $1.50.
Marchant, E. C. Xenophontis Opera Omnia. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Mott, Ed. The Black Homer of Jimtown. Grosset & Dunlap. $1.25.
Murray, T. H. The Journal of the American-Irish Historical Society. Vol. II. Boston: Published by the Society.
Myers, G. The History of Public Franchises in New York City (Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx). New York: Reform Club Committee.
Peters, Rev. L. E. A Practical Handbook on Sunday-School Work. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society.
Philipson, D., and Grossmann, L. Selected Writings of Isaac M. Wise. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Pfleiderer, Prof. O. Evolution and Theology, and Other Essays. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Plehn, C. C. Introduction to Public Finance. New ed. Macmillan.
Podmore, C. T. A Cynic's Conscience. London: Edward Arnold. 6 shillings.
Pratt, E. A. Leading Points in South African History. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Schönbach, A. E. Uber Lesen und Bildung. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky.
Scott, Sir Walter. Lady of the Lake. [Pocket English Classics.] Macmillan. 25c.
Seaton, R. C. Apollonii Rhodii Argonautica. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Stead, W. T. The Crucifixion. Chicago: Davis & Co.
Steel, Flora A. Voices in the Night: A Chromatic Fantasia. Macmillan.
Stockton, F. R. The Great Stone of Sardis. The Water Devil. Vol. XI. Scribners.
Sweet, H. The History of Language. [Temple Primers.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Tompkins, Elizabeth K. The Things that Count. Putnams.
Underhill, G. E. A Commentary on the Hellenica of Xenophon. Henry Frowde. $1.90.
Zschokke, H. Das Wirtshaus zu Cransac. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.

In an article on Mrs. Dudeney's *Folly Corner* (Henry Holt & Co. $1.25), in the June *Bookman*, Professor Harry Thurston Peck says that it and a book by Mrs. Wharton are the only novels of the present year for which he really cares. He calls Mrs. Dudeney "the equal of Thomas Hardy," and her book "a work of art which is not only permeated with an extraordinarily sympathetic understanding of the human heart, but displays also from beginning to end the sort of vigor and sanity that can employ the most delicate instruments and the subtlest methods without becoming intellectually nearsighted and without losing even for a moment a sense of true proportion."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 7, 1900.

The Week.

The Bar Association has done its duty in the matter of John R. Hazel's nomination for Judge of the United States District Court, by the adoption of a resolution declaring that it does not deem him a fit candidate for the office, and by the appointment of a committee to convey to the Judiciary Committee of the Senate its opinion that the nomination should not be confirmed. The report of the Standing Committee of the Association on Judicial Nominations, which was presented by Mr. Robert W. de Forest, its Chairman, was signed by every member who was in town or accessible, and it was sustained after a discussion by an overwhelming majority. It was a clear, candid, and forcible presentation of the facts in the case—that for the past ten years Hazel has been so much engrossed in politics that "he has been little known, either to the courts or the bar, in connection with the practice of the law"; that "he has never appeared at any time in any Federal court on any question, and has never taken part as a lawyer in any matter involving admiralty, patent, revenue, or bankruptcy law"—the chief questions to come before the new court; that "his deserts are political, rather than legal, and his selection a reward of political service"; and that, consequently, he does not meet the standard of judicial requirement which the Association has repeatedly adopted—"that the career of a candidate for a judicial office should furnish unmistakable evidence of capacity and fitness to discharge its duties." Such a deliverance from such a source should have carried great weight with the Judiciary Committee—but it did not.

Only a brief reference was made in the report to the charge that Hazel got $5,000 as his "rake-off" for the sale of a yacht to the Government at about twice its value, two years ago, because the matter was not brought to the Committee's attention until after its report was drafted. The *Tribune* on Friday printed Hazel's own story of this performance, as told in a suit brought by another man who claimed a commission for bringing about the sale. Hazel was perfectly frank about the whole transaction, as was also Conners, the owner of the yacht. Conners testified that he wanted to sell the boat, and sent for Hazel, to whom he said: "John, I think you've got pull enough to sell that boat. If you can sell that boat for $100,000, I will give you $5,000 out of it." Hazel told how he went to Washington, and saw Capt. Rodgers, the Chairman of the Auxiliary Board. The Captain asked whether the boat was light or heavy. "I said light," wrote Hazel to Conners, "and that is where I put my foot in it," as the Secretary of the Board said that they wanted a heavy boat. "Well," Hazel added, "I really don't know if the frame is light or heavy. I will wire and find out." So he sent a dispatch to Conners which should steer him right in composing his reply:

> "Wire me if she is light or heavy. *Should be heavy.* What about framework—light or heavy? Another meeting to-morrow."

The interesting fact was brought out that Hazel had never been Conners's counsel in any other matter, nor has he since been. He was employed solely because of his political pull, and the incident illuminates the character of the would-be judge.

This yacht affair gives a little idea of the way that the Government was cheated when the $50,000,000 war fund which was placed at the disposal of the President, two years ago, was being expended. The yacht was sold to the Government on the 29th of June, 1898, for $80,000, and, after receiving over $5,000 worth of repairs, was appraised at $20,000 on the 13th of June, 1899, when it was transferred from the Navy to the War Department. Senator Jones of Arkansas was quite justified on Thursday in making these revelations the basis of a demand for a detailed account of the way the $50,000,000 was paid out. Everybody who ever looked into the matter at all heard plenty of stories of far greater swindles than this. Mr. Jones says that when any one tries to secure figures from the War Department, he is referred to the State Department, and when he goes to the State Department, he is sent to the Navy Department, and he gets no information anywhere. "Let the President send us a detailed account of expenditures, showing to what use the cash was put," was the demand of the Arkansas Senator, and a very proper one it was.

It would have appeared simply incredible if any critic of American rule in Cuba, six weeks ago, had described such a system of administration—or rather lack of system—in the Postal Department as is now confessed to have existed. The examination on Monday of Rathbone, the former Director of Posts, disclosed the astonishing fact that, until the frauds were recently discovered, there was absolutely no check upon the Bureau of Finance. The acting Director estimates the extent of the stealings at between $80,000 and $100,000, outside of the old stamps which were sold when they ought to have been destroyed, and it would seem impossible ever to make more than a guess as to whether Neely got $50,000, $100,000, or more by this fraud. The postal inspectors say that "it is astonishing that a system so rotten could have been concealed beyond the first month." The post-office in every country is the department of the Government which comes home most closely to the people, and nothing could have been more unfortunate for American prestige than that it should have been here that our lesson in the science of government should have ended in disgrace. The only way of wiping out the stain is to follow up the criminals with the utmost severity. The Cubans are favorably impressed by the first steps that have been taken, *Cubano*, a Havana newspaper, pointing to the contrast with the way that Spain let such offenders go scot free, and remarking that "the Americans are proving themselves more honest than the Government which ruled Cuba for four hundred years."

Judge Taft's statement at Manila of the hopes and aims of the new Philippine Commission is not wanting in vague benevolence. If that kind of salt on the tail sufficed to catch the shy Filipino bird, he would have been caged long ago. No people known to history has rivalled the Filipinos in being shot down by conquerors whose hearts have been filled with compassion, and whose eyes streamed with tenderness for the poor creatures they were killing. But the intelligent natives, to whom Judge Taft means especially to appeal, have been very cynical about fine words going with insults and blows, and there is no reason to think that they will now leave off their skeptical inquiries. Judge Taft says he has "extensive powers." The Filipinos will want to know where he got them, and under what legal or Constitutional warrant. They will read to him Senator Beveridge's speech, which they are circulating in Spanish under the title, "The Death-knell of the Filipino People," and ask him if his extensive powers are intended to carry out the mercenary and truculent policy of the Indiana Senator. Judge Taft says he is surprised at not hearing that the Spooner bill has passed. Some malicious native should ask him if he is not more surprised to learn that the bill has been ignominiously withdrawn; that Congress is going to do absolutely nothing about the Filipinos, and that the whole situation is more clouded with uncertainty than ever before.

Senator Spooner's resolutions at best were only a tentative and stopgap affair, not pretending to go to the root of the

matter. They only gave Congressional warrant to what the President has done or may do. This is very far from living up to the Paris Treaty, which said that Congress would determine the "status" of the Filipinos. But even this halting and half-way measure has to be dropped. All of Mr. McKinley's fine words about relying on "the wisdom of Congress," all his promises to throw the entire responsibility on the chosen representatives of the people, all the boasts of Republican conventions and platforms, have come down to just nothing at all. After all the shouting and bragging, we get only what the Spaniards call "nothing between two plates" *(nada entre dos platos)*. The Republicans in the Senate had splendid oratorical victories over their wretched opponents. They showed in triumph that they were proposing to give McKinley exactly the same powers that Jefferson had in Louisiana. This, of course, put the Democrats in an awful hole. Lodge's glee over their predicament was something beautiful. But along came Mr. Cannon to put Senator Lodge in a hole. Jefferson or no Jefferson, those resolutions were too autocratic, Mr. Cannon said, for Western Republicans in doubtful districts to stomach, and they must not be passed. As soon as Lodge heard of "doubtful districts," he meekly got up and withdrew the resolutions. Thus we see that a Doubtful District is too much for either Duty or Destiny.

Republicans will be fully justified in "pointing with pride" to the result of the Oregon election on Monday. The victory for the party was a sweeping one—a large majority for the State ticket, the election of both Representatives in Congress, also by good majorities, and the choice of a Legislature which will elect a Republican to the United States Senate. The contrast with the corresponding election four years ago is very sharp. In 1896 one Republican candidate for Congress had only 378 plurality, and the other but 63, while if the Democrats and Populists had combined their votes, they would have secured not only both seats in the House of Representatives, but also the judgeship which was at stake on the State vote, by over 4,000. This year fusion was effected, and the result is the overwhelming defeat of the allied forces. Oregon is a State which was once sadly infected with financial delusions. The Republican party so far surrendered to the silver craze that four years ago a majority of its State Convention voted against putting a declaration opposing free coinage in the platform, and adopted instead a "straddle," while one of the Republican candidates for Congress openly advocated free coinage. This year the platform, after commending the Republican Congress for its passage of the gold-standard law, declared that, "so long as either of our great political parties advocates the free coinage of silver, the maintenance of the gold standard is the most important political issue." The other question which the Republicans made prominent was that of Expansion, and the result must be considered an endorsement of the policy of the McKinley Administration in this respect.

One of the worst acts of the Quay Administration in Pennsylvania was the veto by Gov. Stone of the Constitutional amendments providing for reform in the electoral system. The abuses which have long prevailed in Pennsylvania are subversive of popular government. The number of fraudulent votes cast in Philadelphia alone has been estimated at 50,000 and over, and similar outrages on the suffrage have taken place throughout the State. After a long struggle the Legislature was induced to adopt amendments providing for the use of voting machines, and for the personal registration of voters in large cities. Gov. Stone took the position that he was authorized to prevent the submission of the amendments to the people, and the Secretary of State refused to advertise them as required by law. The Municipal League of Philadelphia then obtained a mandamus compelling the Secretary of State to comply with the law, and the Supreme Court has now sustained the mandamus.

The opinion of the Supreme Court is extremely clear and conclusive on the point involved. It shows that the language of the Constitution is imperative in its direction that the Secretary of State shall advertise whatever amendments to the Constitution the Legislature may adopt:

> "He has no discretion in the premises. His action does not depend on any other action whatever. It is his own, personal, individual, and official duty, imperative in its character, and of the very highest and gravest obligation, because it is imposed by the Constitution itself, and he can only discharge that duty by literally performing its terms. He cannot excuse himself for non-performance by setting up advice, opinion, or action of any other person, organization, or department, official or otherwise, for the simple reason that the article of the Constitution which prescribes his duty does not allow it. There is no opportunity for any, even the least, intervention between the entry of the amendment on the journals and the publication in the newspapers, in the whole course of the proceeding for the creation of the amendment."

As to the functions of the Governor, the Supreme Court is equally emphatic. Nothing in the Constitution declares or implies that the Governor has any power to prevent the submission of Constitutional amendments to the people by the Legislature. There is no implied power, because there is no need to imply such a power. It is true that the Constitution gives a general power to the Governor to disapprove "every order, resolution, and vote" of the Legislature, but this power relates to ordinary legislation, and not to the making or amendment of Constitutions. The Legislature and the people alone have this responsibility. The right to approve or disapprove a law belongs to the Governor, and not to the people. The right to approve or disapprove a Constitutional amendment belongs to the people and not to the Governor.

Tammany is being exposed in an ideal way by the developments in regard to the Ice Trust. Everybody knew that the organization was in politics for what it could make out of it. Its leader unblushingly confessed on the witness-stand in the investigation last year that he used his position to put as much money as possible in his own pocket. But it still remained to show that a Tammany Mayor was capable of using his office to extort money from the public for his own benefit. There is a recklessness as well as a shamelessness about such a performance which is calculated to surprise people. Probably few persons beforehand would have believed Mayor Van Wyck capable of such folly as becoming a stockholder in an enterprise which must, from the very nature of the case, prove so offensive as a combination to control the ice market and double the price of a necessary of life. There seems to be no doubt that this is what Van Wyck has done, and the fact will do more to open the eyes of the masses to the character of Tammany rule than all the newspaper articles and all the speeches against the organization which could be delivered in a six months' campaign.

Taking it for granted that the Mayor is a stockholder in the Ice Trust, there seems no doubt that he can be removed from office, as he ought to be. The section of the City Charter (1533) which applies in such a case is clear and explicit. It provides that any officer of the city who shall "become, directly or indirectly, interested in or in the performance of any contract, work or business, or the sale of any article," which is paid for from the city treasury, or "who shall, during the time for which he is elected or appointed, knowingly acquire an interest in any contract or work with the city," shall, upon conviction of the offence, forfeit his office and be punished for a misdemeanor. The only possible chance for a quibble would appear to be over the word "knowingly," and it would be pretty hard to maintain that Van Wyck was stupid enough not to know that a company which controlled the ice supply of the city would make sales to the municipality. The Governor has the power of removing the Mayor, and may suspend him for thirty days, pending a trial of the charges against him. It is fortunate that no question of partisan control of the city government is involved, as one Tammany man

would be succeeded by another if Van Wyck should be ousted; the order of succession in case of vacancy being first the President of the Council, and then its Vice-Chairman, the new incumbent serving out the remainder of the four years' term.

The St. Louis street-car strike is now in its fifth week, and the end is not in sight. The city has been practically in the hands of a mob ever since it began. Many persons have been killed, many more have received gun-shot wounds, and upwards of one hundred have suffered other bodily injuries. A strike of much longer duration and embracing a much larger number of men, and accompanied by a lockout and a boycott, holds the city of Chicago in its grasp. The latter is not marked by rioting and bloodshed now, but only because the officers of the law do not enforce it. Lawlessness reigns in Chicago in a peaceful way because the Chief Executive has surrendered his powers to a self-constituted and secret organization called the Building Trades Council. To all outward appearance the business of the city goes on as usual. Crowds of people throng the streets and women go shopping as before. The casual visitor does not observe much if any difference between the conditions of to-day and those of one year ago unless he happens to glance at the gigantic framework of the new Government building, and notices its lifeless condition. It is a skeleton, but not a skeleton in a closet. Its bare ribs proclaim to all observers that no work is going on in the building trade in that city. If inquiry is made for the reason, it is learned that the Building Trades Council has decreed that the bosses shall employ only the members of labor unions controlled by said Building Trades Council; that if any boss employs or seeks to employ other labor, the new men will be assaulted, beaten, or killed, and the work they may have done will be demolished.

The St. Louis street-car strike is based upon the same demands. The strikers require, as the conditions of resuming work, that all conductors, motormen, gripmen, and all men employed in the sheds shall be compelled to be members of the union; that any member suspended by the union shall be suspended by the company without pay until such time as the union requests his reinstatement; that any man elected to an office in the union requiring his absence for not more than a year shall, upon his retirement from such office, have his old place with the company. Obviously these requirements look to a monopoly of employment on the part of those who control the labor organizations; for, if all the non-union men were compelled to join the unions to-day, they might be "suspended" to-morrow, in which event they must be suspended from employment, the term of suspension being indefinite. This is something more than a Labor Trust. It is tyranny. The commercial Trust does not deprive the small producer of the right to earn a living, except by offering its own goods at low prices. If the small producer puts his prices down to the same level, the Trust has nothing further to say.

It is very satisfactory to see that public attention is being directed to the subject of the transfer or inheritance tax. The appointment of a number of Republican politicians as appraisers in this city, thus depriving the Surrogates of a large amount of patronage, aroused much indignation. Then followed the disclosure of the amount of the fees paid to special counsel appointed by the State Comptroller, from which it appeared that a prominent free-silver Democrat had received nearly $50,000 in two years. Now we are furnished with the figures showing how much of the proceeds of this tax is spent in collecting it—figures which may be fairly called startling. The New York *Herald* points out that the cost of collecting the internal revenue of the United States is 1.59 per cent., that of collecting the customs 3.57 per cent., that of collecting the excise in New York State 2.66 per cent., that of collecting the corporation tax 1.00 per cent.; while it costs 12 per cent. to collect the transfer tax. In New York County, where more than half the tax is collected, the cost of collection is 10 per cent., and in Kings County it rises to 18 per cent. In New York County the amount collected last year was $1,269,000. Out of this, over $7,000 went to the District Attorney's office, nearly $10,000 to the Surrogate's office, about $16,000 to the Comptroller, almost $31,000 to the appraisers, and over $65,000 to attorneys. It is evident that the system of collection is adapted to maintain an unnecessarily large number of office-holders at the expense of the estates of dead people—that is, at the expense of the living people who would naturally succeed to those estates.

It was by a compromise, after all, that the Australian Federation Bill passed its second reading in the House of Commons in the form in which it will no doubt become law. Both Mr. Chamberlain and the Australian delegates receded a little from their first positions. The Colonial Secretary finally agreed to allow the High Court of Australia to pass upon all Constitutional questions without appeal to the Privy Council. In so far the new Commonwealth is to have judicial supremacy. But in all other cases appeal will lie as heretofore. Furthermore, the delegates consented to accept an amendment whereby any act passing the Australian Parliament for the further limiting of appeals, should be reserved for the approval of the Imperial Government—that is, should be vetoed if found inconsistent with Imperial interests. After these concessions, all opposition to the bill vanished, and it passed the House with general acclaim. The only discordant note came from the harp that once through Tara's halls, strummed by Tim Healy. He made a very witty speech, showing up Mr. Chamberlain's inconsistency in having declared, in the case of the proposed Irish Parliament, that such powers as he was now giving without a qualm to the Australian Parliament would be simply fatal to the supremacy of the British Parliament. To Mr. Gladstone's bill for an Irish Parliament, Mr. Chamberlain had moved a whole bookful of amendments, on which he had made 274 speeches. What Healy wanted to know, in view of the Colonial Secretary's conceding all those things to the Australians, was if "an Irishman could not be trusted with self-government until he had been first transported." He got no answer except loud laughter at Mr. Chamberlain's expense, but that was probably the only answer he expected.

Real importance must be assigned to the statements which the Austrian Emperor and his Minister for Foreign Affairs, Count Goluchowski, made to the "Delegations"—that is, the joint committee of Austria and Hungary having special control of foreign relations. Francis Joseph declared that he had "an uninterrupted understanding with the Czar as to all questions affecting the Near East." This is most reassuring, in view of the renewed rumors of trouble in the Balkan Peninsula. Whatever happens in Bulgaria, where a sort of peasant war appears to be threatened, or in Macedonia, where the long-heralded uprising against the Turk is now said surely to be coming off, a complete and friendly agreement between Austria and Russia is certain to confine the flames, if they do burst out. Count Goluchowski said of this international understanding that it formed a "valuable complement to the close alliance of the Monarchy with Germany and Italy." Austria is more careful of Italian susceptibilities than is Germany. At the recent meeting of the Emperors in Berlin, the chief of staff of the German army toasted the Austrian army, which, he said, in unison with the German, was the supreme guarantee of European peace. Not a word about the third member of the Dreibund! The oversight was repaired by the Austrian Field-Marshal, Beck, who, in his reply, had gracious things to say of Humbert's troops. But the inadvertence, or brutality, of the German in ignoring Italy shows how small a figure she now cuts in that alliance which was a little while ago her boast, as it has also been very nearly her financial ruin.

THE IDOL.

It is now proposed to renominate for the Presidency the most unmoral of all the occupants of that high office. Time was when public sentiment would not have tolerated the spectacle of a *first* candidacy engineered by the millionaire who had paid the debts of his puppet, and who bought the rotten-borough votes of States in which the party had no other ground for existence than to traffic at nominating conventions, and secure a share of the Federal spoils. But that spectacle is past, and past is another, hardly less revolting to the healthy tone of a republic, McKinley's repayment of Hanna with a Senatorship. The same machinery has been set in motion for a second term. The accidental great man who lost the empty honor of the Speakership to win the consolation prize of leader of the House, and so attached his name to a measure not his own, comes smiling to the front, and asks for the seal of party and popular approval after three fateful years of administration.

We have called McKinley unmoral, but our definition of that term would take a paradoxical form. As was said of a certain Swiss folk by one of their countrymen, he is not without morals, but he has no principles. The clergy and high officials who have been lauding him to the skies, will hold up their hands at this. Well, let them point to one single line of conduct steadfastly pursued, one single doctrine maintained independently of personal or party interest. Shall it be the currency question? He has lately signed the bill establishing the gold standard for the United States. Did the action give him one ray of pleasure greater than he felt in voting for the free coinage of depreciated silver dollars in November, 1877; or in voting to override Hayes's veto of the Bland-Allison bill in February, 1878; or in voting, in January of the latter year, in favor of Stanley Matthews's concurrent resolution declaring all bonds payable in silver at the option of the Government? Notoriously, in 1890, he supported the Sherman silver-purchase act, which disastrous measure, by the testimony of Senator Teller and Speaker Reed, was the barter for the tariff bill fathered by him. He openly contended for the use of all our silver product as money. In 1891, he had two voices—that of February, when he accused President Cleveland of dishonoring silver; and that of August, when he opposed free coinage. Again veering, in September, 1893, he sought to embarrass President Cleveland's constraint of Congress to repeal the Sherman act, and was still condemning the repeal in 1894. On the eve of the St. Louis Convention, he was opposed to the 16-to-1 ratio, as he told Mr. Kohlsaat, but equally objected to the use of the word gold in the platform. While ministers were testifying to his church-going habits, he either was silent about his real views on the currency, or veiled them in ambiguous language as long as possible. On July 30 he let drop the word gold at Canton, and had the effrontery on August 12 to quote Hayes in favor of sound money. Then, after his election, but before he took office, in order to propitiate the Republican silver States, he fell in with Senator Wolcott's scheme for a roving wild-goose European bimetallic mission. Installed as President, he sacrifices currency reform to the tariff, and delays till the tag-end of the session his proposal of a currency commission. Can any candid mind review this revelation of character and conclude that McKinley has had a particle of principle from beginning to end of the struggle for an honest and stable currency and unsullied national credit?

Consider next his attitude towards civil-service reform. It is true that in 1890, as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, he spoke manfully in favor of the existing law, and held the Republican party to its solemn pledges. Once in the White House, however, he gave notice that his Presidential patronage would be dispensed, not on grounds of fitness, but as per agreement of the Senators immediately concerned. Typical examples of this practice were the appointments of Roberts to be Treasurer of the United States, and Bidwell to be Collector of the Port of New York, both creatures of Platt. To oblige Senator Elkins, he gave the Fish and Fisheries Commissionership to Bowers; and he ratified Hanna's corrupt bargain with Wimberly by which this Louisiana politician got the Collectorship of the Port of New Orleans, in return for having voted at St. Louis for McKinley instead of Reed. For the same reason he made Demas Naval Officer at New Orleans; but this was too much even for the Senate to confirm. The nomination of Hazel to be District Judge in western New York is a flaming scandal. It is true that the President, on July 28, 1897, issued an order bringing a large number of new places within the classified service, and forbidding removals in that service except for cause and with charges filed in writing. But it is also true that, in less than six months, his message to Congress foreshadowed that wholesale removal of places from the classified service consummated in May, 1899, without conference with the Civil-Service Commissioners, and with no attempt at public justification of it. After this, they must have been confiding indeed who looked for Executive prosecution or censure of the Ohio Republican machine's violation of the law, last November, by soliciting money from Federal officeholders all over the country.

On every question of public policy, McKinley's want of a settled opinion or of good faith has been manifest. In April, 1897, he sent a Jingo and annexation Minister to Hawaii, after warning the country, in his inaugural address, against "the temptation of territorial aggression." He assured the Japanese Minister that no treaty of annexation was in preparation or contemplation; then, in his December message, favored such a treaty, made it an Administration measure for the sake of warding off a reciprocity treaty menacing the tariff, and carried it when the war with Spain had paralyzed the power of the country to resist. The Cuban insurrection being on the eve of expiring, he came to its rescue, and declared that forcible annexation would be criminal aggression. When the Philippine insurrection was on the eve of succeeding, he declared taking possession of the islands a responsibility imposed by the Almighty, at whatsoever cost in blood and treasure to victor and vanquished. He proclaimed it our plain duty to extend our interstate freedom of trade to Porto Rico; at the command of the protected interests, he took the opposite view with the same bland and righteous expression, and forced the Foraker bill through Congress. In short, as was said of Queen Elizabeth, "wherever his hand is visible, there is always vacillation, infirmity of purpose, and general dishonesty."

His perfidy to the Sound Money Democrats who insured his election, was not more prompt or odious in his coquetting with the silverites than in his using his power for an aggravated protective tariff. The art of cheating the Filipinos of the fruits of victory won at Manila by their assistance, he had learned by Aguinaldoing his political allies at home. So his excuse for silence about his own convictions, because he would not forestall the party platform (which he was secretly dictating), was a fit precursor of his pretence to have no policy of war or expansion beyond the will of Congress. When that body was not in session, he shaped events so as to preclude its freedom of action and to encourage it to abdicate its function; when it was in session, he would have everything left to his wisdom and discretion, whether as President or as Commander-in-Chief. In this way he played fast and loose with the country; disarming suspicion, cooling public sentiment, and gaining time for the imperial mould to set, with commission after commission. He posed as the victim of Destiny in seizing the whole of the Philippine group, although he entered upon the Paris Treaty with intent to demand Luzon alone. He admitted at Pittsburgh, on August 28, 1899, that we had no authority beyond Manila till the treaty was ratified, yet seven weeks in advance of that event he issued, on December 21, 1898, that infamous proclamation of a war of subjugation to the death

which even Gen. Otis had to modify in the interest of decency.

The fulsome adulation bestowed upon McKinley has surpassed anything in the memory of the present generation, and has been worthy of the subjects of a South American Rosas. His reputation for humanity and statesmanship has been gained by keeping his mouth shut at a critical time when Congress seemed driving towards what the country dreaded. Yet he has made no disguise of his profession that the Constitution does not extend over him *ex proprio vigore*, and that, as a rule, he has no veto for any action whatsoever taken by a Republican Congress. Complete party subserviency, a rare gift for wire-pulling, a genius for cant and humbug, mark his public career both in and out of the White House. Of courage—even of genuine feeling unalloyed by selfish consideration—not a trace. He has never coined a phrase that will be remembered except to his shame, nor contributed one leading idea to the political thought of the day. In spite of the tremendous changes in the extent of national territory and the republican ideals wrought under his administration, he must personally sink at last into the oblivion of a Buchanan or a Pierce, but to a lower level.

That McKinley's renomination, a fortnight hence, is inevitable, we cannot doubt; nor do we judge the probabilities of his reëlection according to our hopes.

"It may succeed; and if our sins should call
For more than common punishment, it *shall*."

MR. BRYAN'S PLATFORM.

The leading article in the current number of the *North American Review* is from the pen of William J. Bryan. It is clearly an attempt to write in advance the platform of the Kansas City Convention. As Mr. Bryan is the predestined candidate of his party, his views must undoubtedly prevail if he adheres to them. There is room for some modification here and there, but in the main this sketch may be taken as a pretty accurate foreshadowing of the issues of the campaign on the Democratic side.

The idea which constitutes the warp of Mr. Bryan's fabric is that wealth is becoming a dangerous factor in our national life, and that monopolies must be controlled and curtailed. He begins with a reference to the correspondence between Lord Howe and Benjamin Franklin on the attempt of Parliament to monopolize the trade of the American colonies. He then gives us his interpretation of the war between President Jackson and the Bank of the United States, contending that the Bank was a gigantic monopoly which mustered an almost irresistible array of financiers, business men, newspapers, and politicians in its support. According to Mr. Bryan, the overthrow of this monopoly by Jackson was a "victory for human rights against inhuman greed." This is proved by a quotation from Jackson's veto of the bill renewing the charter of the Bank—a cunningly worded document, written by Amos Kendall for campaign purposes, and which has already served in several campaigns besides the one for which it was originally intended. We remark in passing that the war against the Bank in Jackson's time was a war waged by unscrupulous men in order to make the Bank and its management a part of the spoils of politics, and that it was defensive on the part of the Bank until it was unwillingly dragged into the arena by politicians contending against each other. It is perhaps too much to expect, however, that the majority of the American people will ever take any different view of it from the traditional one which the Democratic party has always maintained and which Mr. Bryan freshly presents. In any campaign against the "money power" it will always count as one illustration among others, although, taken by itself, it has ceased to be of any consequence in the political field. An attempt is made by Mr. Bryan to utilize a few sayings of Abraham Lincoln in the war against "plutocracy," but these are rather far-fetched. The great issue in Lincoln's time was something quite different from the aggressions of capital upon labor which Mr. Bryan sees in the present conditions of society and government.

When Mr. Bryan, in his *Review* article, reaches the silver controversy, he is more at home than he is in his treatment of the administrations of Jackson and of Lincoln. Here he presents nothing new, but he adheres to his former position that bimetallism ought to be established by us at the ratio of 16 to 1 without reference to the action or non-action of other countries. This part of the article has a very hollow sound. A word of encouragement to the Populists is thrown in by remarking that "those who favor the gold standard, as a rule, favor national banknotes against greenbacks, while those who oppose the gold standard, as a rule, believe that the issue of paper money is a function of Government and should not be delegated to national banks." "A currency issued and controlled by banks," he continues, and "secured by Government bonds, creates a Paper-Money Trust"—a remark which should not be taken seriously by any person of common intelligence.

A couple of pages which follow, on the subject of Trusts in general, supply us with no new conceptions and no new plans for dealing with them. They show, however, that if political capital is to be made out of the Trust issue in the coming campaign, Mr Bryan can make more of it than his competitor. "The Democratic party," he says, "is better able to undertake this work now than it was a few years ago, because all the Trust magnates have left the party; the Republican party is less able than ever before to make a successful war against the Trusts, because it numbers among its membership all the Trust magnates it ever had, and in addition to them all that the Democratic party formerly had." This is an *argumentum ad hominem* which is likely to have considerable force in a campaign of trumpery and blatherskite—although somewhat weakened in this part of the country by the prominence of Democrats in the New York Ice Trust.

The only part of Mr. Bryan's article which appeals to serious persons, to men who try to decide by the exercise of the reasoning faculty how they shall vote, is that which relates to the Philippine Islands and the question of Imperialism. Here he is more explicit that he has been in previous deliverances. He attacks the Spooner bill as evasive—as a failure to decide upon action in dealing with the islands. At the time of writing his article he took it for granted that the Spooner bill would pass, and would constitute the Republican platform for the campaign. Since the bill has not passed, the Philadelphia Convention is at liberty to adopt any kind of a straddle, and the Kansas City Convention can do the same. Mr. Bryan says that "the Democrats have urged a plain and simple remedy, viz., that we treat the Filipinos as we have promised to treat the Cubans." Then he adds:

"Hostilities can be terminated at any moment by a declaration of this nation's purpose—first, to establish a stable government; second, to give the Filipinos their independence; third, to give them protection from outside interference while they work out their destiny. Such a declaration would be in harmony with American principles, American traditions, and American interests. Such protection would be valuable to the Filipinos and inexpensive to us, just as protection to the South American republics has been of vital importance to them, while it has imposed no burden upon us."

This is the best thing in Mr. Bryan's article. It would have been more to the purpose if he had said plainly: "This is the policy I favor, and, if it be lodged in my hands, I will withdraw our troops from the Philippines as soon as it can be done with safety to social order, to the end that the inhabitants may have confidence in the sincerity of my promises."

TRUSTS AND INTERSTATE TRADE.

The Republicans in the House on Friday did their best to put through their ridiculous scheme for an anti-Trust amendment to the Federal Constitution, although, of course, the resolution fell far short of the two-thirds vote required. The effectiveness of the performance as a piece of party tactics was somewhat impaired by the earnest opposition of one of their ablest members. Representative McCall of Massachusetts, who has a

mind of his own and is not afraid to say what he thinks, insisted upon telling the truth about the performance. He declared that "the resolution keeps the word of promise to the ear, but breaks it to the hope"; that the proposed amendment is so far-reaching that it might be used to place all combinations under the ban, and that it would strike a deadly blow at individual liberty; and, finally, that no change in the Constitution is necessary until every weapon in the Constitutional armory has been exhausted. It is well known that many Republican Representatives share these sensible views, but only one of them, Mr. Loud of California, had the courage to record himself with Mr. McCall against the demagogical proposition. For the rest, if there was claptrap on the Republican side in the discussion of this scheme, there was humbug on the Democratic. It was a happy circumstance that a spokesman for Tammany in Congress should have to deliver the regulation Tammany speech against Trusts, at the very time when Tammany officials are undergoing exposure of their share in the most odious combination from which New York city has ever suffered.

The bill purporting to be for the suppression of Trusts and monopolies which both parties in the House of Representatives unanimously endorsed the next day, will of course not be passed by the Senate at this session. That body does not vote without talking, and there is no time left to talk. Very likely the bill will never be enacted. If the Republicans win next November, they may think it safe to drop the measure, and if the Democrats win, there will be very little legislation of any kind. Nevertheless, we cannot disregard the fact that both parties have substantially committed themselves to a policy which may, and if persistently followed must, have very serious consequences. In order to understand how grave these consequences may be, it is necessary to examine the provisions of the bill in question in the light of the explanations of the Judiciary Committee which framed it.

The report of this committee showed that, under the decisions of the Supreme Court, it was impossible for Congress to repress or dissolve combinations for manufacture or production. It has power, however, to declare them illegal for the purposes of interstate or foreign commerce, and to control their products when becoming a part thereof. In 1890, what is known as the Sherman Anti-Trust Law was passed, by the terms of which conspiracies in restraint of trade were prohibited. But when the American Sugar Refining Company was attacked, under this statute, the Supreme Court held that as it was not proved that there was a combination in restraint of commerce, although there was one in restraint of production, the statute did not apply. The decision established the principle that the power to regulate interstate commerce does not include any power over commerce within a State, has no direct relation to production or manufacture, and does not include any power to repress conspiracies or monopolies relating thereto. Later decisions have extended this principle to the case of agents and commission merchants who conspire in one State to sell goods produced by a conspiracy in another. Such agents are not engaged in interstate commerce and are not under the jurisdiction of Congress.

Yet these decisions indicated that the power to regulate commerce could be so exercised by Congress as to go to the root of the matter. Under modern conditions nearly everything produced on a large scale enters into interstate commerce, and the imposition of a tax on oleomargarine showed how great a power existed over production itself. Accordingly, it was decided to amend the Sherman law in such a way as to avoid the objections raised by the courts, and these amendments are embodied in the bill which the House of Representatives has so emphatically approved. They are to the effect that every corporation, association, or partnership doing business in the United States, producing or dealing in any article of commerce, when formed for the purpose of controlling the production or sale of such article, or "for the purpose of increasing or decreasing the cost of such article of commerce to the user or consumer thereof, or for the purpose of preventing competition in the manufacture, production, or sale thereof," is illegal.

Such illegal organization may be proceeded against by any person whatsoever, or by the United States, and perpetually enjoined from carrying on interstate or foreign commerce. Its members are forbidden to use the mails. No article produced, owned, or dealt in by it shall be transported out of any State by any one. If so transported, it shall be seized and confiscated, unless transported for the use of the consignor or consignee. Any common carrier transporting such articles shall be fined from $500 to $5,000, and its guilty agents shall be fined to the same extent and imprisoned from thirty days to six months. No person shall be excused from testifying or producing evidence on the ground that he will be thereby incriminated; but he shall not be prosecuted on account of any acts concerning which he furnishes evidence. "Every person who shall monopolize, or attempt to monopolize, or combine or conspire with any person or persons to monopolize, any part of the trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations, shall be deemed guilty of a crime," and be punished by a fine of from $500 to $5,000, and by imprisonment for from six months to two years. Trade unions or associations of laborers are specifically exempted from the operation of this statute. There is a further provision that any person injured in his business by a violation of this act shall recover threefold damages, which shall in no case be less than $250, costs, and attorney's fee.

Whatever else may be said of this bill, no one can deny that it is a penal statute of extreme severity. The rule that no one shall be compelled to testify against himself is abrogated in the case of corporations. Their officers can be required to produce evidence of their guilt. The officers may escape punishment as individuals, the members of a firm may avoid fine and imprisonment; but the corporation or the partnership is to be convicted by evidence which it is compelled to furnish by its agents. As it can act only by agents, the principle that accused persons shall be compelled to assist in their own condemnation is distinctly abrogated. This principle has been regarded as eminently salutary, and as essential to the administration of justice under a free government; but the zeal of legislators against the oppressors of the people overleaps all such considerations.

It may be said that a statute of this kind, like most statutes intended to control the conduct of trade, will be ineffectual. No one seriously believes that it will decrease the cost of any article to the consumer. Let us take the case of the Standard Oil Company. It would seem to be possible to prove that this organization was formed either to control the oil business, or to increase or decrease the cost of oil for the purpose of preventing competition. If any organization whatever in the country falls under the condemnation of the statute, it must be this company. If the law has any application, it must apply here. Suppose, then, that the company is found guilty. From that moment practically no oil could be exported; none could pass the boundaries of any State. If the act of Congress signifies anything, it signifies that this state of affairs is deliberately intended. Whatever else may be said of such legislation, it can hardly be considered rational.

GRADUATE STUDY AT OXFORD.

OXFORD, May 15, 1900.

Several years ago, in 1896, the Congregation and Convocation of Oxford University made a first and tentative step towards encouraging the resort of advanced students. This was done by instituting two new degrees, those of Bachelor of Letters and Bachelor of Science (B. Litt. and B. Sc.). This was to be followed, if occasion served, by the establishment of two corresponding Doctorates, one in Science and one in Letters. Such, at least, was the expectation of some of those who voted for the new baccalaureates. At the time, however, the whole question of new Doctor's degrees was purposely left vague. Nothing, in fact,

was certain except a practically unanimous disinclination on all hands to anything like an imitation of the German Ph.D. degree. For such a degree no logical place could be found among the existing degrees or the academical traditions of Oxford.

There is some danger of misconceiving the importance of these new Oxford baccalaureates unless we take into account the traditional status of all Oxford bachelor's degrees except that of B.A. They take their place quite apart from this last, and are parallel to the higher bachelor's degrees severally required at Oxford as the necessary preliminary to each of the old established doctorates. Of these higher Oxford baccalaureates the most widely known is, perhaps, that of Bachelor of Civil Law, which leads up to the D.C.L. just as the Baccalaureate in Medicine leads up to the M.D.

I have advisedly called these Oxford baccalaureates higher baccalaureates because they logically presuppose the B.A. This last is the only bachelor's degree here given to which no doctorate is intimately attached. It leads up in course to the Oxford M.A., which Oxonians regard as their equivalent (so far as they have one) for the German Ph.D. The Oxford B.A., then, has been immemorially required for admission to candidacy for all the higher baccalaureates, and consequently for the doctorates severally connected with these higher baccalaureates. In fact, the only Oxford baccalaureate connected with a special doctorate which has not presupposed the B.A., is that in Music; and no Oxford doctorate is open to Oxford B.A.'s as such, since the degree of Mus. Doc. is to be taken only after qualifying as Mus. Bac., and simply has nothing to do with the B.A.

Thus it appears that the new degrees of B.Sc. and B.Litt. are in reality what would in American parlance be termed "graduate" or "postgraduate" degrees, although the current phrase at Oxford describes them as "research" degrees. This designation is apposite, since serious and well-tested research is very literally insisted upon in the case of each candidate, and a special committee of experts is appointed for each accepted candidate, and overlooks his investigation in order finally to make a formal report upon its merits. This report, in case the candidate is recommended for the degree, is published in the University Gazette. The scrupulous publicity of this procedure is adapted to the circumstance that no degree of any kind is absolutely indispensable for admission to candidacy for the B.Sc. and the B.Litt.; although he must prove himself an exceptional man, of exceptional gifts and training, who can be so admitted without having previously obtained a degree in arts at some university. The reasons for thus leaving the door open for those who may have qualifications for *research*, although they have had no university degree, have practically more to do with the B.Sc. than with the B.Litt. And rightly enough, for it is easy to imagine where and how a candidate for the B.Sc. may have qualified himself for creditable research apart from all university degrees and universities; but the same is hardly so true of possible candidates for the B.Litt.

The new "research" baccalaureates at Oxford have practically shaped themselves into degrees open to those who have elsewhere received an approved education (generally a B.A. degree) enabling them to plan and pursue, under competent supervision, some definite line of research. Furthermore, a definite term of residence in Oxford—two academical years, which cover six months each—is required. This strict requirement of residence is obviously necessary for these higher baccalaureates, although it has not attached to the other parallel baccalaureates, since, for candidacy to the latter, the Oxford B.A., with its well-known requirement of at least three years' residence, has been insisted upon. Having allowed, in the case of the new baccalaureates, the substitution of an approved B.A. taken elsewhere, or of an education otherwise obtained elsewhere, the Oxford authorities were bound to provide for some residence in Oxford.

I have already drawn a parallel between the new "research" baccalaureates and the old established Oxford degree of Bachelor of Civil Law. This parallelism I may now insist upon in connection with the first of the enactments passed on Tuesday last (May 8) by the Congregation of the University of Oxford. Without in any way altering the old established way of taking the Oxford B.C.L., the statutory enactments passed on Tuesday last provide a new avenue of approach to that ancient degree by which, for those who shall have taken a B.A. degree outside of Oxford, it is thrown open on much the same terms made for the new baccalaureates lately established in letters and science. The preamble of the new statute affecting the B.C.L. reads, as it was passed:

"Whereas, it is expedient that the degrees of B.C.L. and D.C.L. should be accessible to persons who, having obtained a degree in arts in other universities, shall study law in this university, although they have not been admitted to the degree of B.A., the University enacts as follows."

The substance of the statute is that any person may supplicate (such is the customary term here) for the degree of Bachelor of Civil Law, although he has not been admitted to the B.A., provided that—

(1.) "Having attained the age of twenty-one years and having obtained a degree in arts in some other university, he shall have satisfied the board of the Faculty of Law of these facts, and also that, having received a good education, he is well qualified to pursue an advanced course of legal study at Oxford."

(2) Relates to technicalities of matriculation.

(3.) "After being so matriculated, he shall have kept statutable residence for eight terms, and during that time shall have occupied himself in hearing lectures or otherwise in the study of law, under the supervision and to the satisfaction of the Board."

(4) Relates to technicalities of examination and honors. After two years' residence and study, that is, a candidate must take honors in the well-established and difficult examination for the D.C.L., which involves a very solid knowledge of Roman law, and indispensably requires a sound knowledge of Latin.

Thus it will be seen that this new way of obtaining the Oxford B.C.L. opens it to B.A.'s of other universities who shall have received a good education. The exceptional case of a man who may show that he has received a good education without having taken any degree in Arts, has no importance here such as it has in the case of the new "research" baccalaureates, because it is not considered that, with no B.A. from any university, a candidate can be "well qualified to pursue an advanced course of legal study at Oxford."

As the result of this new legislation, the old baccalaureate in Civil Law has been made accessible to American students as a "graduate" degree, alongside of the new baccalaureates in Science and Letters, with such differences as naturally arise from the fact that the latter are "research" degrees, whereas the former is for those qualified to pursue the advanced study of Law at Oxford. In one respect, however, the B.C.L. thus thrown open would have had, in the degree of D.C.L., to which it leads in course, a very great advantage over the new "research" baccalaureates, were it not for an important statute touching the latter which was also passed by Convocation on Tuesday last.

As a parallel to the privilege (allowed to all who take the B.C.L.) of proceeding after the statutory interval to the degree of D.C.L., the University has established two new doctorates—one in Letters and one in Science—which are similarly open to Bachelors of Letters and of Science respectively. No further condition of residence attaches to these new doctorates, which are open to a Bachelor of Science or of Letters, who has "had his name on the Books of some College or Hall or on the Register of Non-Collegiate students for twenty-six terms." His eight terms of residence for the baccalaureate being counted out, eighteen terms remain. Thus, rather more than four years after his baccalaureate, a graduate student may come up for his doctorate. He is required in so doing to submit evidence of his "fitness for the degree to the Board of Faculty to which his subject belongs." Such evidence, as the new statute goes on to provide, shall consist of "published papers or books, containing an original contribution to the advancement of learning or science." Of course there are also requirements for the payment of certain fees. All this finds its close parallel in the conditions laid down for those who wish, after taking the B.C.L., to proceed to the D.C.L.

By this legislation the various requirements for Oxford doctorates have been made as far as possible the same. Where, as in the case of the "research" baccalaureate and of the B. C. L., as now thrown open to bachelors in arts from other universities, the Oxford B.A. is not required, then a term of residence attaches to the higher baccalaureate, and thus, indirectly, to the doctorate. Exception is made only in the subject of music, where no residence is required for either degree. A certain rather considerable lapse of time is always insisted upon between every baccalaureate and its corresponding doctorate. This seems to connect itself with a prevalent notion here that it is not well for a man to be called by the solemn name of Doctor until he shall have reached a certain age. This notion of the solemnity of the doctorate may have obtained currency because those Oxford Doctors who have in the past filled the public eye most constantly have been Doctors of Divinity.

However that may be, I have thought your readers would be interested in a somewhat minute account of Oxford provisions for "postgraduate" study, because the resort of Americans doing advanced work has been perceptibly stimulated by the institution of the new "research" baccalaureates. It is accordingly but reasonable to expect that this resort will be further encouraged now that two new doctorates have been established and one old one has been thrown open

to Americans who have not taken the Oxford B.A. degree.

I am borne out in this expectation by the fact that American students now at Oxford have organized themselves as an Oxford American Club, and are doing good work in the dissemination of much-needed information about Oxford among American students. It has been pithily said about the trend towards Germany of American graduate students that "an educational current is harder to change than a street-crossing." At the same time the learned and distinguished American professor from whom this remark fell (I may, perhaps, be forgiven for saying that I allude to Prof. Gildersleeve), was convinced that a little more variety in the sources of their special training was what American culture especially required of those who are to be our experts in the future. It is therefore well that all should know of the new opportunities which Oxford is opening for advanced students in law, literature, and science.

In closing, it is just worth while noting that the statutes above referred to as passed by the Oxford Convocation on Tuesday last, were passed with no dissentient vote. This means that the body of resident and non-resident M.A.'s of Oxford University are practically unanimous in the wish to have graduate studies encouraged here, for it is substantially true to say that no measures of such far-reaching importance could be put through Congregation and Convocation at Oxford, if any influential group of Masters of Arts felt strong objections. The administration of Oxford University is, in fact, ultra-democratic, and rests very really in the hands of Oxford graduates.

LOUIS DYER.

A FEMINIST OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

PARIS, May 17, 1900.

If the study of history made men wiser, how wise we ought to be; for there never was a more serious effort to study our national history, especially in the later periods which form a sort of transition to the present time. There is now at our Collège de France a special chair devoted to the History of the French Revolution. Documents of all sorts are produced every day concerning the troubled times of the end of the last century and the period of the Empire.

I have to notice to-day a voluminous work entitled 'Three Women of the Revolution: Olympe de Gouges, Théroigne de Méricourt, Rose Lacombe,' by M. Léopold Lacour. I do not much like the subtitle he gives to his work: "The Origins of Contemporary Feminism." I should be almost tempted to protest against this new word "feminism," which is hardly French, and which is used now in the press as representing the effort made by certain women to obtain in society a freer use of their natural faculties. M. Lacour tells us that "it is in the French Revolution that we find the true origins of the present feminist movement; for, if the idea of an intellectual equality between man and woman much antedates the Revolution, if it precedes even Christianity, it was only from the day when the Rights of Man were proclaimed and the great hope of the emancipation of man dawned upon the world, that a doctrine of the parallel emancipation of women could emerge." Every student of French history knows what an important part women have played in it; even yesterday I saw before the Church of St. Augustine the erection of a new statue to Joan of Arc, an admirable and almost sublime work of Paul Dubois (so well known by the statues which adorn the tomb of Lamoricière, a copy of which is to be seen in the present Exposition). We have all heard of the influence of Catherine de Médicis, of the great ladies of the Fronde, of Madame de Maintenon, of Madame de Pompadour, of the ladies of the eighteenth century who were the associates of the philosophers.

The women chosen by M. Léopold Lacour as the representatives of modern feminism do not throw much credit on the cause which has adopted this name. The most interesting of them, or, if you prefer, the least repulsive, is Olympe de Gouges. She was born in Montauban, May 7, 1748, and was therefore more than forty years old when the French Revolution broke out. Her putative father was a butcher, her real father was the Marquis Le Franc de Pompignan, who was a poet and often became the butt of Voltaire. She married before she was twenty an old man "who was neither rich nor well-born"—a cook, in fact, as appears from the birth certificate of her son, Pierre Aubry. She left the conjugal home and began a life of adventure. She told as much as she chose of this new life in a 'Memoir of Madame de Valmont.' We may, says M. Lacour, represent Olympe de Gouges, in her short married life, as a Mme. Bovary of the South. Once free and in Paris, she led the existence of what we should call now a "demi-mondaine." She made money, and had some relations with literary society and even with the world. She knew the Duke d'Orléans, and we read in the "Œuvres de la Citoyenne de Gouges, dédiées à Philippe, 1793," these words: "I shall, Philippe, in the end, withdraw the homage which I have paid to you in my works. . . . I have had nothing in particular with you." These words imply that she had not been among the Duke's mistresses.

She became, when about thirty-four, a woman of letters, and wrote several dramas which had but a moderate success. She was a protégée of Mercier, author of the 'Tableau de Paris,' but could not win Beaumarchais. She wrote incessantly novels, plays, political pamphlets; she pretended to be one of the prophets and leaders of the Revolution. "Nobody is ignorant," she says in one of her writings, "that I was the first to raise publicly a voice against despotism." Mirabeau wrote her a polite note, on receiving one of her books. She really played the part of the "Mouche du Coche" in La Fontaine's fable.

When the States-General met at Versailles, her enthusiasm knew no bounds. "Leaving committees, gossip, plays, actors, actresses, I contemplate nothing except the public good." She observed some moderation in politics. "To save the country we must keep the three orders, . . . and what does it matter to the King, or to the citizen, or to the unfortunate people, that deliberation should be carried by heads or by orders?" The three orders, however, met together in the National Assembly. Olympe de Gouges still was, as M. Lacour remarks, a woman of the old régime. "The Revolution attracts her and charms her; she goes very far in advance on some special points, but the old monarchical and aristocratic society has imbued her imagination with the charm which Talleyrand immortalized when he spoke of the pleasure of living in the brilliant years that preceded 1789." She is of the people, but she is equally an aristocrat; she belongs to the eighteenth century. The emigration of the princes and the events which followed, made her very unhappy; by degrees, however, she felt more in harmony with the revolutionary feeling. When the King fled to Varennes, she became suddenly republican; she called him a traitor; his arrest at Varennes and his return to Paris seemed to her an irreparable misfortune. When the great trial of the King began, she had the singular idea of writing to the Convention a letter which is kept under glass in the Museum of the Archives, and which deserves to be read.

"CITIZEN PRESIDENT:

"The universe has its eyes on the trial of the last King of the French . . . I offer myself, with the courageous Malesherbes, as a defender of Louis. Take no notice of my sex; heroism and generosity are also attributes of women, and the Revolution offers more than one example of it. I am a frank and loyal republican, without blemish or reproach; nobody doubts it, even those who feign to disbelieve my civic virtues. I can therefore undertake this task.

"I believe Louis guilty *as King:* but take from him this proscribed title, and he ceases to be guilty in the eyes of the Republic. His ancestors filled the measure of the misfortunes of France; unfortunately the cup was broken in his hand. . . ."

The latter is very long, rambling, and rhetorical, but on the whole it does credit to the writer's feelings, and, in a sense, to her logic. Her opinion was that Louis XVI. ought to be dethroned and exiled, but not executed. In vain did she preach moderation to the parties. "Mountain, Plain, Rolandists, Brissotins, Girondists, Robespierrists, Maratists, infamous epithets, I wish you to disappear"; so she said in her "Pressing Appeal to the Convention." The Terror was to her an object of horror, as well as its instrument the guillotine. She had dreamed of a philosophical revolution, not of a perpetual massacre. She gave in her 'Phantoms of Public Opinion' a picture of Marat which drew upon her the hatred of the monster: "No physiognomy ever bore more horribly the mark of crime. From whatever side you look at him, you see it in his visage, as you see grace in the face of a pretty woman." She spent all the money she had in pamphlets and placards. She hated Robespierre even more than Marat, and boldly denounced him in a pamphlet.

One of her reproaches to the Revolution was its doing nothing to improve the social condition of women. She had written on the question of women's rights before 1789; she tried afterwards to win over Mirabeau to her ideas. Among the papers of the great orator was found after his death a "Report on Public Education," in which he touched on the question of the education of women, but not in a way that would have pleased Olympe de Gouges. She expressed her own views in 1791 in a "Declaration of the Rights of Women and of Women-Citizens." There were in this declaration seventeen articles. The first was thus conceived: "Woman is born free, and has equal rights with men. Social distinction can be founded only on general utility." Article 6 says: "The law ought to be the expression of the general will. All citizens, men and women, being

equal in the eyes of the law, ought to concur personally or through their representatives in its formation. It ought to be equal for all. All citizens, men and women, ought to be equally admissible to all dignities, places, public employments according to their capacities, and without any other distinctions than those of their virtues and their talents." In article 11 she asks that paternity should be allowed to be ascertained. She considered marriage, as instituted, as the tomb of confidence and love, and proposed a new "social contract of man and woman." The contractors were at liberty to put their fortunes in common, but were at liberty to separate them not only in favor of their children, but of such as might issue "from a particular inclination." Marriage, in fact, was reconciled with adultery. Perhaps we might rather say that adultery ceased to exist. She wrote in January, 1793, a play called "Dumouriez's Entry into Brussels," in which she extolled feminism in the persons of the two sisters Fernig who made the campaign in Dumouriez's army, the General saying of them that "they were even more extraordinary for their chastity and their virtue than for their courage." The piece had only two representations. On the 20th of July, 1793, Olympe de Gouges was arrested. She had just issued a pamphlet called 'The Three Urns,' in which she proposed a plébiscite on these three solutions: "republican government one and indivisible; federal government; monarchical government." There was a revolutionary law which pronounced capital punishment on all who should print a book or pamphlet provoking the reëstablishment of monarchy. Olympe had herself sealed her fate. She was kept in prison three months and guillotined on the 3d of November.

M. Lacour's two other biographies might as well not have been written. The first concerns the famous Théroigne de Méricourt, who was one of the furies of the Revolution. She was half mad all her life, and ended her days in a madhouse. Her beauty and her eccentricity gave her a reputation which began at the storming of the Bastille and increased during the days of the Terror. Her name has survived among all the dark names of that period. The same cannot be said of Rose Lacombe, whom M. Léopold Lacour should have left forgotten.

Correspondence.

GER-FALCON GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Certainly the most famous authority in the government of insular possessions is Don Quixote, yet, so far as I am aware, not one of our statesmen, in or out of Congress, has cited him. In praising Sancho Panza to the Duke and Duchess, and commending his qualifications for Governor, the Don says: "We know already by ample experience that it does not require much cleverness or much learning to be a governor, for there are a hundred round about us that scarcely know how to read, and govern like ger-falcons." On this, Ormsby has the following note: "To govern like a ger-falcon is a similitude repeatedly used by Don Quixote and Sancho. The precise drift is not very obvious. In the slang of the Germania, *gerfalte* means a robber." Really is it not "so plain there is nothing to puzzle over"? As an eagle was for an emperor, so a ger-falcon was for a king; and so also a ger-falcon is a bird of prey. Would not the "precise drift" of this puzzling similitude mean that ger-falcon government is nothing more nor less than bird-of-prey government? Neely in Cuba put in practice the ger-falcon or bird-of-prey theory of government. And there are others, if credence may be given Dame Rumor.

Taking the standard described by the Don and Neely's example, the question of governing our new possessions is anything but the difficult problem that the "little Americans" who still adhere to the antiquated teachings of Washington and Jefferson and Lincoln declare it to be.

Alfales Young.

Salt Lake City, June 1, 1900.

HONEST, BUT NOT TRUTHFUL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am sure you could not intentionally do injustice to this community or its people, and that you will thank me for saying that your correspondent "Honesty" has used the last number of the *Nation*, ignorantly or maliciously, for the purpose of misrepresenting the city of Charleston.

He says that the trade of this city "has practically become extinct." The value of its trade last year was more than $100,000,000. It is now, and has been for years, the largest manufacturing centre of commercial fertilizers in the world. It is the fifth cotton port in the United States.

It is not true that the Senators and Representatives in Congress from this State have been influenced in their action in any degree by the vote of Charleston, which, under the rules of the Democratic party, has *not* "the largest voting population of any [city] in the State." The fact is, they do not need this vote and have not sought it.

It is not true that the work of improving the navigation of Charleston harbor was a "job" on the part of the people of this city; nor is it true that this work has ever called for an appropriaion of $4,000,000. The construction of the jetties at Charleston was recommended by Gen. Q. A. Gillmore of the United States Army, and not one cent appropriated for the prosecution of this work has been diverted from its purpose, or employed for the enrichment of dishonest contractors here or elsewhere.

It is not true that "this improved means of communication necessitated in the minds of the inhabitants [of Charleston] a new Custom-house." No new Custom-house has been built in Charleston since the war of 1861-65. In March, 1847, an Act was passed by Congress authorizing the erection of the present Custom-house building here, the site was purchased by the Government in 1849, and the work of construction began in 1851, and was nearly finished when the war started in 1861. All that has been expended on the Custom-house since the war has been enough to make it habitable and to keep it in a generally bad state of repair.

The new post-office was built because the old post-office was not large enough for the increasing business of the city and the efficiency of the service, and the new building is a United States court-house as well as post-office. The postal business has increased so much that the salary of the Postmaster, which is regulated by the volume of business, has been increased within the last few months.

It is not true that the Exposition to be held in Charleston next year is to be "a one-horse show." Its capital stock will be $250,000, one-half of which has already been raised by popular subscription.

It is not true that "the impertinence of this town reached its climax when its begging committee boldly demanded from its pliant and servile Senator, aided by the Secretary of the Navy," the removal of the naval station from Port Royal to Charleston. The Secretary of the Navy has been authorized by Congress to make an examination of the conditions existing at Port Royal and Charleston, and to remove the naval station to Charleston if such removal be found desirable in the public interest. It is not true that there is a "splendid navy-yard at Port Royal," or a "magnificent Port Royal navy-yard," or that "its dry-dock . . . is able to accommodate the largest vessel in the navy," etc. The chief of the Navy Bureau of Yards and Docks called, in his last report, for about $854,000 for the purpose of reconstructing and repairing the dry-dock and improving the naval station at Port Royal.

"Honesty" has not told the truth in substance or detail from the beginning to the end of his communication.

J. C. Hemphill,
Editor of the *News and Courier*.

Charleston, May 28, 1900.

ROGER WILLIAMS AND SIR THOMAS URQUHART.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several years ago, in glancing through the edition of the Works of Sir Thomas Urquhart published by the Maitland Club in 1834, my eye fell on a passage in which that eccentric genius acknowledged his obligations to Roger Williams. It is well known that Williams left this country for England in November, 1651, that he was back here again in July, 1654, and that during his sojourn in England he was on terms of more or less intimacy with Cromwell, Milton, Sir Henry Vane, Hugh Peters, Thomas Harrison, Henry Lawrence, and other persons of note. But to find the founder of Providence in relations with the Knight of Cromarty was unexpected and singular.

"After the fatal blow given at Worcester, on the 3d of September, 1651, to the royal partie," wrote Urquhart himself, in the Epistle Dedicatorie to his 'Logopandecteision, or an Introduction to the Universal Language,' published in 1653, "I was five times plundered, pillaged, pilfred, robbed, and rifled, and nothing almost left me, fortune could despoil me of, save my health alone" (*Works*, pp. 299-300). From the 'Calendar of State Papers, Domestic Series,' we learn that on September 16 he was committed to Windsor Castle as close prisoner; that on September 25 a committee was to "examine him, and receive what he has to offer for the advantage of this nation, and report"; that on October 3 he was "continued upon his parole to appear at Council *de die in diem*"; that on July 14, 1652, liberty was to be given to him "to repair to Scotland, on security to return in five months, and not to act to the prejudice of the commonwealth"; that on December 16 "six

weeks' more time" was to be allowed him, "dating from the expiration of his present leave of absence"; and that on February 14, 1653, he craved "the giving up of his bonds, and after that his enlargement." A petition from him is recorded under date of June 4, 1653, after which his name disappears from the Calendars, and nothing farther is known of him except the tradition that he died in a fit of laughter on hearing of the Restoration.

The Postscript to the work quoted above is dated February 5, 1652-3. In the Epilogue he states: that "I whilst a prisoner was able to digest and write this Treatise, is an effect meerly proceeding from the courtesie of my Lord General Cromwel, by whose recommendation to the Councel of State my parole being taken for my true imprisonment, I was by their favour enlarged to the extent of the lines of London's communication." He acknowledges his indebtedness to "that most generous gentleman Captain Gladmon, for speaking in my favour to my Lord General," and to "the Marshal-General, Capt. Alsop"; and then winds up as follows:

"The enumeration of these aforesaid courtesies will not permit me to forget my thankfulness to that reverend preacher, Mr. Roger Williams of Providence in New England, for the manifold favours wherein I stood obliged to him above a whole month before either of us had so much as seen other, and that by his frequent and earnest solicitation in my behalf of the most special members both of the Parliament and Councel of State; in doing whereof he appeared so truely generous, that when it was told him how I, having got notice of his so undeserved respect towards me, was desirous to embrace some sudden opportunity whereby to testifie the affection I did owe him, he purposely delayed the occasion of meeting with me till he had, as he said, performed some acceptable office worthy of my acquaintance; in all which, both before and after we had conversed with one another, and by those many worthy books set forth by him, to the advancement of piety and good order, with some whereof he was pleased to present me, he did approve himself a man of such discretion and inimitably-sanctified parts, that an Archangel from heaven could not have shewn more goodness with less ostentation" (*Works*, pp. 408-409).

Williams's services must have been rendered between November, 1651, and February, 1653, and so, presumably, had reference to the liberty granted Urquhart to repair to Scotland. But what was it that led "that reverend preacher" of Providence, even before seeing Urquhart, to exert himself on behalf of the translator of Rabelais? Perhaps some of your readers can throw light on the matter. ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, June 1, 1900.

THE ANTIQUITY OF CHESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly permit me to call the attention of your correspondent, "L. N. D.," to the monumental works of the Dutch investigator (recently deceased), Dr. Antonius van der Linde, to wit, his 'Geschichte des Schachspiels' (two volumes, Berlin, 1874), 'Quellenstudien zur Geschichte des Schachspiels' (Berlin, 1881), and 'Das Schachspiel des XVI. Jahrhunderts' (Berlin, 1874)? Dr. van der Linde, like all iconoclastic explorers and reformers, indulges a little too abundantly in drastic and objurgatory criticism of his less successful predecessors, but there can be no doubt about his thoroughness and the general accuracy of his results. He was aided, too, so far as Eastern chess is concerned, by Weber, Gildemeister, and other notable Orientalists of the present generation. Especially interesting to "L. N. D." will be the exhaustive contribution to the first-named work (I., pp. 155-202) by the Hebraist, M. Steinschneider (traces of whose industry are likewise found in other portions of the two volumes), entitled 'Schach bei den Juden.' Another scholarly and judicially critical production is 'Zur Geschichte und Literatur des Schachspiels' (Leipzig, 1897), by the late Tassilo von Heydebrand und der Lasa, better known as Tassilo von der Lasa. Its author was the foremost alike of chess analysts and chess littérateurs, consecrating the leisure hours of a long diplomatic career to the gathering of his remarkable chess library, to seeking out and editing the chess treasures of the book collections of Europe, and to patient and profound studies in the arcana of chess practice; the astonishing German 'Handbuch des Schachspiels,' begun by P. R. von Bilguer, being, in all its editions, essentially his work. Von der Lasa's final contribution to chess-letters is as charming externally as it is valuable internally. In it he brushes away, sure-handed, from the history of chess, the dusty cobwebs of the past, and substitutes certainty for supposition, fact for myth.

The conclusions of these two arduous and accurate students as to the beginnings of chess may be summed up in a sentence: *Before the seventh century of our era the existence of chess, in any land, is not demonstrable by a single shred of contemporary or trustworthy documentary evidence.* Down to that date it is all impenetrable darkness, nor can any ingenuity evoke, from the misty fables of later times, a solitary gleam of light. W. F.

FLORENCE, ITALY, May 18, 1900.

Notes.

The Shakspere Press, Westfield, Union County, N. J., is printing the thirteenth of the publications of the Shakspere Society of New York, viz., 'A Catalogue of the Words Used but Once in the Shakspere Plays, with Notes of their Occurrence in the Poems,' to which is prefixed a reprint of the first English Grammar (1586). The impression will be of 250 copies only. A new edition of the Society's 'Digesta Shakespereana' is also being subscribed for.

The Century Co. will issue directly 'Problems of Expansion,' by Whitelaw Reid, being addresses since the author's participation in the Peace conference at Paris. They also make the interesting announcement that they will publish 'Plain Printing Types,' by Theodore L. De Vinne, founder of the De Vinne Press, and printer of the *Century Magazine* and 'The Century Dictionary.' It will make a volume of 400 pages—the first in a series of treatises on the practice of typography—will contain an illustrated description of the tools, processes, and systems of type-making, the names and descriptions of all sizes of book types, a sketch of the history of type-founding, and numerous exhibits of the more important styles of Roman, italic, black, and display letter, and tables of the classes and prices of type here and in Europe. The book will appeal especially to printers and editors, and students of the art of typography.

A posthumous novel by Grant Allen, 'Hilda Wade,' completed by his friend, Dr. Conan Doyle, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'The Wall Street Point of View,' by Henry Clews, will be issued this month by Silver, Burdett & Co.

The indefatigable London house of Dent has initiated a new series of attractive volumes out of the common line, under the general title of "Illustrated English Poems," and is publishing them here through E. P. Dutton & Co. The form is a small quarto, and for each volume of the three before us a separate designer is employed. Mr. Ernest Rhys is the editor, and furnishes a pleasant introduction on the history and interpretation of the particular piece. Of the illustrators, Mr. Laurence Housman's task was much the most difficult, being to supply a graphic symbolism to Shelley's 'Sensitive Plant.' The frontispiece and the succeeding plate are almost the only ones at once decorative and possessed of beauty. Mr. Paul Woodroffe fares better with the 'Songs from the Plays of Shakspere,' being graceful throughout, particularly in his headpieces. Noticeably effective is the breezy, springlike conception of "When shepherds pipe on oaten straws," with its charming border, one among many. To Mr. Charles E. Brock fell Cowper's 'John Gilpin,' which he has treated in a manner that recalls Caldecott, and with a sufficiency of action and invention. The series has begun well.

Caxton's 'Golden Legend,' in two volumes, and Goldsmith's 'Citizen of the World,' likewise in two, are the latest additions to the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics." Mr. F. S. Ellis has looked after the former, venturing to correct a few senseless renderings of printer's errors in Caxton's French original; while Mr. Austin Dobson has supplied the notes to Goldsmith.

A fresh reprint of Butcher and Lang's prose version of the 'Odyssey' and of Lang and Leaf's prose version of the 'Iliad' has been called for (Macmillan), the eleventh and the ninth respectively for the earlier and the later of these "classical" productions. There seems now little likelihood of competition in the coming century, for time-honored will soon be the epithet superadded to that of surpassing.

As the written letter abides, 'Stalky & Co.' must even enter into the uniform "Outward Bound" edition of Kipling's Works (Scribners). So must the volume of 'Early Verse,' and the second part of 'From Sea to Sea.' The 'Early Verse' is offset by three characteristic plastic illustrations by the elder Kipling, of which the frontispiece suggests the apotheosis of the ape, but is really the unevolutionary whimsy of the poet that the ape was the Devil's best contemporary counterfeit of the creation of man.

'The Collapse of the Kingdom of Naples' (New York: Bonnell, Silver & Co.) gives the best popular account in English of the last days of King Bomba and the downfall of the Neapolitan Bourbons after Garibaldi's expedition in 1860. Mr. Whitehouse has evidently explored to good purpose much of the material concerning this episode, and he leaves the impression of being unprejudiced. Wherever a good word can honestly be said for the cruel Ferdinand or his vacillating

son he says it, and he discriminates between the sheep and the goats among Garibaldi's followers. Whoever reads this story intelligently will not fail to perceive that, allowing for local variations, the methods of the Bourbon Camorra and of the rings which have throttled our large cities are identical in purpose. Mr. Whitehouse, who was recently attached to the American Legation at Rome, is already known as the author of a life of King Amadeo of Spain. The substance of his present work is so good that one regrets occasional lapses of style and the lack of an index.

Dr. Orello Cone has edited, and the Macmillan Co. have published (London: Adam & Charles Black), a volume of Prof. Pfleiderer's essays and addresses, a majority of which are translated by Dr. Cone, and so well that we do not seem to be reading translations. Pfleiderer is one of a small minority of German scholars who, like Strauss and Schopenhauer, know how to write as well as how to think. Dr. Cone has not overrated these various expressions of his thought. The first, "Evolution and Theology," is a searching criticism of that "half-way compact with science" which is characteristic of the progressive orthodoxy of our time. Pfleiderer claims for the older orthodoxy a more logical consistency than the new exhibits, while his demand is for a more absolutely scientific interpretation of history, including early Christianity. "Theology and Historical Science" was written for Prof. Pfleiderer's inauguration as Rector of the University of Berlin. It is an admirable account of the development of German theology from the time of Wolff till now. Particularly interesting and valuable is the estimate of F. C. Baur, at whom third-rate American theologians sometimes sneer as a critic of exploded fame. They declare his *Tendenz* criticism of the New Testament to have been à-priori Hegelian metaphysics. Prof. Pfleiderer shows that it had no root in Hegel whatsoever. The most attractive, if not the most important, of the other articles are "Luther as the Founder of Protestant Civilization" and "National Traits of the Germans as Seen in their Religion." At every step one feels himself guided by an intelligence of preëminent ability.

Mr. John Burroughs's newest book, 'The Light of Day' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), contains much that is trite or has been better put by others. What it argues for in the main is not the vanity of religion, but the insufficiency and unsatisfactoriness of a supernatural theology. Mr. Burroughs has too fine a wit and is too good a writer to get through his 224 pages without making many vivid comments on the subject which he has in hand. From his "Waiting," the only poem he has written, which he uses for a foreword, and his mystical rhapsody "The Divine Ship," with which he concludes, there is little or no abatement to be made.

The belated Exposition has been overtaken by the guide-books, and one sure to be in request and to be serviceable is 'Exhibition (1900), Paris,' published in France by Hachette, in London by Heinemann, and in New York by F. A. Stokes Co. It is a manageable volume, divided between general information for the tourist and special for the Exposition; freely illustrated, as with members of the French Academy, actors and actresses, artists (with Caran d'Ache, caricaturist, and Chéret, designer of posters), and even of some of the eminent physicians recommended in case of need. The seating of theatres is also shown, and the proprietors of this guide supply a detachable order for seats at Sara Bernhardt's new theatre, to witness the performance of Rostand's "L'Aiglon"—a neat arrangement. The Paris dictionary is very complete, and a folded map directs the stranger. Under the rubric Amusements, one learns that ladies who are fond of being their own motor-drivers are called *chauffeuses*.

The ninth volume of 'Le Opere di Galileo Galilei,' recently published by Barbèra in Florence, reveals a new phase of the intellectual life and character of the illustrious savant, namely, his love and fine appreciation of Italian literature, and his own poetic productivity. Algarotti, in the last century, called attention to his excellent taste and critical acumen as a man of letters, but it is to the diligent researches of Prof. Favaro that we are now indebted for the materials which are collected in the present large quarto of 297 pages, and which enable the reader to form an independent judgment on this point. First, we have an address delivered before the Florentine Academy of Sciences on the topography and configuration of the "Inferno" in Dante's 'Divina Commedia.' There are also comments on Ariosto, two unfinished plays, poems, and other more or less fragmentary productions written in Galileo's youth, and a Latin version of a speech of Isocrates.

Prof. Dörpfeld advances the interesting theory that the Ithaca of Homer and classic literature is not the island known by that name at present, but Leucas, lying farther north. The ground for this view is the fact that the present Ithaca contains no remains whatever of the Homeric period of civilization, although Schliemann and, recently, Dörpfeld have searched for signs of "the palace of Ulysses." Homer states that four islands constituted the group of which Ithaca was the most northern, but does not mention Leucas. Excavations, made possible by the liberality of a Dutch gentleman particularly interested in the interpretation of Homer, will now be undertaken by Dörpfeld on this island. The present identification was at least suggested by Prof. Draheim of Berlin as early as 1844.

An English missionary has recently given an account of the manner in which the King of Toro, on embracing Christianity, set free the slaves in his dominions. Another illustration of the determination of the people of these regions not to tolerate slavery is given by Bishop Tucker in a letter dated February 23 from Uganda. In it he tells of the attempt of a German trader to carry off a party of pigmies from the Great Forest to be shown at the Paris Exposition. On a protest being made, the captives were immediately set at liberty. This and another similar incident, says the Bishop, tend to show "how much further advanced we are in Central Africa in our notion of freedom than are the authorities in the Coast Protectorate," or in Zanzibar, where slavery still exists.

For the first time in its history of two hundred years, the Berlin Royal Academy of Sciences, the leading organization of its kind in Germany, has made a woman an honorary member. This choice fell on Frau Maria Elizabeth Wentzel-Herrmann, who some time ago gave the Academy the sum of 1,500,000 marks to be used for special scientific purposes. One of the fruits of this gift is the new critical edition of the Greek Church Fathers, of which two volumes have appeared. The donor is the daughter of the banker and manufacturer Wentzel and the widow of the architect Herrmann, both men of pronounced scholarly attainments.

Johan Carl Christian Brosböll, better known under his pseudonym Carit Etlar, the most popular recent Danish writer, died on May 9, near Copenhagen. Brosböll was born in Fredericia on August 7, 1816. His first novel, 'A Smuggler's Son,' was published in 1838, and his last book appeared in 1899, when he was in his eighty-fourth year. During the sixty years of his authorship Carit Etlar produced an immense number of historical romances, plays, and short stories. In his choice and treatment of subjects he suggests Dumas *père*, but there is no slavish imitation. In all his works he is thoroughly Danish, and much of his popularity among his countrymen is undoubtedly due to his strong national instinct. This appears especially in his stories dealing with Jutish peasant life, by which it is believed he will be longest remembered in Danish literature.

—*Harper's* for June contains an elaborate article on "Balloons in War," by Gen. A. W. Greely, with illustrations. The main points brought out are that the balloon has become a recognized military engine, and that if it could be made dirigible, its importance would be almost infinitely increased. At a distance of four miles and a height of 2,000 feet, a balloon is "absolutely safe" from the enemy, while it can be used as a means of ascertaining accurately his numbers and position. Even now, military operations are often conducted under the condition of being out of the range of hostile balloon observation; but with dirigibility, such observation could not be avoided, and each army would have the means at hand of knowing all that was to be known about the other. Gen. Greely does not undertake to predict what the strategical consequences of this would be, but it would seem, with Jomini opposed to Jomini, as if the proper strategical course would be for the army theoretically outgeneralled to surrender on the spot. Thus the improvement of balloons would tend to the diminution of bloodshed. But it may be suggested, on the other hand, that the moment balloons become dirigible, they will cease to be temporary observatories with a telegraphic attachment, and will be directed against each other, thus making the air a preliminary scene of conflict. However, such matters, like Tennyson's prevision in "Locksley Hall," are as yet speculative. Thus far, the balloon is rather an adjunct than a determining factor in war. Gen. Greely's account of the use of the balloon in our civil war is especially interesting, and is compiled almost entirely from a forthcoming publication of the War Records Office—the report of Mr. T. S. C. Lowe, the aeronaut who was at the head of this branch of the service during the Rebellion.

—Mr. W. J. Stillman's autobiography continues to be the most substantial contribution to literature in the *Atlantic*. In his sixth instalment he gives one or two anecdotes of his intercourse with Ruskin and others which are curious and characteristic —all the more valuable because they are not brought in to point a moral. Mr. Stillman had painted a study from nature on Saranac

Lake, in which he introduced, for human interest, a dead deer and man. Ruskin, on seeing it, said in a tone of extreme disgust, "What do you put that stuff in for? Take it out; it stinks!" Such was the painter's reverence for Ruskin's opinions that he painted out, without hesitation, "the central motive of the picture." When Rossetti saw the result, he said, "You have spoiled your picture," and walked out of the room. Finally, after vainly trying to remove the pigment which hid the figures, he "cut the picture up and stuck it in the fire." On another occasion, on a sketching excursion, Ruskin asked him to draw some huts—too much like "shanties," the American thought, to be worth drawing. He accordingly made "a slipshod five minutes' sketch," upon which Ruskin was angry, saying that "the fact that he wanted it done ought to have been enough." To this Mr. Stillman replied that he could see no interest in the subject, "which only suggested fever and discomfort and wretched habitations for human beings." After a moody silence Ruskin suddenly broke out with, "You were right, Stillman, about those cottages; your way of looking at them was nobler than mine, and now, for the first time in my life, I understand how anybody can live in America." Edwin Burritt Smith's "The Municipal Voters' League of Chicago" we have already drawn attention to. Charles A. Conant's "Recent Economic Tendencies" illustrates the general flux of economic dogma which is nowadays "on tap" in the magazines. Mr. Conant is, without knowing it, a reactionary, impregnated with the philosophy of "mercantilism," which he seems to think has been hitherto misunderstood—though every encyclopædia gives substantially the same account of it as his. From paternalism we have emerged, and back to paternalism we are being gently led by the heralds of the new dawn.

—The fourth edition of 'A Study in the Warwickshire Dialect,' by Appleton Morgan, is a recent publication of the New York Shakspere Society's Press. A vast number of words which were in general use in the Elizabethan period of English have survived only in the dialects, and form the backbone of the present dialect vocabularies of England and Scotland, as will be apparent from a glance at Dr. Wright's 'Dialect Dictionary.' Mr. Morgan, unaware of this fact, has compiled a rough glossary of modern Warwickshire words, and, arguing in his usual astounding way, has attempted to prove that "Venus and Adonis" was not written by Shakspere, because it does not contain these modern "Warwickshire" words; for Shakspere must have come to London an uneducated Warwickshire peasant, and must have spoken a dialect that was as different from London English as Burns's speech is different from Standard New English! Such Warwickshire words are found in the plays (we are not told how the ignorance of the Warwickshire peasant so suddenly disappears); ergo, Shakspere did not write "Venus and Adonis." Nor did he write the Sonnets, though we are not told whether these "Warwickshire" words "engrafted on English speech by Shakspere" occur in the Sonnets or not. As a contribution to our knowledge of the dialect of Warwickshire, the book is valueless, because so unscientific; the accurate work of Ellis on the subject seems to be unknown to the author. The chapter on the pronunciation of Shakspere shows Mr. Morgan to be unfamiliar with Middle English; his representation of sounds shows that he does not understand grammar — *e. g.*, he refers to the dropping of medial *h* in *nothing!* Indeed, the colossal ignorance of the book is equalled only by its sophistry. The fact that it should reach a fourth edition is painful evidence that the educators of this country have much to do in the way of diffusing an elementary knowledge of English speech among people not professionally concerned in the study of it.

—Such proportions has the rubber industry reached that the raw product amounts to over 125 million pounds per annum, which, taking the average of all grades, will have a value at the points of shipment of as much as fifty million dollars. There are few agricultural ventures to-day more attractive to capitalists, large and small, than rubber planting. It seems to be an absolutely sure thing, as steady a source of wealth as an olive orchard, with the conspicuous advantage of beginning to yield in about eight years. Whatever one may choose to inquire concerning rubber—the raw material, that is—will find its answer in 'All About Rubber and Gutta-Percha,' compiled by J. Ferguson, editor of the *Ceylon Observer* (Colombo: A. M. & J. Ferguson). The botany of the rubber-producing plants of the world; the chemistry of India-rubber and other gums; methods of collecting, preparing for market, and shipment; exhaustive details of experiments in rubber culture wherever attempted; and many curious circumstances besides, are here packed in small type into 327 pages, which are all valuable. Rubber culture was first scientifically undertaken by the indefatigable Dr. Trimen of the Botanical Gardens at Peradeniya, in 1876. In 1897, Ceylon boasted 250,000 trees of the superior Brazilian sort (*Hevea brasiliensis*). These yielded an average of one pound and a half per tree, fifty trees being planted to the acre. The profits work out in a manner worthy of the finest schemes of Col. Sellers. Fortunately for Brazil, very little of the East possesses the soil, climate, and other conditions necessary for such an overpowering competition as has swept the cinchona-bark industry entirely away from the South Americans. It is interesting to observe that the tendency is toward the introduction of machinery and chemical operations, requiring more or less technical skill, even into the coagulation of the fresh milk or sap; and some companies are using centrifugal machines, such as are employed in dairies, for separating the rubber from the latex without coagulation.

—Dr. Richard M. Meyer's 'Die Deutsche Litteratur des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts' is the third volume in the impressive series, "Das Neunzehnte Jahrhundert in Deutschlands Entwicklung" (Berlin: Bondi; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), begun so auspiciously last year with Ziegler's survey of the social and intellectual tendencies of the last hundred years. As was to be expected from the indefatigable investigator and refined connoisseur to whom we owe what is probably the most penetrating study of Goethe's poetic development, the book is a wonder of industry, a monument of stupendous knowledge, and a veritable storehouse of keen observations. As, in Dr. Meyer's Goethe biography, every single drama or novel of Goethe's seemed to call up memories of all his other dramas and novels; as, in every one of Goethe's poetic characters, all his other creations seemed reflected, so in this survey of German literature from Jean Paul to Gerhart Hauptmann, every single author and every single production seem to bring before us all other authors and productions of the nineteenth century, even those which are apparently unrelated: Keller calls up Amadeus Hoffman; Fontane, Auerbach; Anzengruber's 'Pfarrer von Kirchfeld,' Gutzkow's 'Uriel Acosta,' etc., etc. It is this wellnigh inexhaustible wealth of detail, everpresent in the author's mind and applied by his agile imagination in a thousand different ways, which gives the book an extraordinary suggestiveness, and which lends, particularly to the characterizations of the leading figures, such as Heine, Hebbel, Keller, Storm, Heyse, Hauptmann, a remarkable freshness and vivacity. It cannot, however, be denied that in this very excellence there lies at the same time the fundamental weakness of Dr. Meyer's work. It is altogether devoid of sweep. How is it possible to represent adequately the literary development of a century, if (as is done here) this development is chopped up into ten chapters, each chapter corresponding exactly to a decade? That is not the method of the true historian, but of the chronicler; it is not the manner of a painter, but of the worker in mosaic. And this is precisely the category in which Dr. Meyer's book belongs. It is a colossal mosaic, filled with countless figures, small and great, each of them worked out with greatest skill, each of them lifelike and well defined, each of them (or at least each group of them) engaged in an action of its own; but there is no one action that binds all these groups together, there is no central conception that gives them artistic unity. Dr. Meyer is a master in the minute; as a picture of literary development, his book is disappointing.

PENNYPACKER'S GERMANTOWN.

The Settlement of Germantown, Pennsylvania, and the Beginning of German Emigration to North America. By Hon. Samuel Whitaker Pennypacker, LL.D., President Judge of the Philadelphia Court of Common Pleas No. 2, and Senior Vice-President of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: William J. Campbell. Pp. 310. 300 copies, printed from type.

At Germantown, which is now a ward of the city of Philadelphia and the residential quarter of many wealthy Philadelphians, where there are to be seen many quaint and even beautiful examples of the architecture and landscape gardening of the last century, was illustrated in a peculiar way the meeting of several of the Old World currents that have united to make America. The influences leading to the settlement of Germantown were a blending of Germany, Holland, and England in their origin. These influences Judge Pennypacker traces to their sources in different European countries through rare volumes and unknown pamphlets and manuscripts in the Dutch, German, English, Latin, and other languages, the material being drawn largely from the author's own library, which is well known to American collectors of rare books.

The story of the settlement of German-

town has been told partially before by Prof. Seidensticker and other annalists, but thirty years of research on both sides of the ocean have given Judge Pennypacker possession of much original material not possessed by other writers, and some of his chapters are new in their entirety. While from the nature of the work there are many details in regard to the personages and development of the settlement that possess only a family or local interest, there are also reasons why the narrative claims a far wider attention. Among the causes making the settlement and its history matters of a broader scope than the confines of Germantown or the State of Pennsylvania, or than the mere racial interest felt by all German-Americans in the beginning of German emigration to North America, are the character of the first settlers, the religious and social influences which they represented, the early attitude assumed by some of these settlers upon one of America's most important political questions—that of slavery—and the experiments in government made by still others of the settlers.

The men who had to do directly with the settlement of Germantown were remarkable in the American colonies because of the large proportion of them who had been educated at universities, and who by their writings had helped to mould the thought of their age. The author says that, regarded from the point of view of the introduction into America of the results of European learning and culture, no other settlement on this side of the Atlantic—certainly neither Jamestown, Plymouth, nor Philadelphia—had so large a proportion of men who had won distinction abroad in literature and polemics. Of the persons interested in the settlement as purchasers, Dr. Johann Jacob Schutz, Ueberfeld, the learned Eleanora von Merlau, Dr. Johan Wilhem Petersen; Johannes Kemler, rector at Lubeck; the mathematician John Jacob Zimmermann, and Benjamin Furley. the latter Penn's agent at Rotterdam; and of the actual settlers, Cornelius Plockhoy, Francis Daniel Pastorius, the hero of Whittier's poem, "The Pennsylvania Pilgrim"; Cornelius Bom, Thomas Rutter, Jacob Telner, Henry Bernhard Koster, Johannes Kelpius, Daniel Falckner and Justus Falckner were all the authors of books, and some of them had made important contributions to the religious controversies of an age whose intellectual thought was mainly absorbed in such controversies.

Eleven of the first thirteen heads of Germantown families who set sail for Pennsylvania from London on the ship *Concord* on July 24, 1683, were from the town of Crefeld in Germany, and they reached Philadelphia October 6. They were of Dutch and German stock, and among the thirteen were the two Op den Graeffs, who with Pastorius, on April 18, 1688, sent to the Friends' Meeting the first public protest ever made in America against the holding of slaves. Pastorius, as the agent of the purchasers, had preceded the first settlers by a few weeks. Pastorius probably wrote this protest, but Dirck Op den Graeff bore it to the quarterly meeting, and his is the only name mentioned in connection with its presentation to the yearly meeting, to which it was referred as a topic of too much importance to be considered elsewhere. The Op den Graeffs, like most of the settlers, were Mennonites, followers of Menno Simons. The historians of this sect, Mehrning, Van Braght, Maatschoen, and Roosen, trace their theological and lineal descent from the Waldenses, some of whose communities are said to have existed from the earliest Christian times, and were able to maintain themselves in obscure parts of Europe against the power of Rome in large numbers from the twelfth century downward. The Waldenses were numerous in Holland and Flanders, where the Mennonites arose and throve, and carried the art of weaving from Flanders into Holland. It is known that some of the Mennonite families descended from Waldenses.

It is now established that the Baptist churches of England and the Quakers had their origin in the Mennonites. The first Baptist churches of England had an ecclesiastical connection with parent societies in Holland, and their organizers were Englishmen who were active members of the Mennonite church at Amsterdam. It was for the benefit of these Englishmen that the Confession of Faith of Hans de Ries and Lubbert Gerritz was written, and it was from association with these early Baptist teachers, according to Barclay, the best authority, that George Fox, the founder of the Quakers, imbibed his views. Barclay says: "We are compelled to view him as the unconscious exponent of the doctrine, practices, and discipline of the ancient and stricter party of the Dutch Mennonites." The first two Quaker histories were written in Holland, and Sewel, the historian, was himself a Mennonite. The Mennonites believed that no baptism was efficacious unless accompanied by repentance, and that the ceremony administered to infants was vain. They took not the sword and were entirely non-resistant. They swore not at all, practised the washing of the feet of the Brethren as taught by Christ's example, and made use of the ban, or the avoidance of those who were pertinaciously derelict—a trace of which latter custom may still be found among the Friends or Quakers. In dress and speech they were plain and in manner simple. Their ecclesiastical enemies, even while burning them for their heresies, bore testimony to the purity of their lives, their thrift, and homely virtues. No sect was more bitterly persecuted. Hundreds of the men were burned and the women drowned. The founder of the sect, the Dutch reformer, Menno, far in advance of his time advocated the complete severance of church and state, and thus sought to put in practice the principles of religious liberty which have since been embodied in our own Federal Constitution. It will be seen that Menno went further than Luther or Calvin, who stayed their hands at a point where power and influence would have been lost.

Bullinger, the expounder of the views of the Swiss Calvinists, condemned the opponents of infant baptism because they "maintain that the Government shall not interfere in questions of religion and belief." "It appears," he continued, writing in the year 1560, "to these Baptists to be unreasonable that any sword should be used in the church except the word of God, and still more unreasonable that a man should submit questions of religion or belief to the determination of other men—that is, to those who control the government." Says Judge Pennypacker:

"Bullinger unconsciously, and by way of condemnation, marked the lines definitely. He believed that heresy was a sin against God and a crime against the state, and as such to be punished by the law. The Anabaptists, on the contrary, taught that matters of faith were between the man and his God, with which the Government had nothing to do. The doctrines advocated by Bullinger, extending later into England, led to the organization of the Puritans and to the founding of Massachusetts as a theocracy, where Quakers, Baptists, Antinomians, and other heretics were punished and expelled. The doctrines of the Anabaptists carried through Holland to England resulted in the formation of the sect of Quakers and the founding of Pennsylvania, where all were welcome and all were permitted to cherish their own creeds. To Germantown as Mennonites came the Anabaptists themselves. Though in England even yet the church and state are united, in America the contest has been ended, and the constitutions of all the States of the Union provide for the exercise of liberty of conscience."

The different elements entering into the settlement, and its social, religious, and industrial development, are traced in detail in these pages, where is given, perhaps, all that will ever be known of the mystics Koster and Kelpius, and of that quaint and altogether charming character Pastorius, whose witty talk ran along readily in a dozen dead or living languages. Of the last-named it is related that he and Thomas Lloyd came on the same ship to Pennsylvania. At that time Pastorius was unused to talking in English, and Lloyd did not understand German, but the two carried on their conversations during the long voyage in Latin and formed an intimate friendship. Over the door of the little house which Pastorius built in Philadelphia he wrote: "Parva domus sed amica Bonis; procul este Prophani," at which Penn, when he read it, laughed aloud. A few years afterwards Pastorius wrote:

"I myself would give one hundred rix dollars if the time I wasted in learning the Sperling physic and metaphysics and other unnecessary sophistical *argumentationes* and *arguititiones* I had devoted to engineer work or to book printing, which would have been useful and valuable to me and to my fellow Christians, rather than to Physics, Metaphysics and Aristotelian Elenchi and Sylochismi, by which no savage or heathen can be brought to God, much less a piece of bread can be made."

In the American wilderness Pastorius wrote some fifty books, seven of which were printed. Two of his books which were supposed to have been lost are now for the first time printed in Judge Pennypacker's volume.

One of the most interesting chapters is devoted to Peter Cornelius Plockhoy, a forerunner of Robert Owen, Charles Fourier, and of the still earlier Robert Bellers, in the elaboration of a theory of a communal life. Plockhoy was a Mennonite, who greatly grieved over the dissensions among the many sects of the Christian church, which he regarded as a great universal union of brethren, common to all lands and to all ages, under the one head of Christ. Leaving his home at Zierik Zee, Plockhoy went to England with the purpose of consulting Oliver Cromwell as to the best means of breaking down the walls of separation between the Christian sects. The Protector gave Plockhoy a hearing, and listened to a detailed explanation of the latter's views. Cromwell was urged to erect in each city a common meeting-place for Christians, the seats in these great halls to be arranged in the form of an amphitheatre and with rising steps. The separation of church and state was part of the project. Preachers

and church leaders should receive no pay from the state, and tithes should be forbidden. The death of Cromwell was a severe blow to Plockhoy's hopes, but he printed two letters which he had written to Cromwell, and added a short address to Parliament. The times in England were not propitious for the furtherance of Plockhoy's plans, and for a time he confined his efforts to the bringing together of the rich and the poor, and he prepared a scheme for a social union of laymen without regard to sect, declaring that there must be freedom from all idle and wrong-doing persons, but above all from those who have sharpened their wits and found the means "to live from the labors of others." His plan provided for groups of collective housekeeping and labor combinations of workingmen who should be willing to enter upon a common method of life, and was based upon the doctrine of equality and the principle of association. Men, he declared, must abandon all ideas of greatness and desire for superior rank, and follow the example of Christ, who came not to be served, but to serve. He would make the work of all equal and thus lighten the labor of the poor, while those who theretofore scarcely had bread to fill their mouths should thereafter have their wants satisfied.

Continuing, Plockhoy said: "Neither doth any one stand simply by himself alone," a declaration which Fourier adopted almost word for word at the beginning of the present century. The principle of association was outlined by Plockhoy somewhat as follows: Whenever a hundred families live separately, there are necessary at least a hundred women to do the household work. Unite them and let the hundred dwell together, and then the household work can be entirely done by twenty-five women, and the other seventy-five, if they are capable, can work for the community. When a hundred people live apart every day, there is a necessity for a hundred fires to prepare the midday meal. If they be brought together, then the great fires of four or five ovens are ample for the purpose. While generally, in the world, he continues, it is to the profit of the individual to keep his capacity and skill away from the rest, when he enters into association he brings his knowledge and skill into the community, and devotes it to the common good. He thought it necessary that some capable person should advance capital enough to buy a piece of land upon which the establishment of the community could be based. There would be necessary to it men who understood the cultivation of the soil, merchants and tradesmen, sailors and fishermen and masters in arts and trades. The time of work for all the people was fixed at ten hours a day, except upon the Sabbath. Those who should bring in lands or ground for the common work should give up the use of it without rent, and should permit the land to be cultivated by the association; but their title should be made secure, and their relatives should inherit it. Each member should receive his share in the gains of the community. In his plan, which was printed in 1659, appear all the thoughts which, adopted by Bellers in 1696, gave the latter note among economists.

Plockhoy went from England to Amsterdam, and determined to carry his theories into practice upon the banks of the Delaware River. The site selected for the community was at the mouth of the Hoorn Kill, where the town of Lewes, Delaware, now stands. The name selected by Plockhoy was Swanendael, the Valley of the Swans. In 1662 he published at Amsterdam a quarto in the Dutch language, describing the plan of his community undertaken under the protection of their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands and the Honorable Magistrates of the city of Amsterdam. He provided among other things for a common school and a written ballot. For each of twenty-five colonists described as Mennonites, the Burgomasters of Amsterdam agreed to advance to Plockhoy one hundred guilders, which sums were to be repaid by the colonists.

The colonists reached the Valley of the Swans in 1662, but a heavy hand was hanging over one of the most interesting social experiments ever made, and two years later crushed it. In 1664 the English, led by Sir Robert Carr, entered the South River, demolished the settlement, and seized and carried off "what belonged to the Quaking Society of Plockhoy to a very naile." With one exception the members of the community disappeared as completely as the half-mythical colony of North Carolinians who left behind them upon a tree the mysterious inscription "Croatan." But thirty years later there came to Germantown an old blind man and his wife. Their miserable condition awakened the tender sympathies of the Mennonites, who gave to the man citizenship free of charge, set apart for him a lot, and planted a tree in front of it. "A free-will offering" was collected to build a little house for the pair. The man was Peter Cornelius Plockhoy.

Of this interesting character and his labors Judge Pennypacker says:

"His efforts resulted in what the world calls failure, and for over two hundred years he has slept in the deepest obscurity; yet when we compare him with his contemporaries, with the courtiers, Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir William Berkeley, with Cotton Mather, inciting the magistrates to hang old women for imaginary crimes, and see him wrestling with Cromwell, not for his own gain, but for the help of the down-trodden and the poor, teaching the separation of church and state, protesting against injuring the minds of children by dogma, and with so clear a sense of justice that even the vicious, when driven from the community, were to receive their share of the possessions, we cannot help but recognize his merit and his intelligence, and feel for him that sympathy that makes us all akin. When we find him, first of all the colonizers of America, so long ago as 1662, announcing the broad principle that 'no lordship or servile slavery shall burden our company,' he seems to grow into heroic proportions. Whatever else may happen, certain it is that the events of the life of one whose book marks the very beginning of the literature and history of the ten millions of people who now live in the States along the Zuid Rivier, must always be of keen interest to them and their descendants."

It is a somewhat curious fact that the copy of Plockhoy's book from which Judge Pennypacker has made the English translation given in his volume, in 1865 belonged to Samuel L. M. Barlow of New York, and because of its great interest and rarity the Knickerbocker Club undertook its reproduction. The selected translator, however, met with so much difficulty in rendering the black-letter Dutch into English that the enterprise after long delay was finally abandoned. The present translation, which includes even a rhymed rendition of the introductory verses of Jacob Steendam, the poet of the North River, is therefore the first that has been made.

Some of the other figures connected with the early German emigration to Pennsylvania are scarcely less interesting than Plockhoy. Johann Jacob Zimmermann, who died in 1693 while on his way to Pennsylvania, and was the original founder of the community of Pietists who settled on the Wissahickon, and whose best known member is Kelpius, was a graduate of the University of Tübingen, was for five years professor of mathematics at Heidelberg University, and was the author of eighteen books upon theology and astronomy. Henry Bernhard Koster was the son of the burgomaster of Blumenberg. He spent five years at the gymnasium at Bremen, studied law three years at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and left the university in 1684 in his twenty-second year. Koster, conceiving a mistrust for the accepted text of the Hebrew Bible, made a translation into the German from the Septuagint version. In Pennsylvania he made a sensation by quarrelling with the Mystics and with the Quakers. He claimed to know most of the languages of the world, but what he called his Holy Languages were the Greek, the German, the Bohemian, and the Hebrew, in the last of which he always repeated his prayers. His subsequent career in Europe, where in 1702 he compelled the Duke Ferdinand of Curland to pay a debt due the Duchess Charlotta Sophia, was full of unusual happenings.

Among other matters brought to light by the author is the lost book of corporation of laws of Germantown (1692), prepared by Pastorius, a body of early municipal legislation of peculiar interest. From the letters of the settlers written to friends or relatives in their old homes along the Rhine, the reader is given glimpses of the customs of the whites as well as the habits of the Indians. From the early court records it appears that the settlers of Germantown were a law-abiding folk, no serious offence against the law being committed within the first fifteen years.

THE ENGLISH NOVEL.

The Development of the English Novel. By Wilbur L. Cross. The Macmillan Co.

The Evolution of the English Novel. By Francis Hovey Stoddard. The Macmillan Co.

Nobody needs to be told that the novel is a power, an instrument of grace, and a scourge—in fact, a sort of untrammelled investigator and censor of the earth and all that is thereon. Yet, however conspicuous and popular this form of literature has become, a suspicion lingers that there was a time when it was distinctly not reputable, and when its most eminent exponents hung precariously on the outskirts of good society. Those were the days, presumably past, when there were so many "trashy" novels that they gave their family a bad name. A mentionable ancestry is the seal of respectability, and, if properly advertised, serves many practical ends. Good men are better from the consciousness of pedigree, and men not in themselves estimable, including some kings, remain, by reason of long descent, persons of high consideration. An exclusive

class has always been aware that the novel comes of very good and decently old family, but it is only recently that this knowledge has been widely diffused. With particular accounts of lineage in every bookstall, with a recognized position among arts and a relationship to science (still rather ambiguous), the evil days of the novel are surely past, and in the twentieth century even depraved specimens will be powerless to blemish its generally reputable character.

A few years ago Mr. Raleigh introduced the novel's history to the general public, contenting himself with a very readable sketch of the main branch and chief tributaries. Within a few months two volumes have appeared, which, in addition to history and criticism, attempt to show a degree of orderly scientific progress. In 'Development of the English Novel' Mr. Cross traces relations and connections all the way down from Greek tales, mediæval romances, and fabliaux to Stevenson and Kipling. In the fiction preceding Defoe, the novel as we know it, romantic, realistic, composite, no matter what, is so faintly suggested that the drawing of comparisons and analogies establishes nothing except that the novel includes a story, and that the story is a very ancient diversion. Much more closely allied with the form created by Richardson and Fielding are the diaries, letters, character sketches of the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, to which Mr. Cross gives an interesting and suggestive chapter. With 'Clarissa' and 'Tom Jones' he really arrives at his subject, and, following it for a century and a half, presents the history of the alternate rising and falling of Romanticism and Realism, pointing out the loss and gain of each revival and the variations dictated by popular taste.

The book is accordingly more valuable as a reference for chronology, names, foreign sources, and particular classification than for the criticism (which is safe) or for discussion of a theory of development (which is almost profitless). Attachment to theories about progress of a form of literature in which the imaginative or creative faculty and the gift of sympathetic intuition are essential to perfection, inseparable from renown, can hardly fail to produce a misleading, if not false impression of the whole subject. As a matter of fact, looking dispassionately at the history of our fiction, and, indeed, of all our imaginative literature, nothing is clearer than that we owe its greatness to exceptionally gifted, perhaps specially inspired, individuals. The inheritance of the ages counts, and the tendency of the times counts; yet these things are but clay for the hands of the potter. The defect of Mr. Cross's work is the defect of every effort to deal with the materials of literary history as natural scientists deal with norms and germs and protoplasm. The separate and recurring creative power is, if not denied, so belittled that there is no one left to praise or to inspire gratitude, or wonder, or reverence—except Shakspere, who still holds his own against accumulating testimony of picking and thieving and ingenious theories of intellectual inheritance.

Mr. Stoddard, in the 'Evolution of the English Novel,' only makes a bow to the notion of continuity from the 'Morte d'Arthur' to 'Vanity Fair'; he rejects the theory of a general, progressive development, of the rise of one school from the ashes of another, even since the middle of the eighteenth century, when, as he correctly remarks, the novel was born both in France and in England. The novel, according to this author, follows the common order of progress in human expression, from presentation of the simple to the complex, the physical and external to the spiritual and invisible. This theory is probable, but perhaps has not enough novelty to justify so elaborate an air of discovery, or to repay the author's pains in citing analogous development in the fine arts, religion, and the building of engines. To demonstrate his theory, he divides novels into groups, and considers particular examples of each group. His first group includes 'The Vicar of Wakefield,' 'Pride and Prejudice,' 'Jane Eyre,' and the 'Scarlet Letter.' These he calls novels of personality, and, on the premise laid down, proceeds to argue the development of the idea of individuality and personality. He says that the Vicar is largely an allegorical figure, that the characters in the other novels chosen show gains in the novelists' capacity for individualization, until perfection is reached in Hester Prynne and Dimmesdale. We are not prepared either to accept or to deny Mr. Stoddard's theories in detail, because he qualifies and modifies so much and seems to attach such an unusual significance to the words "individuality," "personality," that we don't know what he means.

On the face of things, we don't agree with him. As individuals, the Vicar and Mrs. Primrose, Elizabeth and Mrs. Bennet, Charlotte Brontë's bitter yet romantic governess, are as fully presented externally as Hester Prynne, while their inner life (such as it was) is made as clear as that of Hawthorne's victims of a Puritan conception of the universe. If Mr. Stoddard wishes to intimate that a study of persons acutely sensible of their soul's importance, of moral responsibility, of the eternal conflict between good and evil (a study made by a man with a great genius for setting forth such mysteries), is a more subtle intellectual performance than is the representation, however perfect, of more common earth-bound people, his position can hardly be disputed; but the argument that any one of the illustrations selected is a higher achievement than the other, of the same kind, fails to touch one who sees chiefly the difference of kind; a difference as broad and as particular as that between the temperaments, the point of view—in a word, the peculiar genius—of the authors.

Consideration of the "Historical Novel," the "Purpose Novel," etc., fills us chiefly with conviction of the futility of trying to link the novel with science. Why any one should desire to do so would be a mystery if Mr. Stoddard had not explained. "If the novelist is to live," he remarks in his bewilderingly interrogative summing up of the novel's case for prosperous permanence, "the dictum of this scientific age seems to be that the novel must become scientific." Perhaps this book should be received gratefully as an effort to preserve the novelist's very existence by placing his labor on a scientific basis. When the strain on the scientific wire is relaxed, Mr. Stoddard appears as a lover of literature, and then it is often possible both to understand him and to agree with him. The chapter on the Romantic Novel expresses a wide view of Romanticism, knowledge and appreciation of the spirit of all romantic literature without much reference to the English novel.

Inquiring about the great extension of the novel's sphere of influence and activity during the last century, neither Mr. Cross nor Mr. Stoddard has looked for definite answer to the rise of democracy. The novel is the democratic form of literary expression. There are a thousand reasons why, when the people generally came to be able to read, and when, with reading, more or less intelligent curiosity grew apace, they should delight in a form which satisfied the human craving for a story, and which generally threw in some sort of nutriment for the inquiring mind. To the average Anglo-Saxon, the novel's form, its style, its divisions and subdivisions are things of no account, dry matter fit for academic discussion. Our democracy wants distraction (cheap and handy), wants vicarious emotional excitement, wants to a limited extent ideals and ideals, wants (most of all) to know about its neighbor—and since Puck's girdle has slipped round, all the world's a neighbor. We cannot believe that it is shouting for a scientific novel, and we trust that our novelists will not be scared by Mr. Stoddard's announcement of a "dictum." The novelists must not be driven by any small group, because they have to consider the whole people, and happily there is enough of them to gratify every taste—to go round. The novelists, "if they wish to live," as they unquestionably do, must stand heart to heart with the people, speaking their message in the way they best can (in fear of no man with a theory), thus maintaining the privilege of the story-teller from the beginning of time, and bringing no shame on illustrious predecessors.

Frontinus and the Water Supply of the City of Rome. By Clemens Herschel, Hydraulic Engineer. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. [1899.]

The technical treatise of *Frontinus de aquis urbis Romae* has not until now been published in an English translation. Frontinus was Water Commissioner (*curator aquarum*) of Rome for half-a-dozen years about the end of the first century A. D. On coming into office, he resolved to set down in writing all that he "could gather as bearing on the subject-matter, after having arranged and codified it in accordance with my habits as already exemplified in other offices, so that I might consult it as a guide in the duties of this." For, he adds, "I consider it to be the first and most important thing to learn thoroughly what it is that I have undertaken." Accordingly, in his commentary, we find

"the names of the waters which are brought to the city of Rome; then by what persons, and under what consuls, and in what year since the founding of the city each of them was brought in; then at what places and at what milestones their aqueducts commence; how far they were carried in underground channels, how far on masonry substructures and how far on arches; then the height of each of them, and the size and number of taps, and what uses are dependent upon them; how much each aqueduct brings to each ward without the city, and how much within the city; how many public delivery tanks there are, and how much is delivered from them to the places of public amusement, how much to the ornamental fountains—as the more educated call them—how much to the water basins, how much to the use of the State (in the name of Cæsar), how much for private uses

by grants from the Emperor; what is the law with regard to the construction and maintenance of the aqueducts; what penalties enforce it under the laws, votes of the Senate, and imperial edicts that have been enacted."

Truly, a public officer could hardly devise a better method of acquainting himself with the field of his activities; and its result, the treatise on the water supply of Rome, is a worthy monument to this excellent servant of the State.

This summary of contents (which we have given in Mr. Herschel's translation) shows that the treatise is too technical to be attractive either to the general reader or to many classical scholars. The latter may well consider that they have done their duty in furnishing the world with a fairly sound Latin text, based upon the late and very corrupt Montecassino MS., which, bad as it is, is still our only guide. Such a text was actually provided forty years ago by Bücheler, and further elucidations have been published by other scholars, such as Lanciani and Petschenig. Of translations there have been only two: one in French (1820) by Rondelet, the architect of the Pantheon in Paris, and author of a 'Traité théorique et pratique de l'art de bâtir' and of a memoir on ancient ships; the other, in German (1841) by Dederich, professor in the gymnasium at Emmerich, and chiefly known for his editions of Dictys and of Dares. (Why Mr. Herschel should speak of Dederich as a "builder" we cannot imagine.) His edition and translation of Frontinus were based on the papers left unpublished by C. L. F. Schultz. His work was of little consequence, since his text was based upon the copies of the Montecassino MS., and consequently it was very unsound. Mr. Herschel seems to think that the lack of an English translation is discreditable to English-speaking students of the classics; that it shows a certain unwillingness on their part to admit the uninitiate to their mysteries. On the contrary, the excellence of his own volume proves what classical men have always believed—that the work could never be done properly except by a professional engineer. It is discreditable rather to English and American engineers that they have remained so long either uninterested in the history of their subject, or unequal to a task which belonged to their brotherhood. For a mere translation of the treatise (a matter of no great difficulty in itself, since the style is so simple and straightforward) would be useless unless accompanied by a full explanatory commentary; and such a commentary could be written only by a specialist in hydraulics.

To write such a commentary, Mr. Herschel seems to have been the ideal man. He brings to the work all the requisite knowledge; for, even in the execution of the translation, he has had the good sense to submit his draught to the thorough revision of so good a Latin scholar as Prof. Bennett of Cornell, though in the technical terminology his own practical experience has made him a master. He brings also an enthusiasm and a willingness to spend time over what the thoughtless call petty details, such as will commend him highly to the philologians. His book contains, to begin with, a photographic reproduction of the Latin MS., now first published; then comes the text (which is in the main that of Bücheler), and on opposite pages the translation, which is written in a plain and businesslike style that suits the original; next we have twelve explanatory chapters, on such topics as the life, works, and character of Frontinus, on springs and aqueducts in ancient Rome, on methods of measuring and distributing the various waters, on maintenance and repairs, and on the law of water-rights. There are also two large folding-maps (one of the topography of Rome and its vicinity, showing the routes of the aqueducts; the other of the city at the beginning of our era), and about ninety illustrations, chiefly from photographs, many of them taken on the spot by the author himself. These last are unusually welcome, made as they are, not by the ordinary photographer of commerce to sell to tourists, but by the specialist for the express purpose of his topic. See, for instance, that of the Roman sewer (p. 147), of the huge *dolia* (p. 161), of the votive stone of Juturna (or Diuturna), with its inscription (p. 135), and of the bathtub, "water-cooler," and six-inch plug-cock (p. 198). On the last we have an interesting footnote, illustrating the author's painstaking diligence: "In 1886, on shaking the plug-cock, I heard water splash around in it. In 1897, all of this water had been chemically absorbed, after having been imprisoned about eighteen hundred years."

To the modern engineer who takes a liberal view of his subject, and is not devoted merely to the task of the hour, this book should be of absorbing interest. He will be surprised to learn how old are many of the problems with which he has to deal, and he may not impossibly profit by learning the means by which the Romans solved some of them. Obviously, also, the student of classical antiquities may use the book to advantage; we may instance in particular Mr. Herschel's treatment of the vexed questions of the value of the *quinaria* (p. 211) and the use of *piscinae* (p. 199). We have only a few errors to note: First, the repetition of the old notion that Pliny says that Agrippa himself rowed into the Cloaca Maxima. The picture on p. 251 is not that of "a Roman slave," but of a captive Dacian. Of course such captives often became slaves, but their national costumes would scarcely be worn in this capacity. We cannot imagine what is meant by the figures "211-260" after the name of Aelian on p. 123. If they are meant for dates, here is a strange mistake, for the military writer was contemporary with Frontinus, nor would these dates fit the life of the sophist. Three lines below this, the Emperor mentioned should be Nerva, not Trajan. Finally, we cannot for a moment accept Mr. Herschel's argument against the existence of cooperage among the Romans (p. 159), in the face of the barrels illustrated in at least three different scenes in Trajan's column, and of such passages as Petronius 60 and Palladius 1, 38. But all these points really lie outside of Mr. Herschel's field, and are but slight blemishes on a fine performance.

A History of the Law of Nations. By Thomas Alfred Walker, M.A., LL.D. Cambridge: University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1900. Vol. 1, pp. xxx, 361. 8vo.

The author of this volume is an industrious writer. His 'Science of International Law,' which was published in 1893, was followed in 1895 by a 'Manual of Public International Law,' a work professedly designed for the use of students, but, in our opinion as expressed at the time, inferior, even for that purpose, to the earlier treatise. In the present volume he has returned to the historical investigations of which his first work bore evidence, and with results so satisfactory as to render it apparent that his tastes and his training specially fit him for success in that field of labor. The first forty-three pages reproduce, sometimes in a condensed form, but often textually, the greater part of the contents of the first sixty-one pages of the 'Science of International Law.' With this exception, however, the matter of the new volume is not found in the author's previous works.

Toward the establishment of an historical connection between the practices of the ancient world and the modern system of international law, it can scarcely be said that Mr. Walker has contributed any new evidence. Under the title of the "International Law of Antiquity before the Rise of the Roman World Empire," he discusses, first, the "international system of the Jews as a system of tribal communities." He states, however, that "there was one law for Jew and Jew, another for Jew and Gentile." It is true that a distinction was made between the seven adjacent "nations" and those that were "very far off." In the former, "everything that breatheth" was to be destroyed; in the latter, while "every male" was to be put to the sword, "the women, and the little ones, and the cattle," were merely to be seized. But in this there seems to have been no conception of international law, or anything more than an adjustment of the national policy to circumstances. As to the Greeks, it is admitted that their "international law" can be considered as "hardly more than an intermunicipal law," though it is suggested that the "distinction of Hellene and Barbarian, like that of Jew and Gentile, may be taken as tracing the lines of a primitive International Circle."

Coming down to a later time, when the rise of a law of nations can be more definitely traced, Mr. Walker reviews the development of the system with much fulness of learning, and discloses a wide and actual acquaintance with the literature of the subject. Among the forerunners of Grotius, whom he styles "the prophet of international law," he presents various civilians and ecclesiastical jurists, and particularly the latter, such as St. Augustine, Isidore of Seville, and Gratian; pure theologians, such as St. Thomas Aquinas and Franciscus à Victoria; and men of affairs and philosophers, such as Macchiavelli, Sir Thomas More, Jean Bodin, Brunn, Vasquez, and Ayala. With Albericus Gentilis "we reach a new stage in historic evolution," and are brought down to Grotius, with an excellent analysis of whose 'De Jure Belli ac Pacis' (1625), occupying nearly a sixth of the volume (pp. 285-337), exclusive of the index, the present instalment of the work ends.

It is not ungracious to point out that Mr. Walker, in discharging so fully his duty to the past, has occasionally shown in his treatment of the present a little neglect. He speaks (p. 24) of the International American Conference as having "met in Washington in 1890." It adjourned in 1890, but met in the preceding year. He also observes that the recommendations of the delegates

on the subject of arbitration "did not remain unfruitful," since the treaty which they proposed was promptly signed by ten of the Powers represented in the conference; but he does not state that the treaty never was ratified. In another place (p. 26) there is a paragraph which reads: "Within the last four weeks (December, 1896), as the result of the Venezuela boundary difficulty, a general treaty for the settlement by arbitration of disputes between the two Powers has been signed by England and the United States." The error in date is perhaps not important, since the treaty, which was not signed till January 11, 1897, was not ratified and never became effective; but a statement such as that above quoted, with nothing to indicate what subsequently happened, seems antiquated in a volume the preface to which bears the date October, 1899, two and a half years after the Senate of the United States, in the exercise of its constitutional functions, declined to give, by the necessary two-thirds vote, its advice and consent to the exchange of ratifications. It may also be doubted whether it is correct to classify (pp. 27-28) the Declaration of Paris of 1856 as a treaty "declaratory of international law as understood by the parties," even though we should now accept all its four articles, including that against privateering, as "clear, authoritative statements of general international law" at the present day. Such a classification of a convention the parties to which, with a view, as Count Walewski said, to "lay the foundation of a uniform maritime law in time of war," not only agreed, in the words of the instrument itself, to "invite" other Powers "to accede to it," but also expressly declared in the same manner that it "is not and shall not be binding, except among the Powers which have signed or may accede to it," seems to involve the use of the term international law in a very broad sense.

The Chaucer Canon. By W. W. Skeat. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1900.

This might have been an interesting book twenty-five years ago, when Max Müller's 'Science of Language' was really thought to be a science, but it is hard to see how it can be interesting to any large class of readers now. Its subject is too technical to interest the general public, and its treatment too unscientific to deserve much attention from careful students of Chaucer. An attempt to establish a Chaucer canon by deducing it from the grammar and versification of the 'Ormulum' (p. 7), written almost two hundred years before the 'Canterbury Tales,' is pathetic in its fatuousness—something like what would be an attempt to establish a canon for Kipling out of Crashaw. Almost as pathetic is the finding fault with John Stow (1561) for printing and circulating "downright falsehoods" in his edition of Chaucer (p. 1). We now know enough about Middle English to recognize the difference between the language of the 'Ormulum' and Chaucer, and we know enough about English literature in general to recognize the fact that, though Chaucer in his use of fast-dropping inflections was conservative, his speech was not archaic and peculiar, but the straightforward English of the sort of people he describes in the Prologue. Grammar does, of course, form a valuable criterion to help us distinguish between Southern literature and Northern literature in the fourteenth century, or between the poetry of the fourteenth century and that of the sixteenth; but we cannot conclude that the "A" part of the 'Romaunt of the Rose' is Chaucer's simply because the inflections of its language correspond to Chaucer's. The true Chaucer canon for the part of his writing that is original is to be found in Chaucer's peculiar style, not in his grammar, important as grammar may be in determining dialect and date in Middle English literature; and the true canon for his translations is to be found in a careful study of his peculiar translating tricks—a work that yet awaits the effort of some intelligent Chaucer student.

Most of Prof. Skeat's book is filled with material already published in his 'Chaucerian and Other Pieces,' and 'The Chaucer Canon' contains little that is new. The question of the authorship of the 'Romaunt of the Rose' occupies three chapters, vi., vii., and viii., mainly taken up with statements of fact long since recognized, and with Prof. Skeat's recent guess that part of the poem might have been written by the royal author of the 'Kingis Quair.' As to the Middle English 'Romaunt,' scholarship has long recognized three distinct parts of the work, known as A, B and C respectively. The English of these shows pretty clearly that A was written about Chaucer's time in his dialect; C not very long after in a language which grew up out of the attempt by Northerners to write standard literary English; and B still later with more decided Northern characteristics. As the only MS. of the poem is a late one preserved in Glasgow, it is but natural to suppose that the work as we have it is the result of a late fifteenth-century unfinished attempt to combine Fragment A and Fragment C by filling in the gap between the two. This simple solution does not conflict with any now known fact about the language of the poem, nor with the assumption that perhaps Chaucer himself wrote the short Fragment A, and it is supported by the study of the Northern literature of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which shows clearly an effort in the North to follow and imitate Chaucer's style and language. But simple explanations are rarely accepted by "philologists," and it will probably be a long time before new theories of the authorship of the 'Romaunt of the Rose' cease to be advanced by them.

One is pleased to find in the preface the statement that Prof. Hales, who has examined the proof-sheets of the book, is in no way responsible for its contents; and we cannot help but wonder why it is that the Clarendon Press, so closely identified with the publication of the finest and most valuable piece of English scholarship Oxford has ever put forth, the 'New English Dictionary,' should not exercise more discretion and discernment in seeking out and publishing other English work of similar character and aim. But the debt that English scholarship owes to Prof. Skeat for the enthusiastic interest which he has aroused in the study of our speech and its literature, and for his illuminating explanations of Chaucer's allusions and sources, is manifestly so great that perhaps, after all, it is not to be wondered at that the Press should publish anything he writes.

A Treatise on Stair-Building and Hand-Railing. By William Mowat, M.A., and Alexander Mowat, M.A. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 1900. Pp. xx, 368.

One who has occasion to use the technical books of this world has reason to rejoice when he lights upon one which is intelligently written. There is many a most capable workman—builder, artificer, employer of labor, organizer, and administrator—who cannot express in words the motives and principles which guide him. A little scholarship, a little disposition to theorize, a little power of generalization, a good deal of a natural and cultivated gift of putting thoughts into intelligible phrases—all this is necessary to the making of a good book, even by the best and most competent professor of the art to which the book refers. And if one were to be asked for the champion instance of ill success in this department of technical books, it would be fairly safe to expect to find it among the books that are written for builders. Take this very matter of stair-building; it is complicated, and few are they who understand the principles of it. When you stand on the quarter-deck and see the officers of a ship "taking the sun," setting the ship's clock at noon, and taking her position in the forenoon, you are not bound to infer that each handler of the sextant is a scientific personage. He may have, and on a modern war-ship or ocean greyhound he undoubtedly does have, some knowledge of principles; but the greater number of sextants are not in such hands as those, and the man who knows when to "make it twelve o'clock" is doing as his commanders and chiefs told him in former days, going by rule of thumb as certainly as any mechanic in a shop of metal-workers or wood-workers. So with stair-building: most difficult and complicated is the laying-out of the curves of a string or hand-rail; and stairs with curved strings are built, in the extraordinary way practised by our carpenters, by many a man who could not for the life of him either make an intelligible drawing of what he was about to achieve, or explain the system upon which such a drawing should be made.

Here, now, is an adequate technical book. Out of many which have passed our inspection, this is the only one in which intelligent treatment is given to the questions, not hard to solve, but very hard to explain, with which the trade of stair-building is thickly set. The theory is admirably set forth, the drawings are quite extraordinary in their clearness, and the discrimination between stair and stair, between system and system, is in every case most intelligently maintained. To have done at once with the single defect or shortcoming visible in the book, let it be said that there are no good or even tolerable designs offered, except in the case of a few famous ancient staircases, of which inadequate drawings, sometimes taken from old books, are given. The stairs shown in mathematical drawing, as for the practical builder, are as devoid of architectural or other charm as any carpenter of the good old times fifty years ago could possibly have desired. It seems a pity that a good old stair could not have been analyzed, studied, and set forth in detail, instead of some one of the dreadful modern examples so freely given.

The book is divided into three parts, the first devoted to "Stair-Building" in the usual

sense of the word, a construction mainly of wood, and of many peculiar and distinguishable varieties. The second part is devoted to "Hand-Railing," with all its elaborate lay-out and its mathematical principles joined to an intelligent system of handwork, in which it is shown how the carpenter, even without profound knowledge of the theory, may proceed; and the third part is devoted to "Stone Stairs," in which the radically different system of building called for by this material is treated as intelligently as was the carpenter work in the first two parts.

In the first part the subject is opened with a series of definitions of terms, these being illustrated by very simple drawings—simple, but quite sufficient for their purpose. The nomenclature of stair-building is nearly as complex as its mathematical theory, and one who wishes to know the difference between open newelled stairs, bracket stairs, half-turned stairs, and quarter-pace stairs may, if he wishes, gratify the desire by studying chapter i. Then the construction of straight stairs is taken up; and especially those which are built around constructional newels, into which newels the strings and the risers are framed or grooved or notched or dadoed. This takes precedence of the more elaborate stairs that are worked with curves. The system of making drawings for balusters and for the supposed decorative treatment of strings and newels, of all of which the house-carpenter is very fond, is explained at length in this connection, for, whatever the non-practical reader may suppose, the mere lay-out of the strip itself which constitutes the hand-rail requires a third of the book all to itself, and this does not include the balusters which support it or the newel post which terminates it. The hand-rail, then, when considered as a piece of design, together with the balusters which support it, the newels which receive it, the string-piece upon which it stands, are all treated in part i., in connection with the building of the stairs themselves. It is something of a surprise, but very much of a gratification, to find the peculiar stairs provided for big ships—those steep companion-ways which lead from the deck to the cabin —treated in connection with other open newel staircases as all of the same general family.

Part ii. with the hand-rails introduces a more complex question. If any of our readers will look at the stairs in an old-fashioned New York house of no great magnificence, and will note the way in which the mahogany hand-rail is carried along a horizontal at the landing-places or passages, and then passes by a rapid dip and a turn through half a circle into a steep rake or slope parallel with the flight of stairs, and if he will then observe the bar of wood (four or five feet long if measured in the direction of its axis or centre line) which makes the actual turn and change of direction from the horizontal to the slope, passing through the curve mentioned above, he may take a useful lesson in practical mechanics by trying to imagine a way of putting down on paper, in advance, that indescribable series of sweeps and drops and changes of direction; the whole being rendered more involved by the mouldings which are supposed to adorn the hand-rail, and which certainly break up the contour. That is but a simple and primitive example. And yet even that is so difficult a thing that there are but few men in any building community who are competent to draw the thing out so that another workman can take the drawing and make the piece from the drawing without fear or hesitation. This, at least, one sees every day and in the practice of the very best workmen. If the hand-rail in question is to be cast in metal, the pattern for that casting is produced in some such way as this: A drawing is made as close to the requirements as the master workman or his foreman can produce; from this drawing the twisted piece of hand-rail is "got out" as near as the mechanic's skill will enable him to produce it. This piece of wood is brought to the spot and is put into place, whereupon it is found to refuse utterly to conform to either the straight horizontal or the straight sloping pieces which should adjoin it. Then a skilful carver comes along, and by shaving and tapering and whittling and taking off pieces here and there, by putting on shavings with glue and handfuls of adhesive composition of some sort, such as saw-dust mixed with glue, there is gradually cut down and built up a piece of hand-rail exactly of the shape, section, and outline demanded. This, then, is taken away to the foundry, and the piece of hand-rail is cast from the empirically made model described. Now the book that we have before us would do away with all that, and would make it feasible to produce even this complicated turn of the hand-rail straight from drawings—if only the stair-builders would study with sufficient care its admirable cuts and their explanations.

We have allowed ourselves no room to deal with the stone stairs, the mutually supporting steps which carry themselves almost without outside support, such stairs as those in our New York city hall, where the stone steps sweep around a large circle and seem to stand by miracle, or as if hung by invisible wires or supported by invisible props; and yet all this is extremely well set forth in the final chapters. A very intelligent essay on stone stairs is to be found within the limit of seventy pages, which include a great number of large illustrations.

Dialogues of the Buddha. Translated from the Pāli by T. W. Rhys Davids. [Series of Sacred Books of the Buddhists. Edited by F. Max Müller, Vol. II.] H. Frowde. 1899. Pp. xxxii, 334.

The picture of Buddha, the Enlightened, seated beneath some spreading tree in a well-wooded park and preaching to the listening multitude or discoursing with his disciples and followers, is a familiar image to every one who has read even slightly in the realm of Eastern religion, or has been attracted by that faith of the Orient professed by millions of human souls who daily take refuge in the name of the sainted prince and teacher of early India. The Buddhists' canon divides their scriptures into three testaments; and the special discourses or dialogues which are here translated are taken from the second of these. In the sacred Pāli language they are spoken of as a "Collection of Longer and Shorter Discourses." To have them now made easily accessible in translation is of value not only for the material which they contribute to the history of Buddhism, but because of the light which they throw on the conditions in India at the time when they were put together. In his introduction the translator has given scholarly reasons for believing that this time was the period between the sixth and the fifth centuries B. C., or directly after Buddha's own day—a view which has found favor with other specialists.

In the dialogues themselves, between which and the Platonic dialogues in relation to our knowledge of Socrates, a distant comparison might be drawn, the blessed Buddha is the chief speaker, but his disciples also take part and various interlocutors are introduced. We can see "The Blessed One" wandering through the Ganges land, now tarrying in some Brahman village to speak before a great company of the brethren, now stopping to be specially questioned on some point of faith or of living. The order in which the original Pāli canon places the dialogues is, unfortunately, not chronological; they are arranged simply according to their length, without regard to the situation or the occasion which they describe in Gotama's life. This is a loss to us to-day, but it does not affect the reality of the picture which they give. Among the thirteen dialogues which the present volume contains, there are discourses on morality, on caste, on the life of a recluse, and one on the characteristics of a true Brahman. There are also discussions of ethical questions and of the nature of the soul. The dialogue on "The Three Wonders of the Gods" will interest those who care to compare Dr. Davids's translation (p. 280) with the portion of the same discourse rendered into English by the late Henry Warren in his 'Buddhism in Translations' (p. 308). Also, by way of particular comment, it may be added that readers not already somewhat familiar with the literature of Buddhism may miss from the introduction a brief attempt to give a clearer idea of the position which the two Nikāyas hold with reference to the rest of the Buddhist canon. This lack is remedied in part, however, by the translator's references to his volume, 'American Lectures on Buddhism.'

Indian Story and Song from North America. By Alice C. Fletcher. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

This work occupies a position between realism and romance that makes it difficult to classify. The preface says that the stories contained in it are "close translations"; but, to take only one instance, no Indian ever uttered sentences like these: "The sky was clear. The grass and wild flowers waved in the breeze that rose as the sun threw its first beams over the earth. Birds of all kinds vied with each other as they sang their joy on that beautiful morning." This is quite as bad as Cooper, or as the sentimental passages which the conscience-stricken Schoolcraft omitted from the second edition of his Indian stories, which were also originally issued as being "as nearly as possible in their original forms of thought and expression." Such things must be deprecated as tending to obscure the problems of comparative psychology and mental evolution. From a scientific point of view, Miss Fletcher's book is further injured by the manner in which the music is presented. Instead of giving the plain melodies, as nearly as possible as sung by the Indians, she prints them with har-

monies added by the late J. C. Fillmore, which is like presenting the savage in full evening dress. The Indian knows no harmony, and it is discouraging to find an American professor of music so void of a sense of humor as seriously to arrange wild Indian germs of tunes to the harmonies of the latest German romantic school, with pedal and traces of counterpoint. It is like making them write essays on nature in the style of Ruskin or Burroughs. Such things should be left to *Life* and *Puck*.

If we waive the scientific point of view, however, there can be nothing but praise and a hearty welcome for Miss Fletcher's book. She says that, in response to the expressed desire of many musicians, she has here given a number of songs in their matrix of story. That is, she has explained the circumstances amid which the thirty songs here presented are sung by the Indians. Thus the American composer may obtain not only musical themes, but stories and local color for songs or symphonic poems. He may, too, discover in the later pages many interesting things regarding the Indian's devotion to music, as that when an Indian sings he does not, like our musicians, try to make an impression on the audience, but simply pours out his own feelings. On the other hand, the Indian's song is utilitarian rather than æsthetic. He sings under many conditions, but usually with the object of gaining something. When he goes hunting, he sings to insure the assistance of the unseen power in capturing the game. When confronted with danger or death, he sings that he may have strength to meet his fate unflinchingly. When he planted, he sang that the seed might bring a bountiful harvest. The lover sings, or plays his flageolet, not to entertain the girl with music, but to let her know he is coming and where she can meet him; that is, in sounding his love-call he simply imitates the method of the birds. Details of this kind give the chief interest to Miss Fletcher's book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aristophanes' Peace. With Introduction and Notes by Rev. W. W. Merry. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Arnold, M. Poems Narrative, Elegiac, and Lyric. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Biddle, A. F. D. The Second Froggy Fairy Book. London: Gay & Bird; New York: Drexel Biddle.
Bigelow, Dr. H. J. Surgical Anæsthesia: Addresses and Other Papers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bigelow, Dr. H. J. Orthopedic Surgery, and Other Medical Papers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Carlyle, T. The French Revolution. Macmillan. 2 vols. $3.
Churchill, W. S. London to Ladysmith via Pretoria. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Dana, Mrs. W. S. How to Know the Wild Flowers: A Guide to the Names, Haunts, and Habits of Our Common Wild Flowers. New ed. Scribner. $2.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Outlines of Economics. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Fridenberg, P. The Ophthalmic Patient. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gardner, Alice. Studies in John the Scot (Erigena), A Philosopher of the Dark Ages. Henry Frowde. 75c.
Hardy, F. H. To the Healing of the Sea: A Novel. Drexel Biddle.
Ingersoll, E. Nature's Calendar. Harpers. $1.50.
Janvier, T. A. The Passing of Thomas, and Other Stories. Illustrated by C. D. Gibson and others. Harpers. $1.25.
Keats, J. Endymion. Cassells. 10c.
Lindsay, Prof. T. M. Luther and the German Reformation. [World's Epoch-Makers Series.] Scribner. $1.25.
Montgomery, T. H. A History of the University of Pennsylvania from its Foundation to A. D 1770. Including Biographical Sketches of the Trustees, Faculty, the First Alumni, and Others Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $5.
Parsons, Mary H. The Reading of Speech from the Lips. Providence, R. I: Akerman Co.
Penn, W. Some Fruits of Solitude. With an Introduction by E. Gosse. Truslove, Hanson & Comba. $1.
Pro Christo et Ecclesia. Macmillan. $1.50.
Quentin, R. P. H. Jean-Dominique Mansi et les Grandes Collections Conciliaires. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Reinach, S. Répertoire des Vases Peints Grecs et Etrusques. Paris: E. Leroux. Tome II. 5 fr.
Ruiz, L. A. The Cuban-American Tratado Analítico y Clave de Vocalización y Pronunciación del Idioma Inglés. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Ruskin, John. Giotto and his Works in Padua. London: George Allen; New York: Scribners. $3.00.
Shelley, Percy B. The Sensitive Plant. Illustrated by Laurence Housman. London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Swift, M. I. Advent of Empire: Poems. Los Angeles: The Ronbroke Press.
Tarkington, B. Monsieur Beaucaire. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
The American Tourist in France: Conversation Manual. Philadelphia: Tourist Publishing Co. 50c.
The Education of the Young in the Republic of Plato. Translated by B. Bosanquet. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Toile, G. The Boarder of Argyle Place. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Tuker, M. A. R., and Malleson, Hope. Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 3 vols.
Vaughan, H. Silex Scintillans, or Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Walton, I. The Complete Angler. Cassells. 10c.
Welbrandt, A. Der Meister von Palmyra. American Book Co. 80c
Westley, G. H. At the Court of the King. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
White, P. The West End. Harpers. $1.50.
White, Frances H. Helena's Wonderland. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 50c.
Williams, C. F. A. Bach. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Wilson, Prof. E. B. The Cell in Development and Inheritance. New ed. Macmillan. $3.50.
Wise, Hilda J. The Optimist, and Other Verses. New York: Privately printed.
Worsfold, W. B. A History of South Africa. [Temple Primers.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 14, 1900.

The Week.

The movement of those Democrats who supported Palmer and Buckner four years ago, looking to a convention to be held at Indianapolis on the 25th of July, is a note of encouragement to all independent voters. Those whose views on the subject of Imperialism prevent them from voting for McKinley, and whose opposition to the vagaries of Bryan deters them from supporting him, will hail it with satisfaction, since it promises to give them something positive to work for, instead of leaving them in a merely negative attitude. Mr. George Foster Peabody, the Chairman of the Palmer and Buckner National Committee, puts both of these subjects together as matters of deep concern to a large body of voters. "We want to see," he says, "what the Republicans have to say on what is called Imperialism; and then again the Republican currency plank may not be satisfactory. The same reasons apply to the Convention to be held at Kansas City." This action on the part of Mr. Peabody's committee has not been taken in an off-hand way, but in obedience to the rising opinion of the independent voters of the country. Six months ago, nothing seemed less likely than a third-party movement originating in the embers of the Palmer and Buckner movement of 1896. Now nothing seems more natural. That the Anti-Imperialist League, whose headquarters are in Chicago, will give very respectful attention to the proposed Indianapolis Convention, we do not doubt, although nobody can speak for that organization at the present time. Probably a conference of its members will be held for the purpose of deciding what action should be taken soon after the Kansas City Convention adjourns.

There is no reason to doubt the current story that a strong effort will be made, not only by Eastern Democrats, but also by the more sensible Bryanites of the South and West, to minimize the importance of silver in the Kansas City platform. The effort will be to secure a reaffirmation of the Chicago platform, which will satisfy the free-coinage men that silver has not been dropped as an issue, and yet will convince sound-money men that there is no serious intention to push free coinage in case of Bryan's election. This is the sort of thing that is easier said than done. It would be hard enough to carry out such a policy under the most favorable circumstances —that is to say, if a man could be nominated who had no connection with the Chicago platform. But Bryan means free coinage in 1900 as much as Cleveland meant tariff reform in 1892, and he has just taken pains to announce in a review article his uncompromising adherence to the old issue. Of course he cannot suddenly recant now, and even if he could be persuaded to lay less emphasis upon silver after getting the nomination than before, it would still be believed that he was at heart faithful to the cause. The only way for the party to cut loose from silver this year is to nominate a candidate who does not represent it, and who is ready to say that it is a dead issue, as Vallandigham said in 1870 of the position which the Democrats had up to that time taken regarding the reconstruction legislation as unconstitutional, null and void.

The *Tribune* published on Friday a Senatorial symposium on the achievements of Congress during the session which had just closed. All the Senators interviewed take a glowing view of their good deeds, and hold that the country ought to be grateful to them. Senator Allison points out that "the financial bill has settled the money standard, and the character and volume of our currency, which cannot be changed except by the concurrent action of both houses of Congress and the President, and has contributed largely to the prosperity we have and are likely to have in the future." There is a semblance of truth in this saying, but the financial bill would not be Allisonian if it were not susceptible of two or more interpretations. The measure passed by Congress, which was the Senate bill, does not change the pre-existing law as regards the standard of value. The gold standard was adopted in express terms in 1873. For that very reason the law then passed was called by its opponents the "crime of 1873," and their aim ever since has been to repeal it. The act to which Senator Allison refers confirms and reiterates the preëxisting law. In doing so it renders a great service because it quiets public opinion. It conveys to the public ear more than it actually accomplishes. But it leaves open a door of escape for all dodgers if the bill should be seriously attacked by the Bryanites, for in that event Mr. Allison could say that he and his colleagues had done nothing but reaffirm a preëxisting law, and make its execution a trifle more easy to the Secretary of the Treasury. The clause separating the currency functions of the Treasury from its duties as collector and disburser of the revenues is a wise and statesmanlike measure, but it does not alter any principles or essentially change any law. The truth is, that the Senate bill was intended to "hit if it is a deer and miss if it is a calf." It was much inferior to the House bill, but it will serve a good purpose, and the Republican party is entitled to the credit of it. Mr. Allison cannot be denied his share of the credit, but it is not the clean-cut, straightforward measure that the country expected, and even now thinks that it is.

Senator Allison has presented a statement concerning the appropriations made by Congress at this session. This statement is described as "carefully prepared"; and it is carefully prepared for popular consumption. It is calculated to convey the impression that our national affairs are managed with frugality. The appropriations, it is true, foot up about $710,000,000; but this includes $131,000,000 which is "incident to" the late war with Spain. A more correct description of this item would be "Expenses of trying to conquer the Philippine Islands." However, if we omit this little "incident," the ordinary appropriations amount to only $578,000,000. This is about $25,000,000 more than for this year, $45,000,000 more than in 1899, and $60,000,000 more than in 1897. It is $50,000,000 more than was appropriated in 1898. Pensions call for about $4,000,000 more, an amount which, according to Senator Allison, "simply represents the natural increase of the pension roll." The navy calls for $7,000,000 more, which is absolutely necessary in order to put the navy in the condition "universally demanded by the people for the national defence." So the increased appropriation for the Department of Agriculture is "only a proper compliance with the natural demands of the agricultural interests." We might add that increased appropriations are generally in compliance with the natural demands of some interest. The increased appropriation for the Post-Office, nearly $18,000,000, is because of the natural demands for shorter hours and higher pay made by the employees, and for postage at less than cost by various interests.

The hollowness of the tremendous anti-Trust agitation in Congress is well illustrated by the dispatches of the New York *Tribune* from Washington. On Saturday week the greatest contempt for the attitude of the Democrats was expressed. They had voted against the Constitutional amendment with agonies of pain, and for the Interstate Commerce Bill with equal distress, thus reversing their position within twenty-four hours. Such transparent hypocrisy drew forth the severest condemnation from the *Tribune's* correspondent. But now came the Senate's turn, and the case assumed a very different aspect. The Democratic

Senators actually proposed to put the Republicans' bill on the statute-book. They were so reckless as to make an insincere and belated effort to rush the measure through without even the safeguard of consideration in committee. What is worse, they were actuated in this by such an unworthy motive as the desire to make "campaign capital." Anxious as the Republicans have shown themselves to relieve the people from the tyranny of Trusts, they cannot consent to let it be done from any base motive. They are as reluctant as Falstaff was to give a reason upon compulsion; and their sincerity is equal to his.

Congress wriggled out of its deadlock on the armor-plate question in what is now getting to be its characteristic fashion—leaving the whole thing to the "discretion" of an executive officer. So momentous a matter as the Government's going into the manufacture of armor-plate is entirely turned over to Secretary Long for decision. If he cannot get what he needs from private manufacturers at a "reasonable" price, he is to start a factory of his own, and Congress puts $4,000,000 at his disposal to begin on. We have no doubt that Mr. Long will settle the thing wisely. Probably the corporations which make armor-plate, and which Senators of both parties denounced as conscienceless robbers, will conclude to be "reasonable," and give the navy its desired armor without making an outrageous or unconscionable profit. But, just the same, the method is vicious. It represents a dangerous departure from the historic jealousy and watchfulness of a representative assembly with power of the purse. No expenditure of public money without specific appropriation and detailed warrant, has been the watchword of representative government. Confiding in the "discretion" of an executive officer to do what is "reasonable" is the way in which dictators are made. Napoleon III. had such vague grants of power from the Corps Législatif, and Diaz has made himself master of Mexico by a like subservience of Congress. Secretary Long is the least likely tyrant we can think of, and, as we say, he will doubtless arrange the affair discreetly and well; but, none the less, the power given to him is one which Congress should never have abdicated.

It is a nice question whether the Republicans hurt or helped themselves by refusing to take up the Ship-Subsidy Bill in the recent session of Congress. They did not defeat the bill; they merely put it over. This leaves them in the attitude of being "willing to wound, and yet afraid to strike." Opponents of subsidies will be apt to say, "If you carry the next election, you will pass the bill; therefore, we will do our best to prevent you from carrying it." And how will the case stand with the long-suffering ship-owners? How will they feel when assessed just once more to save the country and get a subsidy? Well, if we were ship-owners, we should be very angry, and justly so, at the way we had been treated. Steadily promised subsidies for four years, in party platforms, Presidential messages, and private agreements with Hanna, and not one dollar voted us yet! Must we buy you again?

Mr. Platt is quite justified in regarding his success in making Hazel, the Buffalo representative of his machine, judge of a United States District Court for life as "the greatest victory of his political career." He rightly regards it as his own work. President McKinley was only his secretary in making the nomination; Senator Depew was only his echo in endorsing it; the rest of his associates were only lay figures in confirming his act, according to the law of "Senatorial courtesy." Nor was it merely the greatest victory of Platt's career when he secured first the nomination and then the unanimous confirmation of an unfit man as judge of a high court, against the vigorous opposition of an independent press and the earnest protest of the most weighty organized body of lawyers in the country. Neither Croker nor Hill ever won so signal a success in lowering the standard of the bench. Hill tried it when he had the Democrats of this State nominate Judge Maynard for the Court of Appeals after his discreditable share in stealing the State Senate had been exposed, but the people rejected his candidate by an overwhelming majority. Croker sought to rebuke independence on the bench by refusing Judge Daly the reëlection which he deserved, and was himself rebuked through the rejection of his party's candidate for Governor because of this assault upon the judiciary. Platt has "landed" his man, and he comes home to be treated as a statesman who should be consulted as to the administration of State affairs by the civil-service reformer who was elected Governor two years ago.

After months, even years, of persistent and heroic fighting on the battlefields and in the lobbies of Congress, Gens. Miles and Corbin have succeeded in getting their greatly desired and quite unearned promotions to Lieutenant-General and Major-General, respectively. After every straightforward attempt to pass a bill for this purpose had failed utterly, the legislative trick of attaching a rider to the Military Academy Bill succeeded in the last hours of the session, when opposition might have meant the defeat of this important appropriation measure. While there are some sentimental grounds for conferring upon Gen. Joseph Wheeler the Brigadier-Generalship in the regular army which he received as the very substantial reward for his subordinate work before Santiago and his holiday trip to the Philippines, no arguments can be brought out which will make the advancement of Corbin and Miles other than a most severe blow to what little there is left of the merit system in the army. It serves notice on every young officer that the true way to high rank is by the path of the politician, of the Washington bureaucrat, and of the unblushing seeker of easy positions in the vicinity of high personages, and will correspondingly discourage every officer who strives to rise by attention to duty and by devotion and self-sacrifice in the field. But Gen. Miles does not become a real commander. Instead of that, he remains merely an idle, titled figure-head, without influence or weight in service matters, while his subordinate usurps his position and powers by favor of the President.

Gen. Otis, safely landed on his native soil, continues to assert that the Philippine rebellion is "over," and everything lovely; but the same news association that gives out his jaunty optimism also sends a cablegram from Manila which belies it. Judge Taft learns from "high army officers" on the spot that "a larger army is necessary" to crush Gen. Otis's non-existent rebellion. Nearly all of the provincial officials and the presidents of municipalities over whom Professor Worcester gushed so effusively, have proved "treacherous," while the corruption of the native police and other public officials in Manila is strongly suspected. Moreover, the question what to do with the friars is more thorny than ever, Archbishop Chapelle taking the strange ground that the Catholic Church is entitled, under the Treaty of Paris, to the support of the United States Government in maintaining all its property rights in the Philippines. We had supposed that when the Catholic authorities learned from Lodge's speech that they had "robbed" the people, the lands held in mortmain would at once be surrendered. But they are holding on, and doing their obstinate best to add to those perplexities and difficulties of the Philippine problem which the new Commissioners confess to finding "well-nigh staggering."

It is argued that the decision of the Appellate Court in the Second Department, affirming the power of the Brooklyn Democratic General Committee to expel a disobedient member, does not necessarily go to the extent of prohibiting independent voting in municipal elections. The Primary Election Law declares that no association of citizens for the election of city officers shall be deemed a political party, nor shall membership in such association prevent an elec-

tor from enrolling as a member of a political party. It is possible to infer from this that the law would recognize the right of an elector to follow his pledges to the association for city elections, even if they conflicted with the policy and rules of his party. This question, however, was not considered by the Appellate Court. What is plain is, that the law does not recognize associations for city elections as legal entities, and that no one can be refused admission to a party because he belongs to such an association. The test of admission is the declaration of an intention to support at the next general election, State or national, the nominees of the party for State or national offices. This leaves the ordinary elector free to vote as he pleases in city elections; but the position of a member of a party committee is somewhat different. A very general profession of faith is sufficient to secure admission to membership in the Presbyterian Church; but several recent trials have shown that higher standards are required of the clergy. No one will maintain that party discipline could be maintained if the members of general committees allied themselves with independent movements; and the principle underlying the Primary Election Law is that party organizations are legal, and therefore capable of enforcing discipline.

The matter is of so much importance as to justify more detailed reference to the opinion of the court, which was written by Judge Goodrich. He reviews the steps by which party committees, which were until very recently voluntary associations, have been made political corporations. He points out that the intention of the Legislature has clearly been to make the General Committee the instrument for conducting, supervising, and carrying out the plans and purposes of its party and the election of its candidates for office. In every body of this character, "there is power inherent, aside from statute, to make rules essential for its own protection and existence, and the statute in question confirms the exercise of such power in providing for the making of rules and regulations." These rules are known to every candidate for election to the General Committee, and it is to be assumed that he is voted for in accordance with such rules. Any other assumption would defeat the plain purpose of primary elections. The Court further observes that there is no analogy between an elective office in a public body, like a Common Council, and the position of a member of a party committee. The holder of the former office is chosen to represent the whole people in a deliberative and executive body, and he has the right of voting therein upon questions coming before it as his judgment and conscience may dictate. But even in such bodies there are rules, for disobeying which members are expelled. On the case before it the decision of the Court seems to be justified; but unfortunately the rules and regulations actually adopted were not before it. Hence the important question involved would not be finally adjudicated on appeal. It must be determined in another proceeding; but the present decision shows how much the primary-election laws have increased the power of the party machines.

The Republican Committee in Lebanon County, Pa., recently adopted a resolution to the effect that all candidates for Congress or the Legislature must sign a pledge to attend the party caucuses and abide by their decisions. Several persons who desired to register as candidates for nomination at the primary meetings, but who declined to give this pledge, were refused registration. The court, however, granted a mandamus compelling the committee to register their names. It was contended, for the Committee, that the doctrine of majority rule should apply. The resolution, it was urged, amounted only to a recognition of this rule. It must be admitted that this position is correct, according to the theory which would make party organizations constituent elements in our government. On this theory a Republican County Committee is a legislative body, and no Legislature can act except under the principle of majority rule. But the Pennsylvania court declined to accept the logical implications of the new theory. It took the position that when a citizen was elected to the State Legislature, he became, on taking the oath of office, a representative of the whole people, and ceased to be the representative of a party. Hence the signing of a pledge committing him in advance to the support of measures which he might regard as prejudicial to the public welfare, would be inconsistent with his Constitutional duty. Accordingly, the court compelled the Committee to register the names of the candidates who had declared their independence of party dictation. The result may be demoralizing to party discipline, but it is favorable to good government.

There can be no doubt that the Dowager-Empress of China has stirred up the antagonism to foreigners in the maritime provinces. Last December the *North China Herald* published the text of a secret edict issued by the Empress and addressed to the viceroys of the territory into which the Germans, French, and English have lately gone. In this she took a bold tone. The Empire was threatened with serious difficulties. "The various Powers cast upon us looks of tiger-like voracity, hustling each other in their endeavors to be the first to seize upon our innermost territories." This aggression was due, said the Empress, to the belief of foreign nations that China would "never venture to go to war with them." But, she added, "They fail to understand that there are certain things which this Empire can never consent to, and that, if hard pressed, we have no alternative but to rely upon the justice of our cause." We may well believe, then, that it is the Empress who is now openly encouraging those anti-foreign marauders, the "Boxers," whose fanatic zeal drives them into armed conflict with the forces of the European Powers.

That the resulting situation is most grave in its possibilities of danger is evident. The chief difficulty will be, we believe, to unite the various Powers in a common policy. Suspicions of Russia and her "espérances ultérieures" is too strong on the part of both England and Japan to make coöperation easy. The recent success of M. Pavloff in getting Masampho harbor away from Japan has left that ambitious nation very sore. Even in England, absorbed as she is by her gigantic efforts in South Africa, the incident provoked much angry discussion, and was regarded as a new proof of Russian perfidy. The apparent breach of faith lies in the fact that Russia made in 1886 a "sincere promise" to the Chinese Government that, "if the British would evacuate Port Hamilton, the Russian Government would not occupy Korean territory under any circumstances whatever." Nevertheless, Russia has just acquired the finest Korean harbor, exactly abreast of Japan, who herself was trying to get it. With the Russian Government thus steadily and remorselessly pursuing its secular policy of absorption of North China and control of the Yellow Sea, it will be hard to keep other nations from fearing that she is ready to fish in the troubled waters. Meanwhile, the duty of our Government is simple. We must, so far as possible, protect American citizens in China, who are there under treaty rights. If the Chinese Government confesses itself unable to suppress internal disorder, we must join the other Powers, not in attempting to reform or govern China, but in trying to rescue our own countrymen from the fury of an irresponsible mob. The temptation will be to take part in some gorgeous scheme for partition of territory. Secretary Hay's Chinese negotiation distinctly reserved to the United States a free hand in that regard. We observe that Congressman Hitt expects a break-up of the Chinese Empire, and a division of its territory among "live" nations, presumably including our own. But we do not apprehend that Mr. McKinley, with the Philippine wolf on his hands, which he would be so glad to let go if he dared, will clutch a Chinese dragon to add to his embarrassments, nor does Philippine propinquity facilitate a demonstration in force.

THE RECORD OF CONGRESS.

It is almost thirty years since the conditions for effective legislative work, during the last half of a President's term, were so propitious as when Congress assembled on the 4th of December last. In the corresponding month of 1871, Grant sent his annual message to a Senate and House both of which were controlled by his party; but neither Grant in the latter half of his second term, nor Hayes, nor Arthur, nor Cleveland, in either of his terms, nor Harrison, was so fortunate. In other words, almost a generation had passed since an Administration was so happily situated as was Mr. McKinley's six months ago.

An ambitious programme was outlined at the opening of the session, but only a small part of it has been performed. One great achievement is to be set down to the credit of the Fifty-sixth Congress —the passage of the Gold-Standard Act. It marked the end of a contest which had raged with varying fortune for more than a quarter of a century, and it signalized the final triumph of sound financial principles. But the old financial controversy was disposed of by the 11th of February, and there was no limit to the session of Congress, while the custom in Presidential years has been not to adjourn until late in the summer or even in the autumn. There was consequently plenty of time for deliberate action on the other great issues which were presented by the President. The first recommendation in Mr. McKinley's message was a law to maintain the gold standard; the second, "wise and judicious action" in restraint of the evil of Trusts, such action to follow "the studied deliberation of the Congress," which he announced that he was "sure" it would receive. Instead of this result, the Republican managers in the House did nothing on the subject until the fag-end of the session, when they brought forward a proposition to amend the Constitution, the humbug of which was clearly exposed by Representative McCall of Massachusetts, one of the ablest Republican members; and a bill which they knew the Senate would not have a moment to consider. The whole treatment of this question has been nothing but a cheap effort to make party capital, which proved so transparent that few people can be deluded by it.

The first attempt to deal in a legislative way with "our new possessions" resulted in a dreadful muddle. The President urgently advised the immediate organization of a government for Porto Rico, and the most liberal treatment of the island in the matter of trade. "Our plain duty," he told Congress, "is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico and give her products free access to our markets." This was at the beginning of December. Not until almost the middle of April was any law passed, and that was one which imposed a tariff, and which contained so many arbitrary features that the Republican Chairman of the Committee on Insular Affairs in the party caucus protested against it as one which could not be defended upon the stump. Porto Rico could not be granted free trade, as a matter of principle, many Republicans in Congress contended, and then they passed a law which grants free trade to Hawaii! Hawaii, too, was more fortunate than Porto Rico in obtaining protection from the danger of a carpet-bagger plague. Alaska at last secured a little attention from Congress, and, after being in our possession more than thirty years, it has been provided with an organized government of a pretty arbitrary nature.

The Philippine problem is left where it was. "The future government of the Philippines rests with the Congress of the United States," said President McKinley in his message. President Schurman of the Philippine Commission had been most insistent that Congress should take action, pointing out that "the shrewd Filipinos" put no faith in the promises of his Commission, because they realized that only Congress could determine their political status. Senator Spooner of Wisconsin urged that at least Congress should pass a bill, which he introduced, that would formally vest the President by the authority of Congress with the dictatorial powers which he is exercising. He pleaded that "Congress ought to put this measure of authority behind the President"; that it "seems to be unjust" to leave it all to his war power. But Congress would not do even this. It simply shirked.

Shirked is also the word that describes the attitude of Congress towards the question of a reform in taxation. That the war taxes ought to be reduced was not disputed, but the question was put over till next winter. One good effect of this policy of shirk was the failure to push through the shipping-subsidy scheme at this session. Too many Republican Representatives from close districts dreaded the effect upon their personal fortunes of the passage of such a job by their party.

On the whole, this is not a review for a great party, secure in its possession of all branches of the Government, to be proud of. The Porto Rico muddle, the shirking of the Philippine issue, the demagogical treatment of the Trust question, and the neglect of important matters with no other excuse than that Hanna wanted the session ended early, go far to counterbalance the credit for the Gold-Standard Act—itself rather an astute manœuvre for the support of the moneyed classes in the Presidential election than a reasoned return to sound notions of finance and public credit.

CONCILIATION VS. STRIKES.

The city of St. Louis has been practically in the hands of a mob for five weeks in consequence of the failure of the public authorities to enforce the law. The Mayor of the city and the Governor of the State have been equally derelict in the performance of their sworn duty, and the consequence has been a series of outrages which have brought St. Louis not only into contempt, but into terror, and have made it a place to be avoided by the travelling public. The State of Missouri, like the other American commonwealths, has a force of citizen soldiers, organized, drilled, officered, provided with arms, ammunition, accoutrements, for the purpose of suppressing insurrections and enforcing the laws when the same are overborne by rioters. Yet not one soldier has been called out by the Governor, although murder has been repeatedly committed in the streets, and the grossest outrages have been perpetrated upon women who have ventured to ride in the street cars. Until Sunday, June 10, the killing and maiming were all on one side—the victims having been law-abiding citizens exclusively. On that day the posse comitatus summoned by the Sheriff got to work and fired on the rioters, killing four and wounding many others. Some of the injured were bystanders, drawn to the scene of disorder by curiosity or sympathy with the strikers.

Affairs have now reached a crisis where the Governor must act decisively, or the city will be in danger of conflagration and pillage. When he does act, he can act in only one way. He must enforce the laws as they stand on the statute-book. He has hitherto helped the rioters by doing nothing, but when he does something he must take the other side, and it will be to his interest to put down the insurrection as promptly as possible. After this is done, it will be well for all to consider some method of avoiding these direful outbreaks in the future. We have had similar experiences recently in Milwaukee and Cleveland, and there is now going on in Chicago a strike and a lockout in the building trade which is prevented from being a bloody turmoil only by the city Government surrendering to the Building Trades Council. There ought to be some more rational method of dealing with these perpetually recurring social phenomena.

The May number of the *Bulletin of the Department of Labor* (Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner) is of unusual interest at this time, in view of the desperate strikes in progress at St. Louis and Chicago. It contains a paper of 101 pages on "Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration in Great Britain," by John Bruce McPherson, embracing a history of the great engineering strike, the coal strike, the strikes in the boot and shoe,

and in the hosiery, the lace, the iron, and several other trades, which have taken place in recent years, and which were finally settled by conciliation or arbitration or both. The marked feature of all these struggles was that they entailed a vast deal of suffering and loss upon both employers and employed, and were finally adjusted on principles which might have been just as easily agreed to in the beginning, without any kind of strife.

The outcome of the experience gained has been the adoption by voluntary action in nearly all the trades, and in almost all the industrial centres, of certain rules to be applied in all cases of dispute between employers and workmen. The first is, that certain persons shall be chosen as conciliators, to constitute a permanent board, representing both sides in equal numbers, ready to take up and consider any case of dispute at any time. The second rule is, that, while they are considering the question or questions referred to them, the work shall proceed on the pre-existing basis. The third is, that, in the event of failure of the board of conciliation to reach an agreement, they may (not must) call in the services of an umpire, whose decision shall be final, if both sides unite in appointing him. The shoe trade has a standing umpire, and has also a certain sum of money deposited as a forfeit in case of any refusal to obey the umpire's decision. The boards of conciliation seldom fail to come to an agreement, and therefore seldom need the services of an umpire. The New Zealand system of compulsory arbitration is not favored in England by either masters or men.

It is agreed on all hands that many strikes have been averted by the boards of conciliation. They have created and fostered respect and good feeling between employers and workmen. The two meet each other as friends, and not as enemies. The workmen believe the statements made to them, because the facts relating to the business are open to expert accountants employed by them, and can be ascertained without any chance of error. There have been cases where a threatened strike was averted without a meeting of the board of conciliation, merely by convincing the men that the state of the trade, the cost of production, and the prices of the finished product did not warrant an advance of wages.

The testimony of a large number of persons representing both wage-earners and employers is cited by Mr. McPherson to show that the system is satisfactory to both. Mr. T. Burt, M.P., a representative of the coal-miners, said he wanted conciliation first of all, with arbitration in the background, so that, if conciliation fails, the differences may be settled in some more rational method than the strike or lockout. The Chairman of the Iron and Steel Conciliation Board of the North of England, speaking from twenty-five years' experience, said that the coming together of masters and men had almost eliminated partisan speeches, and that the workmen's representatives came to the meetings determined to do what was right, in spite of the operatives who sent them. "The conciliation board has become an element of education. The two sides wanted to enlighten each other, to understand each other, believe each other, and to discuss matters and lay open their minds fully." Mr. R. Spence Watson said that the moral value of conciliation is enormous. "The fact that masters and men meet around the same table on the same level and with the opportunity of ascertaining each other's standpoint, of giving and taking an argument, and of ultimately being swayed by reasonable considerations, is of great value."

The number of the *Bulletin* which contains this information ought to have the widest possible circulation. What has been done in England to minimize strikes and lockouts may be done here, if the spirit of conciliation can once be awakened, and we think of nothing more likely to awaken it than the perusal of this plain narrative.

MAYOR VAN WYCK'S POSITION.

The careful opinion rendered by Judge Dillon to Comptroller Coler, in the matter of the American Ice Company, may not silence the whoops of the sensational press, but it will convince intelligent people of the folly of newspaper prosecutions. There is no higher authority than Judge Dillon on municipal law, and when he states that, as a general principle, ownership of stock in a corporation does not carry with it responsibility for the acts of the directors of the corporation, and that the principle applies even when the stockholder is a municipal officer, it is certainly not improbable that the courts will take the same view. So far as the general principle is concerned, a little reflection will satisfy most people that the application of any other rule would be attended with startling consequences. The number of persons owning stock in one company or another must be expressed in millions; every one who has much property, it might almost be said, is interested, directly or indirectly, in some corporation. If they were all responsible for all the contracts made by the directors of these concerns, the situation would be absurd and intolerable. No one would know at any moment that he was not guilty of some offence or other, and the imputation of sin would be as extensive at law as in theology.

The illustrations employed by Judge Dillon are certainly impressive. He shows that the city is obliged to have contracts with numberless transportation companies for the use of wharves and streets, and that the newspaper construction of the law would make it possible for any city officer to render these contracts voidable by purchasing some of the stock of the corporations parties to them. A large part of the vast business of transporting passengers might thus be clouded with illegality. Any city officer, on learning of the execution of a contract with any corporation, might vitiate it by buying a share of stock in Wall Street. It is conceivable that the representatives of one corporation, when a city contract had been awarded to a rival, might "hang it up" by inducing some petty official to purchase some of the stock of the successful concern. Worse things than that have been done by many a city officer in the past. While it may be said that such practices are not likely to occur, yet a construction of the law which would permit of such complications is not likely to be sustained by the courts, if a more rational construction is possible; and that it is possible, appears from Judge Dillon's opinion.

The employment, meanwhile, of the judicial machinery of the State in a prosecution instigated by certain newspaper proprietors constitutes an innovation in our jurisprudence, and the calling upon persons suspected of wrongdoing to prove themselves innocent, or to confess their guilt, has been attended in this case with the results which caused it to be discarded in England. As our people plainly observed when they were regarding the mote in the French eye, at the time of the Dreyfus trial, the inducement to prevarication is very strong. The accused person has to admit certain facts; but he is able to introduce a good many fictions. According to the maxim, *falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus*, the whole of the evidence of a lying witness is discredited. But according to the Continental system, which the tyranny of the Trusts is compelling us to introduce in our jurisprudence, the public, if not the court, is at liberty to accept whatever testimony confirms its suspicions of guilt, and reject all that establishes innocence. This prerogative it will certainly exercise in the case of Mayor Van Wyck. He has been forced to testify against himself; but his testimony in his own favor will be received with incredulity.

Certainly it is not intrinsically probable that Mayor Van Wyck was ignorant that Mr. Morse was President of the Ice Company; that he was ignorant that the company was to sell ice to the city of New York; that he took a trip to Maine with Mr. Morse and Mr. Carroll early in May, and sailed up and down the Penobscot River for pleasure, and without thinking much about the ice company in which he had 5,000 shares of stock. It is not very credible that he never thought that this city was a large consumer of

ice; that he knew nothing concerning the arrangements between the ice company and the Department of Docks; that he was not aware that some of his political associates were large owners of stock in the company. Nor is it easy to believe that his account of the manner in which he acquired his stock is altogether accurate or complete. For the amount of cash that he furnished, he certainly received an intolerable deal of stock, unless it was believed by the managers of the company that it would be advantageous that the Mayor should be a large stockholder.

Were it possible to look at this testimony by itself, without taking cognizance of the character of our government, and without reference to our municipal history, the case against the Mayor would be very feeble. Up to this point no proof has been given that the officers of the city have granted especial favors to the American Ice Company. It was generally supposed that it enjoyed exclusive privileges on the wharves of the city, but the evidence so far obtained is to the contrary. On the face of the proceedings, the Mayor would seem to have been speculating rather recklessly, with the aid of some very liberal friends, in a stock which is now worth less than he paid or agreed to pay for it. It does not affirmatively appear that he used his official position to secure contracts or privileges for this company, that it proved advantageous to the company to have him as a stockholder, or advantageous to him to be one. From a purely legal point of view, all that has been established is that the Mayor has been speculating in the stock of an odious corporation; which is hardly official malfeasance.

But from a moral point of view the case is different. Every one knows how the city is governed; that it is impossible to do business with it on a large scale without submitting to some form of blackmail. The protection extended by the police to all sorts of illegal establishments is notorious. No amount of evidence would convince this community that such a corporation as the American Ice Company, having many stockholders who belong to the controlling party, does not somehow enjoy special facilities for carrying on its business, or that its competitors do not meet with special difficulties. Some men who have been mayors would have been believed had they testified to their own innocence, but Mayor Van Wyck's reputation is not sufficient to clear him. Were he personally esteemed he might fare better; but even then he would be regarded as one member of an organization whose end it is to make a profit out of the administration of the government. So long as that organization is intrusted with power by the people of this city, so long will its members secretly or openly work for this end. If they did not use their places for the benefit of the favorites of the Boss, he would find others who would be more subservient.

CIVIL-SERVICE PENSIONS.

One of the most remarkable steps in the gradual restoration of privilege that have taken place in modern times is the demand for the payment of pensions to the officers of government. At the time of the Revolution, one of the popular complaints against the British Government was that it was so lavish in this respect. Such misapplication of revenue derived from taxing the people was sternly condemned as an aristocratic abuse, and as incompatible with the austere virtue that should prevail in the government of a republic. The reckless enthusiasm aroused by war, it is true, overcame all our objections to military pensions, and the lavishness with which they have been given was not surpassed even in the days when Sulla apportioned among his soldiers the possessions of his enemies. Nevertheless, Congress has hitherto revolted at the suggestion of civil pensions. It has been demonstrated that there are a number of superannuated clerks in the bureaus at Washington whom no one dares to dismiss, but who render no useful service, and it has been proposed to retire them on pensions. But Congress will not listen to the proposal.

Probably this conservatism is due partly to the traditional hostility to civil pensions, but the chief reason of it is that Congress shrinks appalled from the prospect which would be opened were a beginning made. The awful abuses of the existing pension system are borne with singular patience by the people; but if they had to support a horde of retired clerks and postmasters, the burden might be too much for their endurance. At all events, Congress has hitherto rejected all suggestions for pensioning civil employees, and there are no signs at present that it will change its policy. It is possible that, as tenure of office becomes more permanent, the feeling of Congress may change; but even then it will be thought that a man who has received a salary for many years from the Government, ought to have made some provision for supporting himself in his old age.

In several of the States, however, the Legislature has listened to the advocates of civil pensions, and there are signs that the pressure to secure them will soon become serious. An association of persons holding office under the Government of New York has lately been formed, with the avowed object of procuring the passage of laws which shall secure to every officer who has served twenty-five years a pension amounting to one-half of his salary. Nearly 3,500 persons have already joined this league, and as there are 40,000 in this city and 20,000 in other parts of the State who are eligible, it is evident that an irresistible pressure can be exerted on such a body as the New York Legislature. The members of that body are generally anxious to propitiate every organization that controls votes, and if the civil employees choose to form such an organization, they can probably obtain whatever they demand from the Legislature. The policemen of this city have several times procured increased salaries by the customary methods of assessment and employing lobby-men at Albany, and their example is easily followed.

It is unfortunate that this aspect of the pension question is the one which we must first consider. As the Pennsylvania Railroad Company and many other great corporations have shown, there is nothing unbusinesslike in the systematic payment of retiring pensions. Judging from experience, however, there would be nothing businesslike in such a pension system as our Legislature would develop. The system of pensioning policemen in this city is altogether indefensible. The pension fund has been in existence nineteen years, and there are 1,900 pensioners; while the active force is about 7,500. The sum of $880,000 was paid to these pensioners last year, and nearly $340,000 was paid to retired firemen. Of late, police surgeons have succeeded in securing pensions, and the widows of policemen are pensioned in increasing numbers. Comparatively few of these pensions are paid because of disability, and very many pensioners are in active business. Mr. McCullagh, the Superintendent of Elections, draws a salary of $5,000 a year from the State, while he receives $3,000 as retired Chief of Police. What additional sum he has received for managing the Police Department in Havana will perhaps be known when the accounts of our Cuban Government are honestly audited.

The injustice of pensioning the officers of Government is keenly felt by persons of equal capacity and merit who are in private employ. Mr. Coler has recently explained to us that the increase of $15,000,000 in the expense of carrying on the affairs of the enlarged city is chiefly due to the payment to large numbers of officers of much higher salaries than they had been receiving. Such increases, of course, create a privileged class, and it will be very unjust to add pensions to the existing largesses. As a rule the officers of Government are paid more for their work than ordinary citizens receive. This is too notorious to admit of argument, and yet it is the chief cause of political corruption. Were the emoluments of public service no greater than those of private business, there would be no inducement for politicians to follow their trade. They intend to get easy places at the expense of the public, and in this State they succeed to an alarming and oppressive extent. To pension

them at the age of forty-five or fifty, or even sixty, would be to throw the support of a large class of unproductive people on the industrious members of society, and to establish as unjust a privilege as exists in any aristocracy.

There are in some of the States laws for the pensioning of public-school teachers which do not require the expense to be borne by the public. The teachers are allowed to assess themselves and to pay pensions from the fund thus created, the State acting as financial agent. These laws are, in some cases at least, certain to result in disappointment and to cause cruel injustice. They are based on the mutual-assessment principle which has in recent years been so disastrously misapplied. The school-teachers' pension fund in Chicago has lately been examined by an actuary, and found to be utterly insolvent. About 6,000 persons have been contributing to this fund, expecting to receive a pension amounting to half their salary on retiring. There is now an impairment of over $600,000, and those who supposed that they would get a pension of $600 a year find that $25 is all that they can hope for. Nothing is more certain than life-insurance when scientifically managed; nothing is more ruinous when undertaken by incompetent and ignorant persons.

THE WAR AND ENGLISH POLITICS.

With Lord Roberts in Pretoria, and the South African war regarded as nearing its end, the burning question in English public life has become, Will Parliament be dissolved this year? Talk of an immediate general election was a good deal heard after the by-election in the Isle of Wight, a month ago, when the Conservative majority was doubled. To Mr. Chamberlain and the Young Tories the prospect of getting the country to "vote khaki," without the need of any definite programme or party promises, was highly inviting. Then, when the Manchester election came along three weeks ago, and showed a Conservative majority increased from 78 to more than 2,000, a strong element of the party was wild for speedy dissolution. What a splendid chance to get a majority of 200 or so in the next Parliament! All that would be necessary would be to clap the electors on the back and hurrah loudly for "Bobs" and "B-P.," and the thing would be done.

"I wonder what Chamberlain is driving at—a dissolution?" This is the question asked by a member of the Cabinet the other day, when the uncommonly conciliatory attitude of the Colonial Secretary in the Australian business was observed. Since then, and following up the Manchester triumph, Mr. Chamberlain has almost openly organized a "boom" for an early dissolution. It is one proof more of his "smartness," in the sense of the American politician. Why not go to the country when in its present jovial mood, and while the Liberals are disorganized, and get another lease of power for six years? The fact that most of the power would fall to the man responsible for the war, and possibly make him Prime Minister, does not diminish Mr. Chamberlain's eagerness to strike while khaki's the only wear. Not a word would he need to speak about his famous "social programme," now for ever shelved. The election would be just one splurge about glory and gallantry and the new laurels of Empire, and the Liberals would be nowhere. So reasons "pushful Joe."

But there are two powerful sections of the Conservative party opposed to his plan. One of them is as willing as he to reap a political advantage from the war, but maintains that it would be indecent to dissolve in July. These Tory leaders contend that they must wait till the war is well over, and then go to the country on the terms of settlement. They would have the general election come off in November—not too far away from the war to have lost its prestige, yet far enough not to be open to the charge of sharp practice in scrambling greedily to reap the fruits of victory; while submission of the settlement to the sense of the electors would be more in line with party traditions. Lord Salisbury, however, is believed to be against this proposal, as well as against Chamberlain's. He considers it undignified to rush the electors, and improper to go to the country for instructions how to settle the war. His plan is—and it is, no doubt, the traditional and correct one—for the Government quietly to carry the whole thing through, and then ask the constituencies to pass judgment upon the completed transaction. Such is confidently alleged to be the attitude of the Premier, and that it really is seems fairly to be implied in a sentence in Lord Salisbury's speech to the London Conservatives week before last. He said: "We are not at the end of the war, and, even if we were, the time would hardly have come when it would be safe to prophesy the precise course which the policy of her Majesty's Government will take."

As for the historical precedents, all those of recent years are against dissolution before 1901. Parliament has yet two years to run, and no Prime Minister of modern times, with a united Cabinet, has dissolved before the sixth year of his Parliament, unless defeated in the Commons or in the Lords. It has not been considered wise to allow a Parliament to extend to its full legal term of seven years. Questions might arise in its last months with which it was wholly unfitted to deal; and so it has come about that dissolution in the sixth year is the unwritten law of the British Constitution. Gladstone observed the rule in 1874, and so did Disraeli in 1880. The latter was strongly urged in 1878, when he came back in triumph from Berlin, and all England was ringing with his name, to dissolve at once and intrench himself in power. But he refused to violate precedent, and went to disastrous defeat in 1880. Mr. Chamberlain is said to be much impressed by Disraeli's failure to catch the flowing tide, and to be resolved to make no such blunder himself. His motto is, "Let who will be correct if I may be successful." His present influence in Conservative counsels is such that, according to the best opinion in political circles, he is likely to have his way, so far as to fix the general election no later than November. We shall get light on the subject when Parliament reassembles, as it does to-day.

With the Liberals in their present demoralized condition, it must be said that the Conservatives seem sure of winning whenever they decide to make their appeal to the electors. Mr. Balfour was not too wide of the mark when he said jocosely the other night that the Liberal organization was a fine one, deserving of all respect, and that all it lacked was a leader and some principles. Lord Rosebery may get up an issue on radical army reform and unite the party again behind him for the time being, drawing off also some of the Conservatives who think Salisbury too old-fogey in his Imperialism; but it is impossible to imagine the English Liberals, with their history and traditions, long following such a leadership with such a programme. In the end, they will pull themselves together and find a leader who will know how to recreate the old enthusiasm for domestic reform and democratic progress. The Liberals have been terribly beaten before, yet have rallied. In 1885 the London *Times* spoke of "the irremediable disruption and hopeless disorganization of the Liberal party, with its high historic past." Yet it has been in power twice since then. For its low estate in 1885 the *Times* said that "the Liberals have to thank Mr. Chamberlain"! Having thus wrecked the Liberal party, he may yet perform the same kindly office for the Conservatives.

AUSTRIAN ANTI-SEMITISM.

VIENNA, May 24, 1900.

After the Dreyfus case and the endless brawling of the French thereover, one does not expect to find a country in which Anti-Semitism has reached a lower level than in France. Yet Austria is such a country. The end is not quite the same. To the various political, social, and business elements which contribute to French Anti-Semitism, Austria, in default of a high-treason trial, adds another—a burning desire on the part of a considerable section of the people "to defend Christianity and to Christianize the Jew."

As in France, so in Austria, the capital

is the chief seat of Anti-Semitism. There it introduces itself to the new-comer at once and in every class of society. The restaurant-keeper hands him *Kikeriki*, a sheet of political doggerel, once Liberal, but now coarsely Anti-Semitic. His landlord tells him that the public lectures of Nothnagel, the Dean of the Medical Faculty of the University, are reported in the papers only because Nothnagel is a Jew (he is in fact a Protestant), and because the press is all for the Jews. The Jew-baiting politician puts over the gate of his country-seat the sign, "Dogs and Jews forbidden to enter" (*Hunden und Juden ist der Eintritt nicht gestattet*). The apothecary, hearing Heine called a notable poet, sniffs out contemptuously, "Heine! A mere Jew!" Heine, indeed, comes in for so large a share of obloquy that when (May 1, 1900) the 'Harzreise' was to undergo a sort of theatrical production, an Anti-Semitic paper demanded that Christians should not endure this honor to Heine, and it was found necessary to place policemen throughout the hall that the performance might not be disturbed. Thus is all Jewry lashed over Heine's shoulders.

Fortunately for the Jews, those who would feel ostracism most deeply are able to conquer it in one of two ways. So many are rich enough to force their way into the upper circles that the Jew plays a very much more important part in Austrian than in American society. He may even marry and give in marriage among the aristocracy—if he will be baptized. But even more potent than his wealth is the marvellous intellectual competency of the European Jew. "Therein," says an Austrian friend, "lies the difference between our treatment of Jews and your treatment of negroes. The Jew can take care of himself, but the negro is a child for whose well-being and progress you whites are responsible." "Mainly in Jewish circles will you find intelligent Austrian women," said an Austrian Christian to me. Again, "Nearly every notable Austrian journalist is of Jewish blood." In sober truth, the number of men of Jewish blood occupying positions in which intelligence is the chief requisite, is astounding, and has, not without cause, wakened in the breast of the easy-going Viennese a fear that he will soon not only be outstripped, but pushed to the wall. He thinks himself forced, therefore, to try measures of repression; for instance, to prevent the Jews from Hebraizing certain institutions—one might almost say certain branches of learning. When Weidel, the head of the First Chemical Institute, died in 1899, the only available man of sufficient prestige to fill his place was the Jew Goldschmidt. But since Lieben, the head of the Second Chemical Institute, was also a Jew, Goldschmidt was told that he could have the place only if he would be baptized. He refused, and in May, 1900, the place is still vacant.

Such cases, in which social and religious abhorrence becomes real persecution, are common. They range from the stupendous to the petty. For example, a theatre has been founded (the Kaiser-Jubeläums-Stadt Theater) in which no Jewish actors or employees, and no plays written by Jews, may appear. Furthermore, in defiance of Austrian custom, every spectator is forced to buy a programme, and to buy it within the theatre; this in order that the Jewish peddlers who sell theatre programmes on the streets may lose the few poor kreuzers they formerly earned. Under such circumstances one cannot wonder that apostasy is common. The Jewish *privat-docent*, for instance, feels in most cases that he can gain the desired professorship only by abandoning the faith of his fathers and giving a nominal adhesion to the Roman Church. That is perhaps the most terrible feature of it all—this fostering of a traffic in religion.

Naturally, private endeavor has not stamped out the Jewish pest. Recourse is therefore had to political measures. The party now dominant in Vienna, the Christian Socialist party, evolved from the brain of Dr. Lueger, Bürgermeister of Vienna, and Representative in the Landtag and in the Reichsrath, is dedicated to this end. Some years ago, Lueger, not then in office, said, "Only a rascal or a fool can become an Anti-Semite." He himself belongs to the first class. His really notable talents he has employed in the service of every party that would forward his personal ambition. Now safely lodged in the highest municipal office, he concentrates his activity on Anti-Semitism, hoping that, by thus pandering to the well-known inclinations of the royal family, he may gain a seat in the Ministry. Under his control the Vienna Gemeinderath (Common Council) is a mere whip for lashing Jews. The present Gemeinderath is more stupidly vicious than the Chicago Board of Aldermen. Those who know, say that the English of "Hinky-Dink" and "Bath-House John" is a pure and elegant style when compared to the German of the majority acting in the Gemeinderath under Lueger's orders. Certain it is that heads would be broken if the epithets bandied about here were ever heard in an American Council-room. Interrupting a speaker with "Keep quiet, you pig of a Jew!" (*Ruhig, Sau-Jude!*) is one of the mildest methods used to silence the Liberal minority. If the Liberal speaker cannot so be silenced, the Herr Bürgermeister, from his chair of state, will find that his honor has been sullied, and will dismiss the offender for a week or more. In one sitting, when the Liberals protested vigorously against some unfairness on Lueger's part, four were sent out, like whipped school-boys, within ten minutes. Even the press gallery is not free, and for a long time the representatives of the *Neue Freie Presse*, the best paper in Vienna, were excluded from the gallery because the editor had commented unfavorably on the Lueger régime.

Over his own party, in which he is without exaggeration the only man of education or talent, Lueger's rule is absolute. That he has not achieved more than he has is indeed a wonderful testimony to the futility of persecution. Aside from petty persecutions, however, such as failing to promote competent Jewish teachers, his four years of rule have produced but two notable results. An entirely adequate gas-system already underground has been abandoned and a new system put in by the city—the Socialist part of the name had to be justified in some way—at a cost of 30,000,000 gulden, and a new system of dividing the electors has been put into effect. This last manœuvre is an impudently open gerrymander to secure Lueger's ascendency for four years more. The Viennese electors are arranged in classes, the three highest classes voting in separate years and for separate representatives. The highest class, consisting of large property owners, wholesale merchants, etc., was not very decidedly Christian Socialist. The second class, called "the Intelligence class," included doctors, lawyers, professors, etc., and, as was to be expected, opposed Luegerism. Then came the small shop-keeper (*der kleine Mann*) class, a vast class here in Vienna. To these men Lueger long ago promised a wonderful increase of prosperity if they would only trust him and hate Jews. Hence, until recently, the third class was reliably anti-Semitic. At the bottom was the workingmen's class, socialistic in tendency, and strongly anti-Lueger. The numbers of this last class are large, but their power small, because they vote but once in four years, and then with the other three classes, for representatives which shall represent all four bodies of electors.

Recently the gross unfairness of Lueger's methods, the unheard-of stupidity of the gas-works affair, and the non-appearance of that greater prosperity with which Luegerism heralded its approach, have induced slight back-currents. An election was at hand, and Lueger felt insecure. He therefore brought about the passage of a law shifting vast numbers of the reliably Christian-Socialist third class into the first and second classes. The gaps in the third class he filled up with city and court employees drawn from the fourth class, men who must vote as he wished or lose their places. This might have seemed enough; but he proceeded to make up the voting lists in the most scandalous manner. If you lack the necessary certificates, but are vouched for by a known Anti-Semite, down goes your name; if not, you lose your vote, even though you be vouched for by men of unimpeachable integrity. In short, Lueger and Company make or unmake voters just as they please.

Apparently, Dr. Lueger had won his perpetual reëlection, and he would have been happy indeed but that, despite his entreaties, the Liberal Councillors resigned in a body, saying that the constituencies which had elected them no longer existed. The corollary was obvious even to the Vienna Christian-Socialist. The only answer left to the Rump Gemeinderath was to cry out, on hearing of the "defection" of their colleagues, that the council was at last "purged of Jews" (*Juden-rein*). That the vast majority of the Councillors who resigned had no trace of Jewish blood, however Jewish their sympathies had been made by Luegerism, did not seem to the Christian Socialists to affect the pertinency of the cry. Well may the *Neue Freie Presse* lament that there is in Vienna "a Council [*Stadtvertretung*] which has no parallel on the whole continent, and perhaps not even in Texas or California," and that Vienna has been made ridiculous in the eyes of all Europe.

It is more than Vienna that is made ridiculous. From common councils we have learned not to expect decency. But the opéra-bouffe methods, the constant interruptions of the speaker that degenerate into low rows, the lugging in of vile attacks on the Jewish character even when there can be no possible connection of the subject under debate with Jewish influence, extend as high as the Imperial Parliament—witness the debate of May 8, when the question of the day was the reform of the Trade Regulations (*Gewerbe-ordnung*). How low de-

cency has sunk in the Austrian Parliament may be gathered from the fact that it seriously debated the two following motions put by the Christian Socialist (God save the mark!) Schneider: first, that sexual intercourse between Jews and Christians be punished under the law that punishes such connection between man and brute; second, that at Easter time the Jews be placed under special police supervision. Why? Lest they murder children to use their blood for some black rites of their devilish creed. Herr Schneider not only believes in the story of Hugh of Lincoln, but believes also that those days are come again. One might think this all an unseemly play, but that the so-called "Ritual-murder" cases come up in the courts, and that Jews have been sentenced to death for this fanciful crime.

LINDSAY TODD DAMON.

EN ROUTE TO AN ECLIPSE STATION.

CARTHAGE, May 8, 1900.

The Mediterranean in spring does not offer tropical voyaging. During the delightful yachting cruise which brought us to Tunis, fresh winds and bright days have prevailed, but little of that dreamy, half-hazy sunshine and mirror-like water which one naturally associates with this classic sea in May.

Tunis is Oriental, but it is also very French. The combination is curious. A wide boulevard leads the way into the city, where well-dressed men and women stroll under the palms, or sit out on the sidewalk before cafés at the same little round white tables which might decorate the pavements of Paris itself. A stately Arab now and then, wrapped in white burnouse and impenetrable dignity, walking amid the stranger hordes, hardly disturbs the European effect. But pass through the picturesque old arch, Bab el-Bahar, rechristened "Porte de France," with its Arabic inscriptions, and spend an hour in the "Place de la Bourse" beyond. Here the occasional wearer of hat and trousers has no perceptible effect upon the utterly foreign, theatrical scene. It seems incredible that all that varied population should be out calmly and normally upon its own business, and not instead good-humoredly masquerading with histrionic design for the entertainment of the chance stranger. Mohammedan and Jew, Turk, Arab, Bedouin, swarm. The red fez with its surrounding turban, beautiful robes in pale blue, in gray, and dark red embroidered in green, pass and repass, while the graceful burnouse, generally white, is omnipresent. The grave money-changers sit in tiny doorways, implacable, unsmiling. Every corner has its sleeping tenant wrapped in his robe, careless of pedestrian or vehicle, safe in the sanctity of his covered face. Jewish women with dark eyes and hair, baggy white trousers, and tall, pointed headdress, from which a long white drapery floats or is gathered gracefully about the throat; Moslem women in white with faces dismally covered by thick black scarves, close above and below their eyes; laughing Bedouin boys with superb teeth and garments of coarse sacking; overladen and undersized donkeys; scornful camels—one might do far less interesting things than sit in that open square and silently study its changing occupants. The city, however, and indeed the whole region, present the somewhat sad and anomalous, if inevitable, spectacle of an alien nation wielding the real power over another upon its own ground; that other not necessarily barbarous throughout, but unfitted by language, traditions, and habits, by national *esprit*, to hold its own in the great world of rulers and progress.

The real interest of this North African community, however, lies not in semi-tropical Tunis, with its palms and its swarming nations, but five miles northward, at the site of ancient Carthage, where still lie open to the sun mosaics and tessellated pavements from which the casual nomadic child brushes away the dry, yellow soil to show the exquisite designs. Much has been done by French archæologists, but much remains. Both the museum at Bardo and at Carthage are most lovingly and intelligently arranged, and their riches in treasure trove are constantly increasing. But this city of Dido, silent with the stillness of the centuries, has stories yet to tell.

A railway now runs to Carthage from Tunis, but perhaps genuine familiarity with the country and its atmosphere is attained better by a carriage drive over the excellent French road. The fields are aflame just now with scarlet poppies, and local effects are given by an occasional square white tomb, heavily domed, with perhaps a single date palm near by, or an Arab sitting mercifully but precariously rearward upon his patient donkey, whose omnipresent woes never rise to the dignity of real sorrows. The summer palace of the Bey may be visited but superficially. A walk through the court-yards is allowed, and one may glance at the thickly latticed windows, from which not impossibly dark eyes may peep, themselves unseen; but one may not stand still within the precincts, far less seat himself for protracted study of the forbidden. Not on the direct road to Carthage, but easily reached during the same drive, is the museum at Bardo, opened in 1888 in the old harem adjoining the Bey's public palace, and full of most interesting results of recent North African excavating. Catalogues can hardly keep pace with discovery and addition, so that of many beautiful things a verbal description by the intelligent attendant comprises all available information. Especially rich in mosaics, the museum contains room after room filled with fine examples of wall and floor decoration, those found in Sûza (Hadrumetum) generally in a better state of preservation than the Carthage remains. "The Triumph of Neptune" is the largest example, and one of the finest in the world. Another of the Sûza mosaics shows Virgil, seated, with an open volume upon his knee, in which appear the first two lines of the 'Æneid.' These ancient dwellers by the sea would seem to have pleased themselves by reproducing with their bits of colored stone many familiar scenes; and so "fishing," with men and boats and nets, a "seashore banquet," quite elaborately worked out, the "chase," with dogs, hunters, and flying game, appear. In 1897 a very large pavement design was discovered near Zajhrun, representing the signs of the zodiac in a circle, surrounded by the seven days of the week. In addition to the earlier mosaics, there are many exhibiting Christian designs.

But mosaics by no means comprise the chief wealth of the museum. Hundreds of Punic lamps of earthenware are gathered, showing simple but graceful forms and decoration, weird masks with ingenious varieties of contortion in the features, tear vials and water-jars of immemorial antiquity, and fine bits of sculpture, showing diaphanous drapery over lovely limbs. Three most charming statues have been recently excavated together at Carthage, perhaps the most beautiful at Bardo. The central figure in this exquisite group is thought to be a Ceres, and is more perfect than the others, one of which is provisionally named a danseuse. A few fine relics in gold and silver are shown, and altogether the Musée Alaoui would be an enthralling spot for months of study.

Beyond Bardo the country continues level, with here and there an olive grove or a line of eucalyptus trees, but still flooded with blinding sunshine. The Arabs have a proverb to the effect that "the sun of the beans makes a man mad." Fortunately we have seen no example of its truth, though this is certainly the time of ripening beans. The fields of wheat, its heavy heads bending with richness, dotted with poppies and yellow marguerites, stretch out on every side, with enough prickly pear, "Barbary fig," white houses against a deep blue sky, and passing camels laden with goatskins of water, to preserve a characteristic landscape, even without the encampments of Bedouins—their low, dark tents crowded together, a sort of background to the swarthy dwellers and tethered animals of the community. To scratch the soil merely, in this favored region, is to get an abundant crop—the secret, certainly, of the continual and immediate recuperation of the old Carthaginians after crushing battles during the Punic wars, when their enemies repeatedly destroyed fields and villages. As soon as the actual pressure of unfriendly armies was removed, nature, with slightest assistance, filled the land with abundance.

At the edge of the crater at Kilauea is a "volcano house." At the gates of the Alhambra in Granada is a "Washington Irving Hotel," and so one should not be surprised, even if a bit disenchanted, to find on the very hilltop of old Carthage an inn where the best of modern French luncheons may be eaten on a cool and massive veranda of stone and stucco, facing the sea. And the view there spread out must have inspired a passionate devotion in the old dwellers, and added to the agony of loss and ruin. Now the busy hum of no city surrounds the citadel; the teeming life of nearly threee thousand years ago, as well as of the later Roman civilization, is absolutely hushed. On the yellowish hillside a small white village lies asleep in the sun, and from the still, dead, pulseless, vanished city we look down upon the bays which cover its old piers and walls, and beyond to the blue Mediterranean—a dream of color so exquisite as to defy not only words, but the brushes of this world's most skilful artists. Is it blue, or a green of indescribable quality, or purple like the robes of kings? It was none, it was all, or something else for which we have no name. And across lay the Cape Sidi-Bou-Said, and upon the horizon the islands of Zembra and Zimbretta, in a dimly illuminated radiance of hazy glory, with a few sails between, bending away from imperceptible breezes.

The scene, the sunshine, the atmosphere, form fitting prelude to the splendid collections in the museum of *les pères blancs*, founded by the Rev. Père Delattre. Its

garden walls are rich with fine fragments built into their own plaster—bas-reliefs, Punic and Latin inscriptions, and the like; and numberless water-jars, unearthed from the surrounding ground, lie in piles, among the tiny stone sepulchres, with their pointed roofs, once full of the ashes of forgotten inhabitants. Fragments of fine sculpture, figures with splendid poise and draperies swept by unseen gales into noble folds, piles of stone balls, ammunition for long-vanished catapults, fill the garden. The "white fathers" walk peacefully up and down their paths amid these incomparable relics, or pace the shady gravelled terrace before the portico, into which is built a colossal figure once adorning perhaps the very temple of Æsculapius, whence, as Polybius tells us, the train of suppliants emerged during the destruction of Carthage, entreating of Scipio the lives of the few survivors. The collection, constantly increasing, and intelligently arranged, is rich beyond catalogues. The mosaics, all found here, illustrate different epochs; some purely of the centuries B.C., some representing the Swastica, others with Christian scenes and symbols. In bas-reliefs are Abraham offering his sacrifice, Jonah and the whale—a favorite topic, apparently, and often repeated in different forms in mosaic and lamp—and Daniel among the lions. The monogram of Christ frequently appears. Lamps, purely Punic, abound, of simple design if somewhat crude ornamentation; and tiniest amulets, scarabs and coins, yellow skulls, tear vials and vases, and hundreds of other relics which have drifted down to us out of these centuries of silence, and from which we must reconstruct the Carthaginian story.

As to actual remains on the spot, there are few. The ancient cisterns may still be seen, in the ruins of which nomadic Arabs seem to have established themselves; the smaller cisterns have been restored. Some of the pits are shown in which animals were kept—perhaps the elephants which worked such havoc at times with the enemy in Carthaginian battles. A few graves remain, from which the contents have been removed, and traces of the Forum, palaces and temples may be faintly followed, but the museum, or the collections in France, contain the columns and decorations, and many modern edifices in Tunis were built from marble excavated here—a veritable quarry, indeed, of already prepared blocks, most conveniently at hand.

Beautiful mosaic pavements lay under our feet as we threaded the pathways. The Amphitheatre is in a fair state of preservation, and numbers of Christian martyrs here met their death, among them the Saint Perpetua to whom a large marble cross in the centre has been erected. The former entrance for beasts has been turned into a small chapel. Above our heads on the edge of the pit a flock of camels were picturesquely projected against the sky, and a flock of goats scrambled down, tumultuously.

The great cathedral now completed, with the gorgeous tomb of Cardinal Lavigerie, the little chapel of Saint Louis, the Carmelite Convent—one must see them all; but the vital points to be studied in connection with the museum treasures are out in the silent sunshine, where, wrapped in unequalled pathos, lie the few vestiges of Punic and later Roman culture, finally brought to naught by overrunning Arab hordes seven hundred years ago.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

Correspondence.

THE CHATTANOOGA INDUSTRIAL CONVENTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Montgomery Conference of May 8 last aroused far more interest throughout the country than the one which met a week later at Chattanooga, the historic battlefield of East Tennessee, and now the centre of the new South; but neither convention can be ignored by the student of contemporary events. Both assemblies are, indeed, significant and cheering indications of the dawn of a brighter day for this portion of the country, and may be regarded as the earnest attempts of the Southern people to cultivate a healthier state of public sentiment in regard to actual social conditions. Even, therefore, if nothing was accomplished at either meeting, the bare fact that there have been two such conferences in the same year—indeed, within the same month—is a sign at once practical and encouraging.

The Chattanooga Convention was composed largely of men engaged in commercial and railway affairs throughout the South, and the discussions accordingly took a wider range than those at Montgomery, whose Conference met for the purpose of considering racial relations; but the latter topic was also very freely discussed at Chattanooga. It is interesting to note in this connection that a paper which attracted serious attention was read by Prof. W. H. Councill, President of the Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes at Normal, near Huntsville, Alabama. Mr. Councill was born a slave, in North Carolina, about fifty years ago, and is a self-made man. Although he has held several public offices, he has devoted most of his life to teaching, and he enjoys the confidence of his white neighbors. His school has been a marked success, and it sent many interesting exhibits to the Industrial Convention at Chattanooga, including all sorts of foodstuffs, clothing, and implements made by its five hundred pupils.

Professor Councill's paper was entitled "The Race Problem and its Relation to the Industrial Interests of the Country," which was also ably discussed by Dr. W. T. Cole of Texas. In the course of his remarks, Professor Councill used the following significant language:

"One by one, the questions raised by the new relations between the races in the South have been accepted and satisfactorily settled. The negro's freedom and citizenship are fixed facts. His ability to take on higher forms of civilization and education is no longer doubted by well-informed and unbiassed people. His capacity for every form of industrial life, skilled and unskilled, is not an open question, but an accepted fact, wherever he has been permitted a chance. Both friend and foe agree that the suffrage has suffered in his hands, and that the time has come for its restriction on some fair and equitable basis upon which men may stand, independent of race, color, or previous conditions of whatsoever character. He is fast breaking away from fondly cherished dogmas, and falling in line with the new political, social, and economic thought of the times. He has churches, schools, colleges, universities, theologians, linguists, poets, painters, doctors, authors, editors, blacksmiths, carpenters, farmers, merchants, shipwrights, wheelwrights, masons, engineers, electricians, telegraphers."

This paper was published in full in the Chattanooga *Times*, the chief morning newspaper of the city, and along with it a photograph of its author. After a very thorough discussion of the subject, the matter was referred to the Committee on "Industrial Interests," which recommended in its report, made on the fourth and last day of the Convention, "that every possible means be used to educate the public sentiment of the South to regard the negro as a factor in upbuilding the South, and that as such we should use all possible means to make him as efficient as possible, and pledge him the fullest guarantee of earning a living in every honest field of human endeavor, and protection in his God-given right of self-support."

Another paper that created unbounded interest was the one read by Mr. C. A. Kehr of Knoxville, on the subject of the "Poor White Boys of the South." It was an eloquent plea for industrial training—a topic of frequent discourse throughout the convention, and one which was very favorably considered. Mr. Kehr recognized the vast economic changes that are taking place in the Southern States, and urged very forcibly that one of the best means of enabling the less fortunate members of the white race to adapt themselves to their new environment is to furnish them with manual training.

Other speakers adopted similar lines of thought in advocating the establishment of schools of technology, which have already been successfully inaugurated in South Carolina, Alabama, Texas, and other Southern States; and the committee to which the subject was referred, in the course of an able report, urged that provision should be made for the thorough training of Southern children in useful and profitable industry, including agriculture, the mechanical arts, and domestic economy. This committee especially emphasized the necessity of preparing the youth of the South to operate the machinery which is being introduced into that section for the manufacture of its raw material into finished products. "We are gratified to note," continued the report of the Committee on Technical Training, "the present tendency in education to meet the practical demands of the times, and to direct the aspirations of our youth towards the attainment of skilfulness and proficiency in industrial pursuits. While we would not, in any way, detract from the importance of what is termed the higher education, nor depreciate the splendid work of our leading educators in that line, we urge upon the educators of the South a special effort in behalf of a more general and comprehensive system of industrial education." As a result of this feature of the work of the Convention, a "Southern Board of Industrial Education" is to be established in order to awaken popular interest in the subject, while the friends of the movement will strive to found textile schools wherever practicable.

The space at my command will not permit me, in concluding, to do more than indicate in the briefest sort of way some other very important matters discussed at Chattanooga, and the reports made by various Committees on Educational, Agricultural, Commercial, Immigration, and Industrial Affairs. There was a thoughtful address by ex-Mayor Van Hoose of Birmingham, Alabama, who urged the construction of a water-way connecting the Warrior and

Tennessee Rivers. This would connect Birmingham with the Gulf, and open up thoroughly the great coal and iron fields of the South. Government engineers, moreover, have pronounced the plan a practicable one, provided a proper system of dams and locks be constructed; and the subject is accordingly one of national importance. A similar topic was the long-discussed Ship Canal across Florida, while Secretary of Agriculture Wilson talked interestingly of what his bureau is doing in the various Southern and Western States. Altogether, therefore, the Southern Industrial Convention augurs well for the future, and its meeting next year at New Orleans will, in all probability, show an even greater progress, especially if the Chattanooga motto, "Business, no politics, no sectionalism," is adhered to.—Very respectfully,

B. J. RAMAGE.

SEWANEE, TENN., June 1, 1900.

THE ORIGIN OF CHESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Of very general interest are the communications lately published in the *Nation* regarding the antiquity of chess. The latest statement (*Nation*, No. 1823, p. 436) attempts to sum up our knowledge in the words: "Before the seventh century of our era the existence of chess in any land is not demonstrable. . . . Down to that date it is all impenetrable darkness," etc.

A little more light has been shed on this darkness since the publication of the last work cited by the writer of the words above, though, as this light is burning under the bushel of an *Asiatic Journal*, it is not at all strange that it should fail to cast its illumination very far. But many who are not readers of the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* may be glad to know what has been brought out by the investigations of Professor Macdonell, whose 'Origin and Early History of Chess' is, I believe, the latest study of this intricate subject. Specialists will find dates and authorities given in full in the *Journal* for 1898, p. 117 ff., and p. 176. Omitting technical details and the discussion of minor points, Macdonell's discovery and results may be summed up as follows:

The oldest Arabic and Persian authorities ascribe an Indian origin to chess. The Pahlavi *catrang* and Arabic *shatranj* are merely phonetic modifications of Sanskrit *caturanga*, a 'complete army.' The game was then a "battle-game." According to Persian tradition, an Indian king sent the game of chess to a Persian king between 531 and 579 A. D. In return the Persian King sent the Indian King the game of Nard (backgammon). This is the tradition which was afterwards utilized by Firdausi, the Persian poet, in his 'Shahnamah,' about 1000 B. C. This Persian tradition is supported by Arabic authors as well. The later not only report that Nard was sent to India, but also state that *shatranj*, chess, was invented in India. Their authority is later, however, than that of the Persian tradition.

Turning now to Sanskrit literature, we find that a primitive form of chess was known in India some time before our era, as the board called "eight-square" (in distinction from the board on which was played *pachisi* and backgammon) is mentioned as early as the second century, or, according to some authorities, as early as the fifth century B. C. It is, however, impossible to tell just what this game was. On the other hand, until lately the oldest known certain reference to chess in Sanskrit was a passage dating from the middle of the ninth century. At that time it was a familiar game, and the moves of the pieces as described by Indian authors were mainly those of later date. But Prof. Macdonell has now found an older reference in a passage of the 'Harshacarita,' which, referring to chess, names both the board and the game. This work dates from the first part of the seventh century. It cannot be supposed, since the game is mentioned familiarly as being well known at that time, that chess was then a novelty, and the conclusion appears to be inevitable that the game existed by the middle of the sixth century at least.

We thus have corroborative evidence from three sources, Persian, Arabic, and Sanskrit, all pointing to the same period, the middle of the sixth century, as a time when chess was known in India. But we can go back one step further, and say that if a game of this name was known at this period, then the fact that the same name occurs still earlier is, if not proof positive, still a pretty sure indication that this name indicates the same game. Such an indication is supplied by the mention of the name *catrang* in the 'Kârnâmak,' to which Nöldeke assigns the date 590-628, A. D. Further, a Chinese writer of the tenth century independently assigns the introduction of chess into China to the sixth century. It appears likely, therefore, that chess was known in India in the sixth century, if not earlier (as the mention of the "eight-square" board may indicate), and in Persia in the seventh century. In the tenth century it was probably introduced into Spain, where in the eleventh century it was already common. By the twelfth century it was known in France, Germany, and England, and by the end of that century it was a favorite gambling game all over Europe.

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., June 8, 1900.

AMERICAN SCHOOL IN PALESTINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You will perhaps find opportunity to mention in the *Nation*—as a matter of interest to the scholarly world—that the American School for Study and Exploration in Palestine, projected by the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, cordially approved by the American Oriental Society, and subsidized by the Archæological Institute (with which it is affiliated in much the same way as the schools at Athens and Rome), will go into operation next October, in Jerusalem, under Prof. C. C. Torrey, the recently appointed Professor of Semitics at Yale University, as its director.

Students from any one of the twenty or more institutions coöperating in its support will be admitted on certificate; other applicants will be expected to possess a working knowledge of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, as well as German and French. Its managing committee consists of Drs. Wm. Hayes Ward and John P. Peters of New York, Prof. H. G. Mitchell of Boston University, and Prof. Theo. F. Wright and J. Henry Thayer of Cambridge, to any one of whom inquiries may be addressed.

Yours truly, J. HENRY THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 4, 1900.

AN ARBITER OF OPINION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A lively letter in the *Nation* of May 31, from Prof. F. C. de Sumichrast, sets forth the anti-Boer arguments briefly and strikingly. It would be interesting, perhaps instructive, to learn what the Dutch professors would say in reply. Then, behind all arguments, is feeling. What creates it? This, too, it would be interesting to have catalogued. Does not the world need a Humanity Band, or Association, to study such subjects as dispassionately as may be, and help toward a right understanding of them, and right feeling, and even sometimes helpful action anent them? CIVIS.

NEWPORT, June 8, 1900.

Notes.

During the present month D. Appleton & Co. will publish 'The Storied West Indies,' by F. A. Ober, and 'In Circling Camps,' a romance of the civil war, by J. A. Altsheler.

Harper & Bros. will shortly bring out a new volume of short stories and essays by Mark Twain, entitled 'The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg.'

'What is the Matter with the Church?' by the Rev. Frederick Stanley Root, will soon issue from the Abbey Press of this city.

Henry Frowde has nearly ready 'A History of Bradfield College,' by old Bradfield boys, edited by A. F. Leach.

Macmillan's showy yet elegant and wonderfully cheap "Library of English Classics" is continued with Carlyle's "French Revolution," in two volumes (octavo) of generous print. The index, of thirty pages, is not a fresh one, and therefore is not as full as it might be—witness the definition of carmagnole on p. 48 of the second volume, and the omission of any corresponding reference; and one might welcome an index pointing back to the French phrases which abound, from *O Richard, O mon Roi*, downwards.

A welcome addition to the handy Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics" is 'Poems, Narrative, Elegiac, and Lyric, by Matthew Arnold,' collected and bibliographically edited by H. Baxton Forman. In this little volume is contained not all, but nearly all, that the poet Arnold's admirers should care to possess, along with the preface to the 1853 edition, whose doctrine will not soon be superseded. A copy of Watts's portrait of the author serves as frontispiece. A companion issue in the same series is Henry Vaughan's 'Silex Scintillans, or Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations.'

It is odd to find the Stevenson cult leading up to a reprint of a little book of maxims, attributed to William Penn, entitled 'Some Fruits of Solitude' (Truslove, Hanson & Comba). Stevenson, as Mr. Edmund Gosse tells us, picked it up, in a Pennsylvania edition, in San Francisco, when he was convalescent and much depressed in spirits; and his tribute to its tonic effect upon him reminds us of Franklin's acknowledgments to Cotton Mather's 'Essays to Do Good.' But Penn, or the author of 'Some Fruits,' was indebted in his turn to La Rochefoucauld.

Mr. John Jay Chapman has arranged with his publishers, Messrs. Scribner, for the publication of a twenty-five-cent edition of his

'Causes and Consequences.' For this paper edition application should be made to the Chambers Printing Company, No. 24 New Chambers Street, New York. It makes dog-cheap (as Emerson said of eloquence among the abolitionists) a literary style of very unusual distinction, apart from the wholesomeness of the moral and political doctrine so stimulatingly conveyed in it.

'Glutton or Epicure' (Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.) consists of two essays by Mr. Horace Fletcher on the value of extreme mastication of food in relation to nutrition and to health. As a layman, the author transforms this physiological virtue into a moral and physical panacea.

We have received the second volume of Salomon Reinach's valuable 'Répertoire des Vases peints grecs et étrusques' (Paris: E. Leroux). It includes the reproductions of the vase-paintings engraved in Millingen's 'Collection Coghill,' Gerhard's 'Auserlesene Vasenbilder,' Laborde's 'Collection Lamberg,' De Luynes' 'Description,' Roulez's 'Vases peints du Musée de Leyde,' Tischbein's large work, with many plates of the unpublished fifth volume, which M. Reinach has collected from various incomplete sets, and the three plates of Schulz's 'Amazonen-Vase von Ruvo' (1851). The character of the reproductions is precisely like those of the first volume, and they are necessarily reduced to a small scale, but the usefulness of the book as a whole is increased by the index, prepared with the editor's characteristic thoroughness, which appears at the end, together with a comprehensive bibliography of Greek and Estrucan ceramics. We do not forget the half-promise of a third volume, which was made in the introduction, and trust we may still look forward to that, as there is still much valuable material which ought to be included.

Dr. Friedrich Gotthelf's 'Das Deutsche Altertum in den Anschauungen des 16. und 17. Jahrhunderts' (Berlin: Alexander Duncker) is a careful study of the conception of Germanic origins in the pseudo-classic era, especially as manifested in annalistic and antiquarian writings from Aventin's 'Bayerische Chronik' to Cluver's 'Germania Antiqua,' and in novelistic literature from the Amadis romances to Lohenstein's 'Arminius.' Of particular interest is the discussion of the literary history of the fabulous Judæo-Germanic patriarch Ascenas, and his identification on the one hand with Ascanius, on the other with Tuisco (the etymological process of this latter identification, according to an antiquarian wiseacre of the sixteenth century, having the following stages: Ascenas, Ascon, Der Ascon, Dascon, Discon, Tuiscon!). The god of the national beverage also receives due consideration. As to his name, Dr. Gotthelf accepts the view that Gambrinus was a corruption of Jan Primus, or John I., Duke of Brabant (1251-1294), who is recorded to have been honorary head of the brewers' guild of Brussels. Burkard Waldis, in a rhymed chronicle of 1543, identifies Gambrinus with Gambrivius, one of the fabulous Germanic kings, and relates that he taught the ancient Germans the art of beer brewing,

> "Wie er solchs von Osiride
> Gelernt hat, und von Iside."

Hans Sachs, in a *Schwank* of the year 1553, calls him Jamprinius. Dr. Gotthelf's study forms part 13 of a series entitled "Forschungen zur neueren Litteraturgeschichte," which is fathered by Prof. Muncker of Munich.

In a recent number of the *Nachrichten* of the Göttingen Academy of Sciences, Prof. Gustav Roethe publishes extracts from lectures on the history of German literature delivered by Jacob Grimm at Göttingen University in 1834 and 1835, or, rather, extracts from notes of these lectures taken by two of Grimm's hearers, Adolf von Warnecke, in later years a distinguished publicist and curator of the University, and Karl Goedeke, then serving his apprenticeship in literary lore, of which he was to become in the future an acknowledged master. The chief interest of these lectures lies in this, that we find in them the manifest incentive for what was to be Goedeke's magnum opus, the 'Grundriss zur Geschichte der deutschen Dichtung'; for their distinguishing feature, to judge from Professor Roethe's analysis, must have been encyclopædic inclusiveness and bibliographical fulness. As a contribution to our knowledge of Grimm's personality, they are mainly negative. They reveal again his touching simplicity of mind, his ardent patriotism, his deep love for whatever is indigenous and instinctive; but they also show most strikingly his lack of æsthetic training, his limitations as a historian, and his inability to cope with the complicated problems of modern life. His noble manliness is reflected in his enthusiastic praise of Lessing, his deep sense of the genuine in the panegyric on Goethe. Very characteristic are the lines on Fischart: "He is a type of the German people. He has elevation of soul, depth, rough wit, humor, acumen, good-natured naïveté, scholarship. With all his Aristophanic boldness and stout virility, he is modest and pure, like the Bible and our ancestors. The sense of measure alone seems to be lacking."

Mr. Edward Wilson James proceeds, in his *Lower Norfolk County, Virginia, Antiquary*, volume iii., part 2 (Richmond: Bell Book and Stationery Co.), with lists of property-owners in that county in 1860, and of land and slave owners in Princess Anne County in 1775. In Norfolk County, 191 colored people owned 46,543 dollars' worth of property, and in St. Bride's Parish here recorded two free mulattoes owned $6,000 of real and $2,200 of personal property. A receipt for a slave dated August 27, 1770, is made the occasion of a footnote by the editor, in which, after adducing numerous examples of the New England traffic in slaves, he says: "There is a widespread belief in the *South* that the Negroes were brought to the South by the *Yankees*. This belief is largely true, but it is not all true. The old Maryland and Virginia newspapers show that many of the first men in the two colonies were willing to get rich in the same nefarious trade."

"The Road to Bolivia" is the title of the opening article in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for June, in which Mr. William E. Curtis gives an entertaining sketch of a recent journey to that country. Referring to the railway across the Andes, he says that the greater part of the freight appears to have come from Germany, and it is remarkable how rapidly the Germans are absorbing the commerce of the region. At the summit station, Crucero Alto, 14,666 feet above the sea, "water freezes every night of the year. . . . There are no facilities for artificial heat, not even fireplaces, and people keep themselves warm by putting on ponchos and other extra wraps." An account of the colonial expansion of France dwells rather optimistically upon the condition of Algeria, and contains this remarkable statement about Indo-China: "A study of the number of Frenchmen who have settled in this colony as compared with the English who have settled in India, would be to the advantage of Indo-China"! We note a welcome increase of the geographical miscellanea, accompanied by several useful outline maps. In the one depicting the Gold Coast, in connection with a note upon the Ashanti revolt, the boundary between the English and German possessions is the old one, not that decided upon by the Anglo-German Convention of November 14, 1899.

The colonization of Algeria progresses, though but slowly. According to the latest official figures, as given by M. Onésime Reclus in the *Tour du Monde*, the annual increase of the European population is about 12,000, of whom 5,000, mostly French, are immigrants. During the past year five new settlements were made, and some 50,000 acres of land were taken up, while several other recently founded settlements showed some growth, as "50 houses built, 165 colonists established, with 300 work-people of all kinds." To such meagre figures M. Reclus triumphantly points as a complete refutation of the statement "que la France est incapable de coloniser"!

The opening article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May is upon coral reefs, and is largely taken up with a description of Mr. Alexander Agassiz's researches. His conclusions in regard to their formation appear to the writer, M. Caullery, to be the "best balanced and most solid." There follows an interesting attempt to trace the variations of the linguistic boundaries of the regions in which French is or has been the predominant language. It is noted that the geographic names of a district, in distinction from the topographic, go back to the earliest historic times. The names of the streams in northern France, for instance, are Celtic. A series of maps show in graphic form the general conclusions reached. We mention also an account of one of the numerous expeditions for the exploration of the northern Sahara, and a short sketch of the physical features of Lower California, with several photographs of characteristic scenery. The three Indian tribes of this region described by Humboldt at the beginning of the century are nearly extinct and are replaced by half-breeds. "The true wealth and only future of the peninsula is in its mines."

In an interesting account, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of May 15, of the events which led to the inauguration of the Liberal Empire in France, M. Émile Ollivier betrays his sympathy with the Emperor who, after ten years of absolute rule, "began to feel that the burden of a people was too heavy for him to carry alone"—a sympathy which seems natural to those who recall the "cœur léger" with which the writer, as Prime Minister, was willing to shoulder the responsibility for a most disastrous war. When Napoleon III. was forced to renounce his project of reorganizing his army, in October, 1860, he at once began as a diversion, but soon became absorbed in, his 'Life of Cæsar,' and M. Ollivier has some entertaining pages on the period when Napoleon became "l'Empereur des érudits," and appointed Alfred Maury "librarian of the Tuileries" (where there was no library), who in his

turn brought his friend Victor Duruy to the palace. Both these young scholars were political enemies of Napoleon. In following the narrative of the political events of the day, we also get glimpses of several young men destined to play a more or less important part in public life: Jules Ferry, Gambetta, Floquet, and especially Prévost-Paradol, whose tragic end in Washington is within the memory of our older readers. The formal announcement of Napoleon's resolution to enlarge the prerogatives of the Corps Législatif was made on November 22, 1860; actually, the change had been introduced some months earlier by the small Opposition under Ollivier's leadership.

The fifty-eighth issue of Medical Reports published by order of the Inspector-General of Customs at Shanghai (London: P. S. King & Son) is for the half-year ending September 30, 1899. It opens with Dr. J. J. Matignon's communication, in French, to the Paris Academy of Medicine on the bubonic pest in Mongolia, with maps; and nearly every one of the succeeding eleven reports, mainly English, has something to say of the plague. As usual, in this valuable series, the pictures of unsanitation and complete hygienic ignorance and indifference exhibited in China are truly appalling. The relative immunity of Europeans from the plague is remarked.

The agitation regarding the incommodious and unsafe condition of the building of the National Central Library at Florence, to which we have already referred, has resulted in a confirmation of this condition by an eminent visiting committee and of the urgent necessity of relief. The committee viewed also the various sites proposed to be occupied by a new building, or utilization of an old one, and decided on that (near the church of Santa Croce) at present occupied by cavalry barracks, separated from the church by the School of Decorative Art, which it is not the intention to disturb. The ground chosen has an area of about 12,000 square yards. The Government is to be asked for $400,000 in two years, which the Florence Savings Bank will discount for immediate construction. The city is expected to contribute $60,000.

The German Emperor, as King of Prussia, has instructed the Cultus Minister of the kingdom to abrogate all those regulations in the statutes of the universities which still demand the employment of the Latin language in the public exercises or faculty business. The academic language of the Prussian high schools is to be exclusively German.

The increasing prosperity of Germany is now making itself felt also in larger gifts and bequests for philanthropic purposes. Nearly twenty-three million marks were given during the first three months of the current year by manufacturers and other private persons, and to a lesser extent by industrial corporations, for the benefit of employees, for libraries, special schools and asylums, and various other objects. Such private munificence, which indicates a growing sense of responsibility on the part of the rich, would have seemed impossible not more than a decade or two ago.

The attendance at the Russian universities has suffered a noticeable decrease during the present academic year. The University of St. Petersburg has receded from 3,867 students to 3,662, and the Moscow University, with its 4,408 students, has 382 fewer than last year, while the Kief institution has lost 290 students. It is generally believed that the steps taken last year by the authorities, abridging the rights and liberties of the universities, is the cause of this retrogression. Rather singularly, the decrease is marked in the teaching corps also. The St. Petersburg University lost nineteen of its instructors by resignation, and among them several leading lights. Other universities suffered, but not to the same extent.

—The two articles in the *Century* for June which are most calculated to attract attention are Nicola Tesla's "The Problem of Increasing Human Energy" (illustrated by the writer's electrical experiments, now first published) and Theodore Roosevelt's "Latitude and Longitude among Reformers." The former, except for the rather startling illustrations, may be said to have been to a very great extent anticipated by the newspapers (what is there that is not nowadays anticipated by them, whether it ever happens or not?); while, considered as a communication to the lay world, it is not as clear as it might be. For instance, one thing which most laymen keenly desire to know about wireless electricity is how it can be utilized at considerable distances for the transmission of energy. On this point Mr. Tesla says: "The experiments have shown conclusively that, with two terminals maintained at an elevation of not more than thirty thousand to thirty-five thousand feet above sea-level, and with an electrical pressure of fifteen to twenty millions volts, the energy of thousands of horse-power can be transmitted over distances which may be hundreds and, if necessary, thousands of miles. I am hopeful, however, that I may be able to reduce very considerably the elevation of the terminals now required." But, since elevations of six miles are within the limits of perpetual snow and ice, this would seem like very little more than the expression of a pious hope that an apparently insurmountable obstacle may at some future time be overcome by some means not stated. This sort of vagueness is not compensated for by such predictions as that we are on the eve of an age of aluminum, and that aluminum "will not stop at downing copper," but, before many years, "will be engaged in a fierce struggle with iron," the issue of which "the future alone can decide." As a vehicle of scientific exposition, we have rarely met with any style so disappointing as Mr. Tesla's. Mr. Roosevelt's article is intended as a reply to his critics, but it has the defect of not being what lawyers call "responsive." The criticism which the writer conjures up and replies to is that he does not do all the good that might by possibility be conceived as feasible for one holding the office of Governor. But this is not the charge, as we understand it—at least we have never heard any "idealist" or "reformer," either latitudinal or longitudinal, make any complaint of the kind. The charges are of specific failure to discharge the duties of his office in accordance with his oath and conscience; and the answer, to be at all interesting, must be as specific as the charges. The article is mainly an amplification of the platitude that perfection must not be expected of man. It is the reform counterpart of the *apologia* resorted to by our Van Wycks and Crokers —"What do you want us to be—eh? Angels? Oh, come off!" A noticeable essay is that on "The Poetry of William Blake," by Henry Justin Smith. It received the prize in the *Century's* competition for college graduates of 1898; Mr. Smith being a graduate of the University of Chicago of that year.

—*Scribner's* for June contains for its chief military article Richard Harding Davis's "With Buller's Column: The Battle of Pieter's Hill," with illustrations from the writer's photographs. This is a good specimen of the impressionist military description in which Mr. Davis excels—the operations being converted, as far as possible, into visual and chromatic terms. The result is that we get a series of vivid, spectacular flashes, but no reasoned account of a battle. The effort of the magazine is to apply this sort of word-painting, which is the "fad" of the day, to everything. A. Maurice Low makes use of it in an illustrated article on "How a President is Elected," and Louis C. Senger, in "Train Fourteen," applies an extension of the same method (embracing other impressions of sense besides those of the eye) in the field of the "short story." It cannot be very well employed in argumentative essays; otherwise, a geologist like George F. Becker would, perhaps, introduce it in his "Are the Philippines Worth Having?" We have read this article, which is illustrated from photographs, with some interest, because Mr. Becker has been in the field there for our Government for some time; but we cannot see that he throws much new light on the questions which are of real interest, either to Filipinos or Americans. What the former want to have settled is, Whom do the Philippines belong to? while what the latter are, by universal admission, concerned about is to know whether the islands are, not worth having, but worth what they are costing us. To the first question, geology affords no answer; to the second, as is apparent from this article, so very imperfect and inadequate an answer, that Mr. Becker is obliged to eke it out by appealing to the argument that "nothing so improves the character of a nation as responsibility for the weal or woe of dependent peoples, who, in large measure, at least, are at the mercy of the suzerain." With great candor Mr. Becker admits that "there is another doctrine," but does not clearly state what it is. He refers, we presume, to the hitherto accepted belief of all except tyrants and slaves, that nothing so depraves an individual or a nation as irresponsible power. But Mr. Becker's is the new learning. Those who agree with him may be saddened by the thought that so many Filipinos have to be killed, but if their butchery improves our character, evidently we should go on butchering until we have improved our character sufficiently to make the Filipino account show a profit. Charles Major, in "What is Historic Atmosphere?" raises an interesting question, closely connected with the problem of realism. We believe he comes as near an answer as any one can when he says that true atmosphere depends, not on literal accuracy of surroundings, but on the acts, motives, and methods of thought of the characters. Most writers nowadays try to get an historical atmosphere by imitating the style of a particular by-gone period. They are on the wrong track; besides which, Mr. Major insists, they never get the style right. A

symposium on this theme, by competent hands, would be interesting.

—Almost simultaneously with Henry Sweet's 'Practical Study of Languages,' recently noticed in these columns, appears, in Dent's "Temple Primers" series (Macmillan Co.), 'The History of Language,' from the same agile pen. It forms an attractive little volume of about 150 pages, written in a style that is bound to interest laymen and specialists alike. Sweet's treatise is entirely different in character from such a work as Paul's 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte'; it is a linguistic rather than a psychological study. We find here very little à-priori reasoning. The author has mastered a great many languages and has carefully observed the workings of his mother tongue; he has thus collected and classified a vast number of phenomena, and from these he draws certain general conclusions. Although the writer of a "primer" of Comparative Philology must naturally rely for the most part on the results of previous investigations, almost every page of this little book shows the trace of independent study and of a boldly original mind. Frequently, in fact, the views expressed will strike the orthodox philologist as over-bold. For instance, the theory of an early affinity between the Indo-European (or, as Sweet calls them, "Aryan") languages and the Ugrian and Altaic groups, though intrinsically probable enough and backed by some positive evidence, will be quite new to many scholars and will not find ready acceptance in all quarters. According to the interesting hypothesis adopted by Dr. Sweet, northern Europe and northern Asia were the first home of three kindred dialect groups, the Aryan, the Ugrian, and the Altaic, from which, as they spread to the southeast, south, and southwest, nearly all the present European and most of the Asiatic languages descended.

—It is interesting to imagine with what sentiments the founder of the "Ingersoll Lectureship on the Immortality of Man" would have anticipated Prof. Royce's lecture on his foundation, 'The Conception of Immortality,' which has been recently delivered, and is now published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It may be doubted whether the subject has ever been presented in a more abstract manner. For much of the way the discussion proceeds upon the lines of Prof. Royce's late Gifford Lectures and his 'Conception of God,' but the necessity for condensation has made the degree of abstraction much more pronounced than heretofore. One cannot but imagine Prof. Royce as smiling quietly to himself, when writing of "these plain considerations," and going on to specify the rational wholeness of the world wherein the divine Will is uniquely expressed; the uniqueness of every aspect of the absolute life, as something that must have individual expression; our inability to find or express true individuals in this life. Yet must our life, he continues, eventually receive individual expression; if not here, then elsewhere; and so, finally, our genuine individuality gets its final and definite expression in a life that is conscious, and that in its meaning, "although not at all necessarily in time or space," is continuous with the fragmentary experience of our present life. This is not the kind of thing that is hidden from the wise and prudent and revealed unto babes. It appeals to metaphysical experts exclusively. Prof. Royce does not wish to have the concrete definiteness of his intimations of immortality in the least overrated. They are not likely to be. For the plain people they will have no meaning; for his metaphysical peers less, possibly, than they have for him.

—The latest volume in the "Periods of European Literature" series edited by Prof. Saintsbury (Charles Scribner's Sons) is entitled 'The Romantic Triumph,' and has for its author Mr. T. S. Omond, late fellow of St. John's College, Oxford. It attempts to trace the course of Romanticism throughout Europe from 1810 to 1850, the first half of the whole book being devoted to England, two-thirds of the second half to France and Germany, one-third to Italy, Spain, Greece, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries, Russia, Bohemia, and Hungary. The arrangement of the book is unsatisfactory, for, as everybody, the author included, is aware, during the first two decades at least of the period mentioned the German influence was the controlling force of the Romantic movement, both on the Continent and in England. A truly comparative treatment of the subject, therefore, would have reversed the order of the chapters, making German Romanticism the starting-point of the whole, tracing next its ramifications and modifications throughout the neighboring countries, and finally winding up with its English counterpart, in many respects the climax of the whole movement. As it is, every one of the principal divisions of the book stands by itself. First, we have the English development from Coleridge and Scott to Tennyson and Darwin; next, the French from Lamartine and Béranger to Hugo and Comte; third, the German from the Schlegels to Heine; and, besides an occasional insistence on the solidarity of the movement in England, France, and Germany, the author does not even attempt to contribute anything to our insight into the organic interrelation of these three national literatures. Even apart from this radical defect, the book presents little to give it any sort of distinction. The characterizations of individual authors are for the most part sane and correct (there are pleasing passages on the abiding qualities of Wordsworth's poetry, p. 25; on Byron's historical position, p. 44; on Scott's artistic temper, p. 76; on Darwin's influence upon his age, p. 153); but they are never particularly original or striking. Often the connection of the individual writer with the general movement is left in the dark; and sometimes the narrative dissolves itself into a mere catalogue of authors' names and book titles. The weakest part of the book, aside from the entirely superficial sketch of the minor European literatures, is the chapter dealing with German Romanticism, which must indeed be pronounced altogether insufficient. That an elementary text-book like Kluge's 'Primer of German Literature' should be solemnly cited in the list of sources (p. 193) by the side of Haym's and Hettner's works on the Romantic School, while Georg Brandes, Jacob Minor, Otto Walzel are not even mentioned, gives one an idea of the author's equipment for this particular study. That Novalis and Tieck "joined the Church of Rome" (p. 283) is somewhat startling news. In view of the fact that of all the German war lyrics of 1870, with the one exception of the "Kutschke" songs, none have been or are more popular than Freiligrath's "Hurrah, Germania!" and "Der Trompeter von Mars-la-Tour," one hardly sees why Mr. Omond should go out of his way to declare (p. 337): "Freiligrath did *not* take any prominent part in celebrating the war of 1870."

ARCHBISHOP BENSON.

The Life of Edward White Benson, Sometime Archbishop of Canterbury. By his son, Arthur Christopher Benson of Eton College. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1899.

Some one revising the 'Dictionary of National Biography' a hundred years hence will probably find a brief paragraph sufficient for the subject of these volumes, which number 1,498 octavo pages. It is different now, and while it is easy to conceive that the book might have been condensed one-half and been as good or better, many readers will consider it not a page too long, it is so remarkably well done. There were those who tried to dissuade the writer from the task, but the finished book must convince them that their fears were wholly vain. The son has, in the course of his biography, engaged many gentlemen who knew his father to write comments and criticisms on different aspects of his life. Some of these are excellent, but they do not suggest that any of the various writers could have written the whole biography so well as the son has written it. He has set down naught in malice, and it is equally true that he has extenuated nothing. The whims and eccentricities, the foibles and limitations of the Archbishop are as frankly indicated as his most virtuous traits, and a great deal of skill is shown in the analysis of a character and of conduct that were by no means perfectly simple.

Archbishop Benson was several years younger than his successor in the primacy. He was born in 1829, Temple in 1821. Like most subjects of biography he came of good stock—of Unitarian on the mother's side. Hence, possibly, a softer feeling for dissenters than he might otherwise have had, though on the death of his mother in 1850 (his father had died some years before) he refused his youngest brother to the care of a benevolent Unitarian uncle lest his Church principles should be corrupted. King Edward's School in Birmingham, his birthplace, was a good school, and had in Dr. Prince Lee a master of uncommon force. Young Benson throve under his care, and the kindness of relatives secured him a university education at Trinity, Cambridge, of which he made good use, winning a full share of honors and prizes. His tastes at this time were strongly ecclesiastical. Visiting churches and studying their architecture and history was his chief delight. He was reading the Oxford Tracts before he went to Cambridge, but with no deep impression. His early correspondence with Lightfoot, his Birmingham schoolmate and life-long friend, is much taken up with discussions of Puseyism and the like; Lightfoot, strangely enough, tending that way, and Benson holding back. He had already taken a line which he kept ever after, viz., that, "in England the Roman Church is not only in error, but in heresy, and schismatical." He went to Oxford and heard Newman preach, and his description should rank well with Prof. Shairp's and some others. "Oh, Lightfoot," he writes, "never you turn Romanist if you are to have a face like that!"

From Cambridge he went in 1852 to Rugby to take a mastership under Goulburn, who was then head master there. It had been his darling wish to be a schoolmaster, and he was to have some twenty years of satisfaction, more or less perfect, in this kind. To teach in Arnold's "sixth form" in Arnold's library was something which appealed to his peculiar sensibility as a *laudator temporis acti*, even if the time past had some heretical taint. Prof. Sidgwick, whose characterizations of his cousin at different points of his career afford some of the most valuable pages of his nephew's book, remarks upon his Rugby stage that he was "not quite so accurate and sound as he was subtle and ingenious," and that his knowledge of history was liable to curious lapses. Sidgwick found him much less bookish than he was himself; as a teacher, subject to occasional *violence*, sometimes punishing severely without listening to explanations, and once raising a transient rebellion by an exhibition of this habit. Sidgwick's mother had made her home in Rugby, and Benson became a member of the family—there as everywhere, apparently, too magisterial. Propinquity brought about his marriage in 1859 with Mary Sidgwick; Temple, who had succeeded Goulburn, reading the marriage service. Happier choice he could not have made. The light of her face never falls upon these pages but to make them beautiful.

At Wellington College Dr. Benson nursed the fancy that he was master of a college, not merely the headmaster of a school, but with indifferent success. His reputation for severity, which began at Rugby, continued here, and he did not consider it beneath his dignity to do the flogging with his own right arm. His son thinks that his looks might have been terrible enough without the rod. They were so for his own children, whose awe of him in their early years was greater than their love. One interesting feature of the Wellington life was the close acquaintance with Kingsley, then rector of Eversley, of whom it is told that he kept a *cache* of pipes in different places on his parish rounds, so that he might have one handy at any time when overtaken by an irresistible desire to smoke. In 1872 Benson was made Chancellor of Lincoln, and, resigning Wellington, took up his residence in the cathedral city and tried hard to justify himself in his office by active interest in educational and social work.

In 1876 he was made Bishop of Truro, a See that had just been created. It is strange that it attracted him, but he may have anticipated that it would lead to something better. Those roots of his nature which fed hungrily upon the past, found sustenance in part from the associations of Cornwall with Wesley's great missionary work, and in part from his own work on the new cathedral, which must be done in the most approved and venerable ecclesiastical manner. The Methodists of the region at first objected to his "d—d regeneration" doctrine of baptism, but they were soon talking of "our cathedral" with some honest pride. Meantime the home was beautiful, and when, upon the death of Archbishop Tait, who had contemplated Dr. Benson's possible succession to the primacy, he was named for the great office, he actually had some hesitation about accepting it. For one thing, strange as it may seem, he had sincere doubts whether the salary, £25,000, would be sufficient for his support, though £3,000 had been enough at Truro, for he was not luxurious in his tastes and was economical even to the saving of bits of twine and the gummed edges of postage-stamps, kept in a little box and carefully labelled "strips." A letter from the Queen had the usual effect on his decision. Indeed, Mr. Bagehot's idea that the Queen's part in British government is purely ornamental is traversed by every ecclesiastical biography that falls into one's hand. He was confirmed with the usual "grotesque ceremonies" and challenge of opposers at Bow Church, March 3, 1883.

The whole of the second volume is devoted to the Archbishop's conduct of his office for the thirteen years between his accession and his death. It would be impossible to indicate here, however briefly, even the more salient of the details of those very busy but quite uneventful years. The questions that engaged him were the Eastern Mission, with its problem of the Jerusalem bishopric, which had given Newman almost a fatal wound; the Old Catholic movement; Welsh disestablishment, which found in the Archbishop a vigorous antagonist; English disestablishment, which he as sturdily opposed; and preëminently the Lincoln trial for ritual excesses and the attempted rapprochement with Rome. It is interesting that he openly declared that he would rather see a dissenting state church than no state church at all. This was a characteristic note. He was a churchman in every fibre of his brain and in every drop of his blood, but as completely an English churchman, with as little inclination to Rome as any Evangelical notable. It was, however, his honest persuasion that the state needed the church more than the church needed the state. The attempted rapprochement with Rome, which put Lord Halifax and many others in a silly plight, left the Archbishop's robes unstained. He did nothing mean or common on that ridiculous scene. Others found themselves used by the Roman curia with its customary duplicity, but he was not entangled in the mesh. When he discovered the duplicity, he was angry and sinned not. When the Pope arrogantly set the seal of his contempt on the validity of English orders, it was not the Archbishop who had "sold himself for nought"; and his answer, the ink of which was hardly dry when Death found him on his knees in Gladstone's chapel at Hawarden, was as proud and dignified and self-respecting for his office and his church as his best friend, or hers, could wish.

It is a pitiful reflection upon Archbishop Benson's life that the most important business of his primacy and his life was the settlement of the Lincoln controversy, especially as that controversy has since broken out in other places and is not even silent in the midst of such arms as are now clashing for the safety of the empire on a distant field. The Archbishop's own ritualistic temper was curious and æsthetic, not serious or profound. The student in the psychology of ritualism could not find a more interesting subject than he offers. He was personally convinced that it was a matter of no importance whether water was mixed with the wine of the communion cup, or the minister took "the Eastward Position" in the first part of the communion service, or "the Manual Acts" were performed visibly, or the *Agnus Dei* was sung at a particular moment, or two candles burned during the sacrament—these being the vexed questions—but he was a master of ceremonies from his youth up; he liked to have things done in an orderly, beautiful, and venerable manner, and he was not a little proud that he could thread the wilderness of precedent as skilfully as any ritualist of them all, and bring an astonishing amount of curious archæology to bear upon the decision of the case. Prof. Sidgwick's criticism of the Archbishop's conduct of the case is the more interesting because he tells us how he, an emancipated secularist, advised the Archbishop to take the line of ecclesiastical shrewdness, and was told that anything but "a simple, straightforward judgment" would be "neither wise nor politic."

The Strength of Gideon, and Other Stories. By Paul Laurence Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Three Men on Wheels. By Jerome K. Jerome. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Unleavened Bread. By Robert Grant. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Dunbar's stories of Afro-Americans range far and deep. There are sketches from the slave days and of the reconstruction times, when "the old men said, 'We know'; the young ones said, 'We have heard.'" There are still later-day stories relating to the comparative ease with which a colored man nowadays may get an education, and the next to impossibility of using it in any other way than to take it South and teach. There is a glimpse of the negro turned soldier and of the negro lynched; with peeps into the modern colored clubs in Northern cities and into the negro convention in politics. In addition, there are dialect sketches of mere character-idiom—little vignettes done with delightful humor and a naught-escaping eye for the picturesque, the grotesque, the pathetic. Each has its own word to say, whether of amusement or suggestion. But, in all, the story-telling quality remains supreme. Among sketches of Southern life these have not been outdone in truth, delicacy, and the art of happy omission. Mr. Kemble's illustrations are of their usual excellence.

Mr. Jerome is in a very amusing vein in 'Three Men on Wheels,' particularly after his three men are actually off on their journey and are wrestling, in the Black Forest, with German official etiquette, German time-tables, and restaurant-bespeckled landscape. If these grounds for English merry-making are not absolutely unhackneyed, still we cannot recall that any one has better characterized Unter den Linden than by describing it as "much too wide for its size," or has more intimately touched the philosophy of the German garden-maker—planting by seasons and not by temperature—than in the phrase, "unable to regulate the weather, he ignores it"; or has better pictured the Black Forest house than in saying that, as it is built on the side of a steep hill, "the ground floor is at the top and the hayloft at the bottom." The account of student fighting is horrible, but not too much so, and is the more forceful from being set with serious simplicity into a book of comicalities. Naturally, in a volume of humorous travel, the journey is steeper through some pages than others, but we have found the chronicle pleasant and even easy reading—high tribute, assuredly, to funny literature, which, like the gratitude of man, too often has left us mourning.

The author of 'Unleavened Bread' has satirized in his long novel many things worth satirizing. One is the passion for the American idea reduced to absurdity—to a point where the word American is stultified by being used as if it meant decency, with a boast of monopoly. The cult of the unconventional in life and thought, carried so far as to belittle all specialization of culture or service, is another of the author's well-lashed bêtes-noires. American stock-gambling, American politics, the struggle for high life, whether in Washington, New York, or small Western cities—are others of the abuses on which Mr. Grant throws the vials of a wrath at once impersonal and vitriolic. The central figure on which his weavings are draped is a woman who works her way from obscurity to prosperity, and who, though baulked of one hope after another, at last contents herself with the pinnacle of wife to a Senator to which her third husband is enabled to raise her. But though the book would fall to pieces without her, and though it is her fancies, aspirations, disappointments, and achievements that make the novel, she is not real as a character. Her hobbies are real enough taken singly or in small groups, but she rides a herd at once. She is a whirl, not an organism. And if such a woman as Selma could exist, she would not wield the influence that we are told Selma did; she is too repellent, she sits too heavily on the nerves. She is real only in being an unconscionable bore. In truth, our feeling is that this novel might with advantage be recast into a sermon. It is full of suggestion on many points of vital interest to the American citizen, and full of good counsel as to sincerity, simplicity, and training, versus cant about intuition, spontaneity, ideals, living one's own life. Under its able author's handling—for he has spared no pains, not even the reader's—it should become a significant essay. As a novel it is stamped with the hideousness of an immense ennui.

Sverrissaga: The Saga of King Sverri of Norway. Translated by J. Sephton, M.A. London: David Nutt. 1899. Pp. xxx+288.

The Old Norse Sverris Saga has come down to us in four ancient MSS.: it forms the whole of No. 327 of the Arna-Magnæan collection, in the University Library at Copenhagen, from about the year 1290; it is contained in No. 47 of the same collection, the manuscript known as Eirspennil, "brass-clasp," from early in the fourteenth century; it is in the celebrated Flateyjarbok, in the Royal Library, Copenhagen, from between 1370 and 1380; and in the so-called Skalholtsbok, in the University Library, Copenhagen, from about 1430. The first two of these MSS. were written in Norway by Icelanders; the latter, as their names indicate, arose in Iceland. The Saga has been several times printed in the original Icelandic. The *editio princeps*, which was based upon A. M. 327, appeared in Copenhagen in 1813, as the fourth volume of the 'Heimskringla.' The same MS. also formed the basis of the edition of the Saga in the eighth volume of the 'Fornmanna Sögur,' printed at Copenhagen in 1834. The Eirspennil text was edited by Dr. Unger and printed in his 'Konunga Sögur,' Christiania, 1873. The Flatey text is in the second volume of the 'Flateyjarbok,' printed at Christiania in 1860-68, under the editorship of Vigfusson and Unger. Translations of the Saga are at hand in Latin and in Danish, but the present is the first version to be made in English.

The author of the Sverris Saga in its original form was the Icelander Karl Jonsson, the Benedictine Abbot of Thingeyri, who went to Norway in 1185 and remained for a time in direct association with the King. The short prologue prefixed to the Saga states that the first part was derived by the Abbot from King Sverri himself, who "sat over him and settled what he should write." The latter part is written "according to the relation of those who remembered what happened, having actually seen or heard it, and some of them had been with King Sverri in battles." This latter part was, beyond a doubt, written in Iceland, where Abbot Karl died in 1213, having outlived the King eleven years.

A definitive text of the Sverris Saga in the original does not exist. While the four MSS. show a general similarity that presupposes at the beginning one original text, they are of unequal length and content, many episodes appearing in but two, or sometimes in but one, of the sources. The Flatey text is, on the whole, the fullest. Vigfusson considered it, too, the nearest to the original and the best authority for the Saga. A. M. 327 is unfortunately defective at the end.

The present translation, in this lack of a standard text, takes that of the 'Fornmanna Sögur' as its basis. The editors of this latter text made A. M. 327 the groundwork of their edition, as has already been remarked, but they also admitted many readings from the other MSS. Mr. Sephton still further emends his text from the Flatey-book and from Eirspennil, especially from the former, considering it a duty due the reader "not to omit any interesting passage." This is, of course, all very well if the interesting passage have the requisite congruity that unmistakably marks it as belonging to the original Saga. The definitive text of the Saga, it may be safe to assume, and consequently its translation also, to give but a single instance, will not contain, unless we are much mistaken, the story of the Icelandic poet Mani, as told in chapter 85, the only authority for which is A. M. 327. It is impossible from the translation to tell accurately the composition of the text, which to the critical reader is a matter of some value. The Flatey-book chapter numbers are set in the margin throughout, but it is not apparent just what they are meant to include. The "Notes on Some Readings," at the back of the book, do not cover the whole ground. It is, perhaps, needless to say, on the other hand, that the author's process of selection has given us a most enjoyable story, that would suffer in the telling by any elimination whatever.

The Sverris Saga tells the Story of King Sverri, from his obscure birth and boyhood in the Faeroe Islands, to his death (1202) on the throne of Norway, where, if we accept the year of his coronation for the beginning of his reign, he had ruled for twenty-five years. His claims to the crown were of the flimsiest, without it be assumed that the one man of his time best fitted for the dignity had an inherent right to wear it. It is almost palpably impossible that he was, as he pretended, the natural son of King Sigurd Gilchrist; and his life, as Vigfusson puts it, is tinged with a mixture of half-conscious, half-instinctive hypocrisy. The time, however, was ripe for a clear head and an unbending will, and, in spite of the obstacles that, one after another, were overcome only to rise again apparently more formidable than before, the "great adventurer" led his Birchlegs in the end to certain victory. Not even excepting Olaf Tryggvason, Sverri is in force of personality the greatest King in the long list of those who ruled old Norway. We meet him here in Abbot Karl's Saga as a living person, whose characteristics, although recorded by an ardent admirer, are given with a convincing fidelity that few of the saga writers, known or unknown, have surpassed. The last chapter but one in the present translation admirably summarizes these traits, which have been abundantly justified by the detailed narrations of the Saga. He was, to use its own words, unlike Sigurd, his reputed father, "steadfast and calm; wary and cautious in the choice of friends; stanch and even-tempered; sagacious and conscientious." Like him, "he was ambitious, yet magnanimous; courteous, and obliging toward friends, but hard towards foes; popular with his men-at-arms and followers, for he was hopeful under misfortune, and his best friends were those who were most intimate with his ways." And this is undoubtedly an accurate picture of the man who, by his own strength of individuality, swept away for ever the old order of things in Norway—"its royalty, its nobility, its old customs and life"—and cleared the way for the new that ultimately succeeded it.

At the end of the Saga the translator wisely prints an English version of the so-called 'Anecdoton Sverreri,' a defence of the King against the bishops and the clergy, in which it is maintained that they are to blame, and not the Pope, for the ban that has been placed upon him; the King's position being defended particularly by quotations from the Canon Law. The document is preserved in a Norse law vellum from about 1325, and, according to Munch, its author was either Sverri himself or some one acting under his guidance and with his coöperation. If it actually does belong to Sverri, it throws, again, an interesting side-light upon his remarkable personality, since it recalls vividly the fact that he had himself been educated for the priesthood, and had already been ordained a *diaconus*, when he left the Faeroes to put himself at the head of his handful of ragged followers, in what seemed, at the outset, the hopeless quest of a kingdom.

The present volume includes, besides an introduction, and the notes already alluded to, an adequate general index, and a number of maps to illustrate the localities of the Saga. From the point of view of the English of the translation, this is a decided improvement upon the Saga of King Olaf Tryggvason, which appeared as the first, as this is the fourth, volume of the Northern Library.

Samson Occom and the Christian Indians of New England. By W. Deloss Love, Ph.D. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. Pp. vi, 379.

Dr. Love has added to the reviving literature of early missionary activity a readable and useful monograph. It is important not only as a biography of Occom, who, if not "the greatest of his race," was proba-

bly the "first in peace" of his people, but also as containing an excellent account of probably the greatest attempt at colonization and self-government by the Indians themselves on the model of their white neighbors. The book begins with a brief and not very satisfactory account of early Puritan efforts at Christianizing and civilizing the savages, with some notice of John Eliot. From the first the idea of training native missionaries, among other reasons, led to the taking of Indian children into certain white families for education as well as service, and the success of this to the establishing of Indian schools. The foundation of Moor's Indian Charity School, later Dartmouth College, by Dr. Eleazer Wheelock, was, in part at least, suggested by his success with the subject of the present volume, Samson Occom, who, converted at seventeen, came under Dr. Wheelock's influence, and lived in his house four years. For some time after this he taught school and studied, later becoming a missionary among his brethren at Montauk. Occom was ordained to the ministry in 1759, and, after some missionary efforts among the Oneidas, reached the climax of his career in a visit to England made in 1765, at Whitefield's suggestion, on behalf of Dr. Wheelock's school. Here he seems to have created little if any less sensation than that much more picturesque savage, Joseph Brant, some fifteen years later, and achieved a success beyond all hopes or expectations. An able and interesting speaker, he delivered in the two years of his stay some 400 sermons and addresses, and he collected for the school the astonishing sum of $60,000, thus laying the foundation of the prosperity of the college. On his return he busied himself with preaching, and presently became interested in the movement, the story of which fills the latter part of Dr. Love's book, to found a settlement of Christian Indians of New England in the Oneida country.

A tract of land was obtained and emigrants secured, chiefly by the exertions of Occom's son-in-law, Joseph Johnson, another Mohegan of much activity and some ability. But scarcely had the migration taken place when the storm of the Revolution swept away the new settlement of "Brothertown." Its inhabitants took refuge with a somewhat similar colony of Indians in Stockbridge, Mass., whence in 1783 they returned to their old settlement and refounded Brothertown, certain of the Stockbridge Indians accompanying them and founding a neighboring village, New Stockbridge. In 1789 Occom removed to Brothertown, where he passed the rest of his days as pastor of that flock. With the advance of white settlement the Indians moved on again, and, after 1831, began a new settlement at Green Bay, Wis., where their descendants are still to be found.

It is to be regretted that Dr. Love has not used, or at least quoted, certain printed sources for his story with which he must be familiar, notably Force's 'American Archives,' which has some interesting letters and petitions of Joseph Johnson. Too much praise, however, cannot be given to the care, the industry, and patience of the author; and the knowledge and use of documents, in the main unprinted, are remarkable. To the story proper is appended an interesting sketch of the town government of the Brothertown Christian Indians, an elaborate appendix of the family history of the Indians, various illustrations, and an index, though one looks in vain for what would have been a most acceptable addition to the volume, a full bibliography of the subject. We close with a striking passage:

"Their ancestors fought with Uncas, 'the white man's friend,' in the Pequot war," the author says of these Green Bay Indians; "went out with his three sons against King Philip, and came to the rescue of the English after the massacre of Bloody Brook. The rolls of all the later colonial wars contain the names of soldiers from whom they can prove a lineal descent. Their great-grandfathers fought in the Revolution, and so many of them perished that it was, by the testimony of William Williams, the death-blow to their tribal strength. In the war of 1812 their grandsires were engaged, and they themselves, out of their diminished numbers, furnished nearly three-score and ten soldiers in the Civil War."

Des Indes à la Planète Mars: Étude sur un cas de somnambulisme avec glossolalie. Par Th. Flournoy. Paris: Alcan. 1900. Pp. 420.

A very few years ago the production of this remarkable book would have been impossible. Its heroine, "Mlle. Smith," as Prof. Flournoy calls her for purposes of publication, would have excited only scientific aversion or contempt; and, the superstitious interpretation of the curious phenomena she exhibits being left unopposed, her case would have served only to confirm the religious dogmas of spiritualism, or would perhaps have started a new sect whose faith would have baffled any attempt to ascertain the actual facts. As it is, the case has had the good fortune to fall into the hands of a singularly competent, unprejudiced, and tactful investigator in M. Flournoy, the professor of psychology in the University of Geneva, and though he has not been able wholly to eliminate all its tantalizing features, he is to be congratulated on converting it into a real and substantial contribution to science, which is at the same time as interesting as a romance to the general reader.

In barest outline the plot of M. Flournoy's book (which has already gone into a second edition) is this: "Mlle. Smith," who on weekdays earns her living as a hardworking, trusted, and capable employee of a dry-goods store in Geneva, acts on Sundays as the (unpaid) "medium" of a spiritualist circle which invited M. Flournoy to examine her, and with which he has found it possible to work amicably. On these occasions "Mlle. Smith" goes into trances in which she seems to live over again scenes from her past lives. She becomes once more Simandini, a wife of Sivrouka Nayaka, the rajah of South Kanara, who builds the strongholds of Chandragiri on the Malabar coast in 1401. She is once more the delight of the harem, and re-enacts the terrible scene of suttee which closed her life. And, strange to hear, she discourses fluently in a mysterious Oriental tongue, the words of which the bystanders' ignorance can only imperfectly reproduce. At other times she reverts to another life of crowned misery, that of Marie Antoinette, and plays this part also with dramatic propriety. Throughout, she remains in touch with the persons who have once entered into her life; hence she recognizes among her present friends Philippe Égalité and the old Marquis of Mirabeau, while the Cagliostro who was once entangled with Marie Antoinette in the affair of the diamond necklace now functions as her "spirit guide" (being in reality, M. Flournoy holds, a secondary consciousness which displays itself in various automatisms). As for M. Flournoy himself, he is, it appears, no other than a modern development of Sivrouka Nayaka. Yet another personage from her Indian life is now on Mars, and through him, in a third series of trances, she enters into communication with the denizens of this interesting planet. She speaks, writes (with a peculiar script), and translates the Martian language, and depicts the planet's scenery consistently, if not convincingly.

Now what are we to make of all this? M. Flournoy rejects, apparently with good reason, the suggestion of fraud. But he also rejects the interpretation which this imitation by nature of Kipling's artistic fiction in 'The Finest Story in the World' would at first sight suggest. The part of Marie Antoinette, he points out, is not difficult to act, though his medium acts it well. The Martian language, though quite different in its vocabulary from French (the only language Mlle. Smith normally knows), is French in its syntax and structure. The Indian dream is more difficult to account for. For though he has been fortunate enough to find, in an obscure old French history of India, a passage which establishes the existence of Sivrouka Nayaka at Chandragiri in 1401, "Mlle. Smith" indubitably produces words which must be deciphered as Sanskrit, or nearly so. And, what is perhaps still stranger, she never allows the sound of an *f* to slip into her unknown tongue, and the savants declare that this sound never occurs in Sanskrit and its derivatives. Nevertheless, he supposes that the historical passage referred to must somehow once have caught "Mlle. Smith's" eye, have been retained subconsciously, and have formed the basis on which her imagination constructed the whole poetic romance of Simandini.

And there it is probable that science will have to leave this interesting case. It is very unlikely that the forgotten sources of the inspiration of the medium's imagination will ever be fully traced, and that her automatic writing in Devanagiri characters will be found capable of so convincing an explanation as the unique Arabic text figured on page 289. On the other hand, it is even more unlikely that the astonishing "mimicry" of evidence of immortality and reincarnation which "Mlle. Smith's" case exhibits, can ever be hardened into solid proof. For, granting that Simandini speaks an Aryan vernacular of South India (and modern Kanarese is a Dravidian tongue) such as it was five hundred years ago, who knows enough about the linguistic situation of the time to establish the fact? And even if any one could pronounce judgment on the language, is it likely that he would be able to make anything out of fragments recorded under unfavorable conditions by observers who were entirely ignorant of their meaning? On the whole, therefore, it seems as though in this case also, as in Kipling's story, the jealous "Lords of Life and Death" would succeed in keeping to themselves the secret which we all have so great an interest in discovering.

Reminiscences of Morris Steinert. Compiled and arranged by Jane Marlin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Morris Steinert has a hobby which has made him well known on two continents. He has for many years purchased

all the old clavichords, harpsichords, and other precursors of the pianoforte that he could find, and to-day he has a collection which rivals that of any museum in Europe. He has exhibited it, at his own expense, at a number of our colleges, and has made a thorough study of the history of the pianoforte. More than that, he has arrived at the extraordinary conclusion that the modern pianoforte (which, in its best specimens, is really the finest instrument of any kind now made, as Wagner himself admitted) is "colorless and inexpressive"(!), and he has therefore endeavored to improve it by constructing a new kind of instrument, which he calls the "Steinertone," and which seems to be an attempt to bring back some of the good qualities of the clavichord. With this we are not concerned here; but it may be said that the story of Mr. Steinert's life, as told in this volume, has sufficient interest to make it a pleasant evening's entertainment.

In the German village where he was born, in 1831, he found, on revisiting it a few years ago, that there still exists the night watchman, with his lantern and horn, calling out the hour of the night and blowing his horn. Before emigrating to America —on a vessel which required a month to cross the Atlantic—he made a European tour, which included Russia and Switzerland, selling optical goods. He tried the same thing on landing in America, and his proficiency as a player on the violoncello and the piano enabled him to add a little to his income. For a time he played in the opera orchestra which accompanied Mario and Grisi—an orchestra which included Theodore Thomas among the violinists. Later on he drifted South, taught at seminaries, played the organ, started a music-store, and rode to the estates of various planters to tune their pianos, in all of which occupations he had not a few queer experiences, which are duly chronicled. During the war, being unwilling to fight against the North, he left the town of Athens, where he had a prosperous business, and escaped to New York, abandoning all his property, so as not to arouse suspicions as to his intended movements. He then went into the piano business, and gradually developed his passion for old-fashioned instruments, which took him back to Germany in search of them. It was not easy to find them; for when the old clavichords and harpsichords were superseded by the pianoforte, they passed into the hands of peasants, who in turn relegated them to garrets and barns, and it required much search and detective work to get at them. Finally, he had the satisfaction of bringing together a collection which attracted much attention at the Vienna Exposition of 1892.

Mr. Steinert thinks that the works of the composers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries sound better on the old-fashioned instruments than on ours. There may be a grain of truth in this; yet, on the other hand, there can be no shadow of a doubt that, if Bach and Handel and Mozart could have had the choice of a modern grand or upright, they would have accepted it with alacrity, and modified their style accordingly. As a curiosity, it may be added that Mr. Steinert, absorbed in his specialty, confesses that vocal music has little attraction for him.

Le Pays des Amazones, L'El-Dorado, Les Terres à Caoutchouc. Par Le Baron de Santa-Anna Néry. Paris: Librairie Guillaumin & Cie. 1899. Large 8vo, pp. xxxvi, 420. Ill.

This is the second volume on the Amazon from the pen of Baron de Santa-Anna Néry, the first having been published in 1884. Since then great changes have taken place in what must ever remain the most superb of tropical valleys. Under republican institutions individual effort has been stimulated, and rapid development has gone forward in the wilds of the Amazon as it has in the coast regions of Brazil. That this has been due entirely to the change in the form of government would be too much to say. What is certain is that zealous efforts are being made on every side to promote the unfolding of the great resources of the country, and nowhere have these borne better fruit than in the valley of the Amazon. Encouraged in part by subventions, either from the general or from State Governments, there are to-day two lines of steamships plying regularly between British and Continental ports and the Brazilian ports of Pará and Manáos, the latter 1,000 miles up the River Amazon; two lines from New York to the same ports, and one from Marseilles and other Mediterranean cities. There are coasting lines running from Manáos to Rio de Janeiro, Fortaleza, and other points; two lines of river steamers from Pará and Manáos to Iquitos, Peru, 2,400 miles from the mouth of the river, besides twenty-three other lines to the heads of navigation on all the most important tributaries of the Amazon. Manáos has grown from a city of about 10,000 inhabitants in 1884 to over 40,000 at the present time, in spite of its isolation, which, from the export merchant's point of view, is very great, considering that no telegraphic communication exists with the markets of the world. A cable has been laid from Pará to Manáos, following the river, but floods so continually interrupt the service that plans are now being made to incur the enormous expense of building a land line through the vast unbroken forests. A shorter and easier route for a telegraph line would be northwards to British Guiana, but the Brazilians are averse to encouraging the interest of that colony in Manáos and the Amazonian trade.

Our author devotes much space to a consideration of the importance of Manáos. Every traveller since the days of Herndon has been impressed with the magnificent geographical position of this city. It has been compared to St. Louis, but comparisons are usually faulty. The railroad has combined with the rivers to assure the growth of St. Louis, whereas Manáos must depend upon navigation alone. This is the great difficulty in the development of the valley of the Amazon, the feature that must, for generations at least, retard its growth and hinder manufacturing enterprises on any but an insignificant scale. The untechnical optimist may close his eyes to many hard facts which the engineer perceives at a glance, and picture a well-rounded industrial life in this vast tropical basin, but it is difficult to see how this can ever be. Still, the commerce of the Amazon is increasing, and will reach large proportions, and Manáos will assuredly be the controlling centre of it all. The newcomers who are swelling its population are full of confidence and enthusiasm; they are beautifying their city, adding every modern convenience in the form of good water, sewerage, electric-light, and railroads, and they devote funds to educational uses with lavish hands. We shall be able to measure the growth of the Amazonian region by the advances made in the city of Manáos.

'Le Pays des Amazones' gives a very detailed account of the physical features of the country, the fauna, flora, and minerals, the native tribes, conditions of life, and the leading industries. In this respect, however, nothing is presented which will be new to readers of the works of Herndon, Orton, Bates, Wallace, and Crevaux. Baron de Santa-Anna Néry's knowledge of the upper Amazon in Peru is very limited, and in many respects inaccurate, as, for example, where he speaks of the rapids of Guzman and Achial as obstructions to navigation. These are, in fact, nothing more than shoals, over which vessels of five feet draught can pass at any season. He is an enthusiastic believer in the ability of the European races to adapt themselves to the climate of the tropics, and to perform there the ordinary duties of agricultural and other outdoor occupations. This has been discussed by students who have examined the matter more closely than he, and who have reached a very different conclusion.

The work, to sum up, is a valuable one for its own sake, and contains references to all the most notable literature on the Amazon, which will prove helpful to students and travellers. The illustrations are numerous, if not of high quality.

A History of Quaker Government in Pennsylvania. Volume II. The Quakers in the Revolution. By Isaac Sharpless. Philadelphia: T. S. Leach & Co. 1899.

Nothing could be more prepossessing than the manner in which Mr. Sharpless goes about his *Ehrenrettung.* His style is altogether unpretentious; it has the plainness appropriate in a writer of his sect. He undertakes neither to defend nor to condemn the course taken by the Friends of Pennsylvania during the Revolution. That course, however, has been so grossly misrepresented by the undiscriminating panegyrists of our "patriotic" forefathers as to make it desirable, in the interests of historic accuracy, that it should be explained, and this Mr. Sharpless has successfully done. His case is made up principally of original documents, both public and private, and it is convincing. No ground is left for contending that the Quakers were deficient in enlightened patriotism, or that a larger proportion of them were Tories than was found among the better classes of society. Some four hundred of them violated the principles of their sect by taking an active part in the military operations against the British, while perhaps a score openly espoused the British cause. The great mass simply carried out their principle of non-resistance, while their leaders exerted themselves with the greatest earnestness and intelligence to bring about a peaceful settlement of the controversy with the British sovereign.

As a matter of fact, the Quakers were ceasing to govern Pennsylvania before the troubles with the mother country began. They had always maintained peaceful relations with the Indians, but the swarm of emigrants, largely of the aggressive Scotch-

Irish stock, had very modern views of the methods to be employed in dealing with inferior races. These emigrants, settling on the frontiers, where they could obtain lands cheaply, at once fell out with the Indian tribes. They maltreated them, and, when they resisted, slaughtered them. The Indian wars thus brought on could not be conscientiously supported by the Quakers, and they were hence compelled to relinquish the government of a community determined on expansion by armed force. Their true attitude is shown by the fact that during a period of entire peace, between 1733 and 1751, no less than £8,000 was expended by them in satisfaction of Indian claims. Even after they withdrew from the government, they labored to preserve peace with the Indians, and, had their counsels been heeded and the Indians been dealt with fairly, they might have been made friends and allies, instead of bloodthirsty foes.

The most prominent Quakers labored earnestly, with Franklin, to secure the repeal of the Stamp Acts, and the combination to abstain from the use of imported goods was heartily supported by the whole Society. Their moderate but firm protests accomplished much more than the riotous proceedings in other colonies, and it is quite possible that, if their policy of passive resistance and dignified remonstrance had prevailed, the British Government would have ceased its oppressions. The practical independence of the colonies would have been secured by peaceful means, and the miseries of the Revolutionary war been averted. It is needless to say that such counsels were repugnant to the "Sons of Liberty," who made use of their power, so soon as independence was declared, to plunder and persecute the Quakers for not aiding in the war. It is pleasant to read that Washington exerted himself to secure humane treatment for the abused non-combatants, and Mr. Sharpless records an interesting conversation between him and Warner Mifflin. "Mr. Mifflin," said Washington, then President, "will you now please tell me on what principle you were opposed to the Revolution?" "Yes, Friend Washington; upon the principle that I should be opposed to a change in the present government. All that was ever secured by revolution is not an adequate compensation for the poor mangled soldiers, and for loss of life and limb." "I honor your sentiments," replied the President, "for there is more in them than mankind has generally considered."

Mr. Sharpless adds a chapter on the attitude of the Friends towards slavery; but it is hardly necessary to comment on this honorable feature of their general course. There is much in his book which is sadly instructive at the present crisis in our history, and we may well wish that the Quaker influence was still strong among us. We are indebted to the author for his judicious correction of some inveterate prejudices against the sect; but we must respectfully assert that so good a work deserves a better index than he has provided for it.

Bird Homes; The Nests, Eggs, and Breeding Habits of the Land Birds Breeding in the Eastern United States. With Hints on the Rearing and Photographing of Young Birds. By A. Radclyffe Dugmore. Illustrated with photographs from Nature by the Author. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

Mr. Dugmore's 'Bird Homes' is a distinctly welcome contribution to popular bird literature, and in method and scope it in some degree occupies a new field. The purpose of the book is "to stimulate the love of birds," to help "the ordinary unscientific person to get some closer glimpse of the birds in their rôles as heads of a family; to study their wonderfully adapted nests and beautiful eggs as manifestations of that bird nature which is so charmingly varied and so endlessly interesting." In addition to being a handbook of the nests and eggs of the land birds of the Eastern United States, in which field it has several predecessors, it is especially attractive and instructive through its numerous half-tone illustrations, made from photographs taken by the author, of nests *in situ* of some thirty to forty species. There are also four colored plates of eggs, and ten colored plates of nests, made by the three-plate process. This method has the merit of cheapness, and the faults necessarily implied thereby. While fairly well adapted for a certain class of natural-history subjects, it seems less so for the background of vegetation and other accessories in the varied surroundings of birds' nests. The plain half-tones are excellent, both in execution and in the selection of subjects, and by most people will doubtless be preferred to the colored plates. The series of illustrations of young birds, mostly just out of the nest, are especially interesting and attractive portraits of baby bird life.

'Bird Homes' consists of two parts. Part I. includes six chapters of introductory matter, including a chapter on egg-collecting, photographing nests and young birds, and hints on rearing and keeping young birds. While deprecating egg-collecting "as being in most cases entirely unnecessary," and, as conducted by the average small boy, entirely needless and unprofitable as a means of acquiring information, Mr. Dugmore gives elaborate instructions as to how to collect and care for eggs, which perhaps might just as well have been omitted; this, however, is to some extent offset by directions about studying the nesting habits of birds, and the growth and interesting traits of young birds, without destroying or seriously interfering with the prosperity of the family. The propriety of keeping pet birds is discussed at some length, the conclusion being that when well cared for they are not necessarily unhappy, but in most instances contented and at ease, while the opportunity thus afforded for the study of birds in respect to their individual traits and habits cannot be obtained in any other way. "The whole question is, of course, one that each person must decide for himself; but unless there is a great deal of certainty in one's mind, it is surely better to give the birds the benefit of the doubt—and their freedom. . . . To deprive any wild animal of its liberty and then neglect it is sheer barbarity."

Part II., forming the principal part of the book, is devoted to a formal description of the nests, eggs, and nesting habits of the land birds found in the United States east of the Plains, arranged arbitrarily under special chapter headings in accordance with the position of the nest—whether on the ground, in trees or bushes, or in holes—and its character, as to whether an open or covered nest, saddled on a limb or pensile, etc.

The book as a whole is very attractively got up, and is filled with good matter, Mr. Dugmore being well qualified for the task he has here undertaken. The abundance of excellent illustrations renders the book of special interest to naturalists as well as to the general reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Katharine M. Trolley Trips in and about Fascinating Washington. Washington: J. F. Jarvis. 10c.

Bigelow, H. J. 1. The Mechanism of Dislocations and Fracture of the Hip; 2, Litholapaxy; or Rapid Lithotrity with Evacuation. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Clark, Prof. J. B. The Distribution of Wealth: A Theory of Wages, Interest, and Profits. Macmillan. $3.

Dahn, F. Ein Kampf um Rom. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 70c.

Giltner, Leigh G. The Path of Dreams: Poems. Fleming H. Revell Co.

Ham, C. H. Mind and Hand: Manual Training the Chief Factor in Education. American Book Co. $1.25.

Jókai, M. The Baron's Sons. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Keeler, Harriet L. Our Native Trees. Scribner. $2.

Leys, J. K. The Black Terror: A Romance of Russia. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.

Markwick, W. F., and Smith, W. A. The True Citizen; How to Become One. American Book Co. 60c.

Reinsch, P. S. World Politics at the End of the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. $1.25.

Sears, E. H. An Outline of Political Growth in the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. $3.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 21, 1900.

The Week.

We go to press in the midst of the quadrennial demoralizing incident of a national nominating convention, the Republican at Philadelphia. It is a gambling operation on a grand scale, with Senatorial bosses for the leading gamesters. Like Penelope's suitors, "they never meet but to consent in spoils," but they have dropped their "courtesy" in the Senate chamber, and are now pitted against each other, with Platt and Hanna conspicuously interlocked. Will Platt compel Roosevelt to take the Vice-Presidency, willy-nilly? Will Hanna secure Bliss, or Lodge Long—that thrift may follow fawning? Or are we to see a Western nomination on the ground that the Bryan windbag needs to be followed up on the stump by a greater? These questions will have been edifyingly answered by the time they reach our readers in print. It is enough now to put on record the fact that Senator Hanna called the convention to order, and that, "close as sin and suffering joined," the Silverite Senator Wolcott orated as the official apologist of the gold-standard McKinley Administration.

Senator Wolcott's speech was framed in conformity to the maxim, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum.* It consisted almost exclusively of a fulsome panegyric on the achievements of the Republican party, hardly a statement in which is not either exaggerated or untrue. The "spirit of justice and liberty" which caused the formation of the Republican party, now compels its members to sympathize with the Boers in their struggle for independence, and to demand the extermination of the Filipinos engaged in a similar struggle. This treatment of the Filipinos is defended as carrying out the policy of which our treatment of the Seminole Indians was an example. Concerning the tariff laws and the silver legislation, Senator Wolcott carries misrepresentation to an extreme. He ignores the deficit caused by the McKinley tariff and the Pension Bill, and the impending bankruptcy of the Treasury when President Harrison left office. He ignores the heroic struggle by which President Cleveland, in spite of the narrow-minded opposition of the Republican party, succeeded in saving the country from crashing down to a silver basis. He has nothing to say of the contemptible partisanship which would have ruined the credit of the Government of the United States for the sake of injuring a Democratic Administration, and which forced down the price of Government bonds rather than permit them to be declared payable in gold. In short, all the disasters which every one acquainted with financial history knows were caused by the laws passed under the Harrison Administration, are attributed to the Democratic party. All the prodigious benefits flowing from the maintenance of the gold standard by President Cleveland are attributed to the Republican party. After such a travesty of history, no one will feel surprised that this champion of duplicity should call on young men to trust in God. But such an appeal from such a quarter is little more revolting than the justification of the gold standard by a man with Senator Wolcott's monetary antecedents.

When the Colorado Senator turned from the glorification of the mythical past of his party to the delineation of its future policy, his eloquence was quickly checked by lack of material. Three measures only are promised: one for the reduction of taxes, and two for increasing expenditure. Certain articles are to be relieved from a portion of the burdens of the War Revenue Act; but ship-owners are to be subsidized, and the Government is to build, own, and keep for its own use in time of war a canal connecting the Atlantic and Pacific—all this under conditions which shall violate no treaty stipulations. Of course Senator Wolcott vigorously contends that the Constitution of the United States does not follow the flag, and that all the acts of the Republican party in dealing with Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines have been characterized by the most enlightened and disinterested benevolence. He finds a new argument for retaining the Philippines in the fact that many of our soldiers are buried there—an argument, the weight of which must sadly increase so long as our policy is continued. Altogether, Mr. Wolcott managed to concentrate a remarkably large number of impudent misrepresentations in his speech, and only his well-known "nerve" could have enabled him to keep his own face straight as he looked upon an audience which could listen to him without open laughter. Such insolence may confirm the faithful, although that is doubtful; but it certainly tends to disgust the wavering, and to exasperate those who like to hear the truth told, even in a political convention.

There seems no reason to doubt the truth of the reports that Admiral Dewey has abandoned his Presidential ambition. He is quoted as saying that he announced, some weeks ago, that he would serve the people if they wanted to have him, but that he now thanks God that they do not appear to want him. It has been suggested that he might accept a nomination for the second place, but his friends are sure that he would not. Even if he were willing, there are as yet no signs of much desire among the Bryanites to have his name on their ticket. The incident may, therefore, be considered closed. It was a surprising thing that a sailor who had appeared to be perfectly sincere in realizing his own unfitness for the Presidency, and in disclaiming any desire for the office, should suddenly show that he wanted the place, and argue that he could fill it easily because the job was not a hard one. It is a thousand pities that he lacked advisers who could have restrained him from the folly which he committed in announcing his candidacy. The best thing now is to let the unhappy incident be forgotten as soon as may be.

The announcement from Manila that the rainy season has put an embargo upon active operations by our troops in the Philippines, insures a continuance of the present conditions for a number of months. In other words, the McKinley Administration must enter the Presidential campaign with the confession that the troubles are not over, and with no assurance that they ever will be over. The most discouraging feature of the situation is the bitter hostility of the natives toward us. There is a virtual agreement of all observers regarding this fact. A letter from the New York *Sun's* Manila correspondent, and one from an officer in the regular army which was published the other day by the Rochester *Union and Advertiser*, both lay stress upon this feature of the case. With the natives, after two years' experience, hating us more than they did the Spaniards, how are harmonious relations ever to be established?

The decision of Judge Townsend, of the United States Court for this district, on the status of Porto Rico, is contrary to that recently made by Judge Lochren. In the report of the decision which is now before us, no authorities are cited, and it is therefore impossible to determine how the precedents on which Judge Lochren relied are disposed of. The case arose from the levying of duties by the Collector of New York on tobacco imported from Porto Rico in June, 1899. At that time, Congress had not legislated for Porto Rico, and it was under military government. Judge Townsend holds that as it was a foreign country before the war with Spain, it did not cease to be such because of our

military occupation. There is no dispute on this point. But he adds that the cession of Porto Rico to the United States by Spain did not incorporate the inhabitants within the United States. The soil of the island, as we understand his reasoning, became a part of the United States, but the dwellers on the soil were not affected by this transfer of sovereignty. They were obliged to await the action of Congress before knowing the character of their citizenship. "Since Congress, at the time of this importation, had not performed this condition of incorporation, the status of Porto Rico, except as to other nations, remained unchanged." The application of our Constitution is therefore determined, not by considerations of title to land, but by recognition of the status of its inhabitants.

This conclusion Judge Townsend defends, not by reference to the law as established by the Supreme Court, but by declaring that it would be a narrow construction of the Constitution which "would find in some underlying principle a veto upon an attempt to act for the highest interest of our nation and the people intrusted to its care." With due respect for Judge Townsend's authority, it must be said that this is merely begging the question. He admits that to maintain that the Federal Government has power to govern without uniform taxation "may be an unfamiliar proposition"; but he says that as this is a power prohibited to the States, it must have passed to the Federal Government. The words of the Constitution, however, are not in accordance with this statement. That instrument declares explicitly that "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." The position of the Imperialists, which is defended by Judge Townsend, is that the Federal Government must have despotic power over territory acquired by war, and the inhabitants thereof, because "to deny this power is to deny this nation an important attribute of sovereignty." This position confounds the nation and the Federal Government. The American nation, or "the people of the United States," to use the words of the Constitution, is absolutely sovereign. This sovereign, however, has laid down some fundamental rules which its servants, the President and Congress, must take a solemn oath to obey as a condition of taking office. The question at issue is simply whether these servants shall exercise absolute sovereignty, or whether their powers are limited by the instrument under the terms of which they hold their places.

Hopes were entertained that the Governor of Missouri, having made sure of his selection as a delegate to the Democratic National Convention, would feel free to suppress the disorder at St. Louis. The renewed reports of brutalities on Sunday extinguish these hopes. An attempt was made to operate the trolley-cars without police guards, and, as a result, four cars were blown up, numbers were stoned, one woman was shot, and another, after being beaten and driven from house after house where she sought shelter, was thrown into a pond, her assailants nearly succeeding in drowning her. This by no means exhausts the list of outrages, and there seems no immediate prospect of any improvement in the situation. The responsibility for the continued disorder appears to lie primarily with the Board of Police, but ultimately with the Chief Magistrate of the State, who can at any time assist the civil authorities with the militia. The only excuse for his inaction offered by the Governor is that it would cost several thousand dollars a day to call out troops. As the loss to the community through the prevalence of rioting will probably be reckoned in millions, this excuse deserves no consideration. We cannot escape from the conclusion that the Governor wilfully refuses to execute the laws because he is afraid of losing the votes of the strikers and those who sympathize with them. Some deplorable instances of weakness of this kind have occurred, but there is perhaps no case where the failure has been so complete and so shameless. The merits of the dispute between the strikers and their employers have ceased to be of importance, compared with the question whether rioting shall be tolerated by the Government.

It is reported in Chicago that the trade unions are willing to abandon the "sympathetic strike" as a part of their permanent armory, and that thereupon both sides will accept arbitration of their differences. The sympathetic strike, which is always accompanied by a boycott, is the most unjust, exasperating, and ruinous of all the instrumentalities evoked by strikes and lockouts. It seeks to compel all men and women to take sides in any petty quarrel that may arise between an employer and his employees, or between two groups of employees, and to turn a peaceful society into a warring mass. It is based on the innocent truism that "the injury of one is the concern of all." Undoubtedly it is. That is the reason why laws are made. The whole theory of the law is that the injury of the poor, the weak, the feeble is of so great public concern that all are bound to unite in righting the wrong without expense to the injured. Hence we have courts, sheriffs, juries, prisons, and such indirect aids and auxiliaries as charitable societies and a newspaper press. When this maxim is translated by a Debs, it means the setting aside of the carefully prepared machinery for redressing wrongs—the growth of ages—and the substitution of violence and arbitrary compulsion in place of it, accompanied by enormous loss and suffering to all classes of the community, and usually by fire and bloodshed—the whole absolutely useless, as the Chicago case proves. If we are approaching the end of the sympathetic strike, we have much to be thankful for.

In spite of the objections to "government by injunction," the Supreme Court of Nebraska, which is composed of two Populist judges and one Republican judge, has taken the very unusual step of punishing a newspaper for contempt of court. The offender, the Omaha *Bee*, had intimated quite plainly that one of the judges could not decide a case that was coming before him impartially, because he had already, while Governor, committed himself to a certain position. The case arose under a law intended to transfer the patronage of the Fire and Police Boards of Omaha from the Republican Mayor and Council of the city to the Populist Governor of the State. As a matter of fact, the judge whose disqualification was pointed out by the *Bee*, recognized that he was disqualified, and did not sit in the case. Furthermore, the case was decided in favor of the city officers, whose part was taken by the *Bee*. But the Court felt that its dignity was assailed, and, after hearing the *Bee* in its own defence, imposed a fine of $500. It intimated that if the *Bee* would apologize, the fine might be remitted; but the *Bee* refuses to apologize. It maintains that its comments were proper, that it did not charge the Court or any member of it with official misconduct, and that any apology made by it would be as insincere as Galileo's declaration that the world was stationary. One interesting development in this case was, that inquiries made of the clerks of the Supreme Courts of nearly thirty States showed that the punishment of the editor or publisher of a newspaper for contempt of court has almost never occurred. Whether this indicates self-restraint on the part of editors or on the part of judges, we shall not undertake to determine.

The recent lynching of two negroes in Mississippi was more horrible in some respects than most of these infamous affairs. A white girl had been murdered by a negro, and the evidence was strong that only one negro was concerned in the crime. Two, however, were suspected, and, in spite of the admitted fact that one of them must be innocent, both were put to death. An attempt was made in one case to extort a confession of guilt by torture, as if such a confession would be proof of guilt, but

the wretched victim persisted in maintaining his innocence so earnestly that most of the mob were convinced of it. On reflection, however, and in cold blood, it was decided that rather than not kill one person who was possibly guilty, an innocent person as well should be sacrificed. None of the defences usually pleaded by lynchers is available in this case, and the brutes who professed to be inflicting punishment cannot deny that their act was simply a murder as atrocious as that which they pretended to avenge. It is satisfactory to see that the New Orleans *Times-Democrat* denounces this outrage with unqualified severity.

On the other hand, the Mobile *Register* indulges in some casuistry of a particularly shameless character. It mildly observes that the men engaged in this affair admitted that one of the men whom they killed was innocent, and that they will receive more than usual condemnation on that account. But it justifies their action on the ground that the antagonism of the races compels white men to presume that black men are guilty of whatever crime they are charged with, until they prove their innocence. The presumption of innocence is admitted only when all members of the community desire to punish criminals and are ready to testify against them. The blacks, it maintains, do not wish to have criminals of their race punished, and will not testify against them. Whatever else may be said of this theory of jurisprudence, it is certainly sufficient to explain the reluctance which some of the blacks may display to furnishing evidence when members of their race are accused. They know that their testimony will be accepted if it is to the guilt of the accused person, and rejected if it is to his innocence, while any confusion in their evidence may be turned against themselves. Lynching is not practised because black men will not testify; black men will not testify while lynching is practised, and, indeed, they cannot. The natural cooperation of the better class of blacks with the whites in overawing and punishing the criminal class is absolutely prevented by the policy of lynching "color" at sight.

The statement of reasons given by Gov. Mount of Indiana for refusing the requisition of the Governor of Kentucky for the surrender of Mr. Taylor to answer a charge of complicity in the assassination of William Goebel, is as undignified as the action itself is illegal and unconstitutional. It establishes a precedent for similar refusals in all kinds of cases. If the Governor to whom the requisition is addressed thinks that the accused would not have a fair trial, he may merely say that the Governor who makes the requisition and his party associates are "blind to reason," that they have "ignored civil rights," and that their courts are "mockeries of justice." Such language would naturally provoke the Governor and people of the State thus stigmatized to refuse the requisitions addressed to them by the offending Governor. We can only hope that the action taken by Gov. Mount will not attain the character of a precedent, but that it will be treated as sporadic and revolutionary. As for Mr. Taylor himself, he ought to have preserved his own dignity by remaining at home and defying his persecutors. He has greatly injured the righteous cause which he represents by his weak and wabbling course since the election.

The extortion practised by the American Ice Company in doubling its prices to consumers in this city, was seized on by the representatives of the labor unions as a reason why the city authorities should establish an ice factory. Beyond question these authorities could maintain such an establishment, and could furnish ice to the people at very moderate prices. The reason why they could do this is to be found in the fact that the cost of such an experiment would be defrayed by the taxpayers. The result might be that the cost of the ice furnished by the municipality would be much greater than at present. The experiment has been tried in Boston, where the city engaged in the business of cutting and storing the ice used in public drinking-fountains. The citizens were thus provided with free ice water, as they might be provided with free ice here. But when Mayor Hart assumed office in Boston, he caused an investigation to be made of the cost of the ice supplied by the city, and found, according to the statements made in Boston newspapers, that it was about $60 a ton. The ice-dealers would have furnished it to the city at $3 a ton. We do not understand that the ice business of the city had been dishonestly managed. There had been no embezzlement of funds, and proper vouchers were found for all payments. But as there was no inducement to manage it economically, while there were many to manage it extravagantly, the result was not surprising. The civil-service laws did not prevent the favorites of politicians from getting places and from keeping them even when proved incompetent. There is no reason to suppose that a municipal ice plant would be better managed by the politicians of New York city than by those of Boston.

It is an extraordinary personal triumph which the German Emperor has won in at last inducing the Reichstag to vote him the new battle-ships which he said he should never be happy till he got. Six months of wire-pulling and bargaining and compromising have been necessary—and must have been galling in the extreme to the *sic-volo-sic-jubeo* Hohenzollern—but the end crowns the work, and William can now point proudly to the fulfilment of his promise last Christmas: "And even as my grandfather labored for his army, so will I in like manner and unerringly carry on and carry through the work of reorganizing my navy, in order that it may be justified in standing by the side of my land forces, and that by it the German Empire may also be in a position abroad to win a place which it has not yet attained." The original Government proposals had to be considerably amended. The main change was in cutting down the ships for foreign service. What the Emperor asked was an increase of battleships from 19 to 38, of first-class cruisers from 12 to 20, and of second-class cruisers from 30 to 45. What he gets is 36 battle-ships, 19 first-class cruisers, and 38 second-class cruisers. The difference is slight, after all, and the total makes certainly a formidable fleet. It substantially doubles the strength of the German navy as fixed by the act of 1898, which was itself a great advance on anything known before.

The Government of Japan has been obliging enough to relieve some of the authorities in this country and in the Dominion of Canada from an embarrassing problem. The influx of Japanese in British Columbia and in the State of Washington has recently become so large as to disturb the labor market on the Pacific Coast, and to arouse very emphatic demands from the labor unions for the prohibition of immigration. Neither Great Britain nor the United States could comply with these demands, and the Government of the former Power has been obliged to nullify some of the measures proposed by the Legislature of British Columbia. The Japanese Government has now relieved the situation here by issuing an order which will reduce the number of its subjects emigrating to this country to insignificant proportions; for which relief the demagogues of this continent should express much thanks. Henceforth not more than five persons in a month may emigrate to the United States from any of the forty-seven prefectures in Japan, and not more than ten will be permitted to go to Canada. The immigration to the Pacific Coast has been so large as to make it probable that it has been artificially stimulated, and the action of the Japanese Government, although arbitrary, may be for the interest of those of its subjects who are now in this country. Doubtless the complications which threaten Japan, make its Government reluctant to allow subjects capable of bearing arms to expatriate themselves at present.

THE FERMENT IN CHINA.

The rationale of the troubles in China is beginning to appear in a clearer light as events move on. That a formidable reaction is shaking the Empire has been obvious enough, but it has not been plainly seen that it has a domestic side as well as an international aspect. The truth is, however, that the movement of which the "Boxers" have taken the murderous lead, is directed against not only foreign interlopers, but native reformers as well. These are normally the two phases of the agitation. The revolt is one against modern ideas and methods, whether imposed from without or advocated from within. Missionaries are murdered and foreigners hunted on exactly the same principle that led to the execution of six native reformers at Pekin, and sent Kang-Yu and other educated Chinamen, hospitable to the new enlightenment, fleeing from the land for safety.

Much valuable information concerning the influences at work for the regeneration of China from within is given in an article by Prof. Robert K. Douglas in the June *Nineteenth Century*. Professor Douglas is a recognized authority in matters Chinese. For many years in the China Consular Service, he is now Professor of Chinese in King's College, London, and Keeper of Oriental Books and MSS. in the British Museum. The special value of his article lies in its clear account of the means by which the long night of intellectual stagnation in China has been made to yield to something like the dawn. The most potent agency has been the systematic publication of books conveying to educated persons correct notions of Western science and religion and the progress of civilization. Appeal has been deliberately made to the more intelligent classes. It has been perceived that the motive power for enlightenment and reform in so vast and ignorant a population must be found among the people themselves, and must come from above —from the mandarins and *literati*. Accordingly, selected works on history, geography, the various sciences, besides the Bible, have been translated into a pure literary style, such as the learned affect, and have had a wide circulation and powerful influence.

Professor Douglas gives in considerable detail an account of the publishing activity of the "Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese." It has issued more than 120 volumes. These are not given away, but sold, and the demand for them has increased remarkably in all parts of the Empire. Thus, when a popular edition of Mackenzie's 'Nineteenth Century' was recently brought out, 4,000 copies were sold within a fortnight—this, be it remembered, among a population only 10 per cent. of which is able to read. The Society's agents have made particular efforts to circulate their books and pamphlets among students. A stock is maintained at each of the 200 centres of examination in the Empire, and the sales have been steadily rising. All told, the work of the Society has been, says Professor Douglas, "a triumphant success."

One proof of this is to be seen in the way in which the native ardor for the new learning, having once been kindled, has set about trying to satisfy itself. Chinese publishing houses have themselves taken up the idea of translating foreign books which may be useful to the people. More striking even than that fact is the rapid multiplication of native newspapers. In 1895 there were only nineteen in the whole Empire. In 1898 the number was quadrupled. Professor Douglas makes no doubt that the Japanese war, with its shock and surprise of defeat, was the means of convincing even the most complacent mandarins that their country must learn of Western civilization or perish. In 1893, before the war, the sales of the Society's books amounted to only $817, but in 1898, after the war, the demand had grown so much greater that $18,457 was realized. Travellers into the remote interior have been astonished to find these imported books eagerly sought after, and to meet officials in distant provinces who "can talk glibly on new scientific discoveries, and who are intimately acquainted with the Constitutional histories of Western nations." So far had the enthusiasm for the new education gone that the Viceroy Chang advocated in a state paper the introduction of Western studies and the teaching of foreign languages in the native schools, and declared that the lands of the Buddhist and Taoist monasteries might well be seized to endow the new chairs.

Of course, this promising internal movement, which amounted to an intellectual awakening, has been temporarily checked by the reaction under the bigoted Empress-Dowager. But such a flowing stream cannot be turned again into stagnant waters. So far as the uprising is against foreigners, it will have to be put down sternly by the Pekin Government itself, or else suppressed by foreign intervention. Then will come the opportunity of the native reformers whose strength at present, writes Professor Douglas, is to "sit still" and see the brutal reaction wreck itself. In the whole movement towards better things, which will undoubtedly be resumed, it is not too much to see the hope of an ultimate regeneration of China such as Japan has wrought out for herself. And how superior would be the method to that of our pike-and-gun Imperialists! When we opened Japan to civilization, we did not find it necessary to seize islands and set up "spheres of influence"; we trusted to the empire of ideas; we gave books instead of bayonets; machinery, instead of swindling carpet-baggers. That was the old and successful way of empire-building. There is undoubtedly a peril, as Goldwin-Smith asserts, that the new Imperialism of shot and shell may be applied to China; that the civilized nations may take their next *battues*, in the name of humanity and religion, out of the millions of Chinese whose invincible ignorance of centuries is just being penetrated by the first gleams of knowledge. But the example of Japan shows us the more excellent way, and it is to be hoped that the Chinese, too, will be left to work out their own salvation. That they have the instrumentalities and the leaders ready to their hand, as soon as these troublous times are overpast, Professor Douglas is firmly convinced.

Meanwhile, nothing can be more evident than that Russia and Japan are more directly concerned in the Chinese crisis than any other nation. The map is the great treaty-maker and international lawyer, and the map shows that in the impending break-up, or at any rate sweeping readjustment, in North China, Russian and Japanese interests are predominant. Close upon the flank of China lies Japan, a nation eager to colonize, with a population of 40,000,000 already pressing hard upon the means of subsistence. Just across a narrow channel is Korea, thinly settled, with a kindred people and institutions—the very outlet for Japanese energy. "Korea must be Japanese," is the one watchword of foreign politics for all parties and classes in Japan. If nature had chanced to make Korea an island instead of a peninsula, it would undoubtedly have been numbered long since among the Japanese islands, as surely as Yesso. Formosa, to the south, was added as the one visible trophy of the war with China; but Formosa has a teeming population, and is not colonizable. To Korea and to predominance in North China, Japanese ambitions steadfastly look.

On the other hand, Russia's march to supremacy in all that region has been stealthy and steady. Her railway across Siberia and through Mantchuria has been pushed with consuming zeal, and is within less than two years of completion, every section having hitherto been finished in advance of the estimated time. Not content with her terminal harbor of Vladivostok, Russia secured Port Arthur, and has since been working feverishly to make it impregnable. More than 90,000 coolies are at this moment laboring on the fortifications of this Russian arsenal at the point of the Liao-Tong peninsula. A railroad to connect with Vladivostok has been pushed on rapidly, and is to be completed in October. Meanwhile, Korea has not been neglected by Russian diplomats. In addition to thwarting Japanese influence at Seul in every way possible, they suddenly secured for themselves, apparently

in open violation of their agreements with both China and Japan, the Korean harbor of Masampho, right across the Korean Channel from Nippon.

The suddenly precipitated Chinese anarchy, however, may easily put a new face on the entire question. The Russo-Japanese serpent may be swallowed by a bigger one. What the Powers will have to confront and decide is the whole question of the control of the Chinese Empire; and the chances are now greatly increased that a decision, and a division of territory, if that be necessary, will be reached by the peaceful means of a solemn international agreement under the highest guarantees. Even so, Russia and Japan would need to be given the lion's share. Geography settles that. Korea to Japan, and Mantchuria, clear down to Pekin, as Russia's part, would be a natural assignment. But, whatever the settlement, after the first stern task of restoring order is accomplished, it is much more likely to be a pacific settlement than seemed possible two months ago.

THE CUBAN ELECTIONS.

On Saturday last the Cubans took the first step towards their promised independent government. The municipal elections then held, under a restricted suffrage, are regarded as only the preliminary to a Constitutional Convention, to be called before the end of the year for the purpose of framing a system of self-government to which the United States, as in honor bound, will thereafter commit the destinies of the island. This is the clear understanding of the natives. Gen. Gomez, in the speech which he made on his return to Havana a fortnight ago, explicitly laid down the programme of the Cubans. It is to accept municipal autonomy as a gratifying payment on account, an earnest of the intention of the American Government to discharge the full debt of Cuban independence as speedily as may be.

As both important in themselves, and as an indication of what the Cubans may be expected to do when intrusted with full control of their own affairs, these first elections deserve careful study. In the party organizations formed for the purpose of taking part in them, and in the electoral methods followed, we already have a fair measure of Cuban political aptitude. One unexpected feature of the contest is the general indifference and apathy which have prevailed. In Havana, only about one-half the eligible voters took the trouble to register, and one-sixth of these abstained from the polling. In the city of Santiago, where it was estimated that there would be 10,000 votes, the registration was less than 2,000. Similar conditions appeared in the other municipalities. The affair, too, went off quietly. There was no excitement, only a small vote, no howling crowds reading the election returns.

What is the reason of this lethargy? Partly, no doubt, a feeling that the game was not worth the candle; that the military government is really in control, and means to continue so; and that the municipal elections are only a sop to the dissatisfied, and a way of marking time. But it cannot be denied that a powerful reason for the disgust of the better classes with this first electoral experiment lies in the fact that the party organizations, and their candidates, represent little but political adventurers. This was sorrowfully confessed the other day by *Patria*, a native Havana paper, which said that the educated and property-owning people of the island could not go to the polls to advance the fortunes of the professional politicians who alone were standing for office. The contrast was too painful with the practice under Spanish rule, when university professors and leading planters and merchants were put forward as Deputies in the Cortes. Gen. Wood was waited upon a few days ago by a delegation of prominent lawyers, bankers, and business men to protest against his reported intention to call a Constitutional Convention in September. They pointed to the fact that not a single candidate now up for office was other than a professional politician, and that the political power in the hands of that class meant absolute ruin to the island. We presume that Gen. Wood reassured them by asserting gravely that the United States would be horrified at the thought of professional politicians getting control of the Government.

Three nominally different parties were nominally in the field. The "Nacional Cubano" has turned out to be the strongest, and is certainly the most vociferous. Then there are the "Partido Republicano" and the "Unión Democrática." The platforms of all of them were filled with professions as benevolent and principles as lofty as those produced at Philadelphia this week, and the unexpressed main intention—to get the offices—is about as clear as it has been made in Hanna's Convention. No real difference of political belief or programme divides the three parties; except that the Unión Democrática is thought to be covertly for annexation. Gen. Gomez hinted as much in his speech, though he admitted that the Democrática "professed good faith" (*anuncia buena fé*). The old General freely said that this splitting up of Cubans into warring factions was a great grief to him. And Gen. Collazo, in his newspaper, *La Nación*, speaks of the political goings on in Cuba as "childish politics, and an exhibition worthy of Chinamen."

Chief interest centred in the Mayoralty contest in Havana. Gen. Rodriguez was the candidate of the Cuban National party. Señor Zaldo was the nominee of the Republican party, but he withdrew in a huff, and his party solemnly announced that it would take no part in the elections, on account of some objectionable features of the electoral law. Thereupon, a sort of independent candidate came forward in the person of Señor Estrada Mora. He had sought the nomination of the National party, and was naturally denounced as a "renegade" for opposing Rodriguez. The Republicans and Democrats quietly supported Mora, but he was beaten two to one. In Santiago, it was the National party which washed its hands of the election, and left the Republicans to have a walk-over. All told, therefore, we cannot regard the election returns as very interesting or highly significant. What is really significant is the way in which the Cubans have approached the election. As we have pointed out, there has been a disquieting amount of indifference and abstention, and a still more disquieting coming to the fore of characterless intriguers.

ARBITRATION, COMPULSORY AND OTHER.

In the testimony given before the Industrial Commission at Washington last week by Mr. N. F. Thompson of Huntsville, Ala., we find a discussion of the labor question which really goes to the root of the disease. There may have been others, before Mr. Thompson came forward, who have applied the scalpel with equal thoroughness and intrepidity, but we have not happened to hear of them. Mr. Thompson is described as the Secretary of the Southern Industrial Convention. Whatever this body may be, it is served by a man who knows how to make himself understood, and who withholds nothing that contributes to that end. Evidently he is not an office-seeker. No office-seeker would have used the words with which he describes the present situation of the American republic. He considers labor organizations "the greatest menace to this Government that exists to-day inside or outside the pale of our national domain"—far more dangerous to the perpetuity of the republic than would be the hostile array on our border of all the armies of the world combined. He has arrived at this conviction after years of close study with the amplest means of information. The sympathetic strike and the boycott constitute the menace which he has in mind. The sympathetic strike is inaugurated to redress the wrongs of some one class or person, however insignificant or however unjust may be the demands of that class or person. When resistance is made to those demands, the boycott is invoked to compel all classes to join in enforcing the demand, although their own interests may be directly opposed thereto. The boycott is the force undermining the State, and Mr. Thomp-

son's language is not too strong when he says:

"To recognize such a power as this in any organization, or to permit such a theory to be advanced without protest or counteracting influence, is so dangerous and subversive of the Government that it may justly be likened to the planting of deadly virus in the heart of organized society—death being its certain and speedy concomitant. Organizations teaching such theories should be held as treasonable in their character, and their leaders worse than traitors to their country. It is time for the plainest utterances on this subject, for the danger is imminent; and in view of the incidents that have attended recent strikes, it can be considered little less than criminal in those who control public sentiment, that such scenes are possible anywhere in this country."

These may be called extreme opinions, but the facts and reasons by which they are supported are quite sufficient to warrant the conclusion that the real crisis of the country is not in the East Indies or the West Indies, but "in our midst," and that in reaching out to seize foreign countries, and to introduce civilization and suppress evils among distant "savages," we are wasting time, money, and blood which might better be spent in finding a remedy for greater evils at home.

Looking at labor organizations from the standpoint of patriotism, it cannot be said that their members, or even the walking delegates to whom the greater part of the mischief is imputed, are consciously unpatriotic. They believe themselves to be working for the best interests of the country when they work for their own interest; but even if it were otherwise, where is the social class that thinks more highly of the welfare of the country than of its own welfare? The patriotism that prefers country to self is the possession of individuals, not of classes. When sacrifices are to be made for the good of the State, rich and poor are expected to contribute and do contribute. The line of demarcation does not run between classes. None the less do we consider Mr. Thompson's diagnosis of the country's chief malady a pretty accurate one. Looking at the situation of Chicago, where industry in the building trade has been suspended for several months, and where the public authorities have surrendered their powers to a private society whose decrees are enacted in secret session, we recall that only six years ago the same city passed through the Debs strike and boycott, which was accompanied by bloodshed and conflagration, and that a little earlier the Anarchist rebellion took place there—all showing that one experience, instead of serving as a deterrent, seems to pave the way for another of the same kind.

Evidently the repetition of the sympathetic strike and boycott, with their attendant suffering and their prodigious loss, is not to be avoided by shooting and hanging. These remedies may be necessary in particular cases, but they are not preventive. Mr. Thompson agrees to this. He thinks that society should not relinquish the power to deal summarily with outbreaks that occur, but that it should take measures to make a repetition of them impossible. He says:

"In view of the close relationship existing among all classes of our citizens and the interdependency of all interests, strikes and boycotts should be made a felony both by national and State legislation; and to secure adequate relief for the grievances for which strikes and boycotts are inaugurated I would suggest the formation of national and State boards of arbitration, authorized and empowered to settle all matters of difference between labor and capital, and whose decrees shall be binding on the parties affected—granting an appeal, however, to the civil courts to either party dissatisfied with the arbitration."

This suggestion calls to mind the Compulsory Arbitration Law which has been in force in New Zealand since January, 1895. This act provides that in any case of dispute between a labor organization and an employer, or an employers' organization, which cannot be settled by conference between the parties, the one which makes the complaint may demand an arbitration, the machinery for which is provided by the law, and that in the meantime the industry shall not be interrupted. The umpire in such arbitration is a Justice of the Supreme Court, who holds his office for life. The history of this law and its practical working is set forth in a book of 180 pages, recently published, entitled 'A Country without Strikes' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), by Henry D. Lloyd, who made a visit to New Zealand for the purpose of studying this novel problem. We call attention to this work because it tallies with the remarkable testimony of Mr. Thompson before the Industrial Commission, not meaning to imply that such a law would fit the conditions of the United States. This we greatly doubt, but it is evident that New Zealand's example is one of the things we must study in settling the gravest problem before the American people.

DISCOVERIES IN THE AGORA AT CORINTH.

ATHENS, May 29 1900.

This year's work at Corinth has eclipsed in one way the work of former years. It is true that we had gone on in three campaigns excavating one important building after another until we found ourselves inside the agora. The establishing a topography of such an important city was in one aspect a brilliant success. But though the excavator's main object may be the recovery of buildings, he still hopes that good luck will throw in his way some interesting small objects. Our workmen are perhaps not singular in their feeling that excavations which do not bring out statues are a failure. We ourselves felt keenly the lack of heads for the dozen or twenty statues found in the first three campaigns; and, although we had found a fairly good quantity of vases of early styles, we still wanted something more striking of the art of that rich city, which, even after its destruction by the Romans, possessed so much. It began to look dubious whether very much had survived the slower and surer destruction of ages of occupation. Particularly, after we had last year passed up the paved street from Lechæon, ascended the great marble staircase, gone through the central opening of the Propylæa, and proceeded nearly half way through the agora, clearing a space thirty yards wide as we advanced, without finding anything of importance, it began to seem as if our holy of holies was empty, after all. So it was with some misgivings that I began, this year, in performance of what seemed a duty, the clearing out of so much of the agora as was already expropriated.

This time, we turned the west flank of the Propylæa, and before we got far we found our way fairly checked by an abundance of marble blocks and statues. The former were architrave blocks, very massive, carved on one side with most elaborate mouldings (the most prominent of which was the palm-leaf band), on the other with the usual Ionic mouldings, and on the bottom with a triple band of overlapping myrtle leaves; and cornice blocks ornamented with brackets and rosettes. Among about ten of each kind of these several were curved, the ornamented side being concave.

The first statues found were a pair of colossal figures, eight feet high, wearing the Phrygian cap, attached to pilasters at the back. Two Corinthian square capitals fitted on to the tops of these pilasters. The backs of the heads of the statues were cut away, that they might come closer up against the capital, which was also cut away a little. The figures thus appeared to *assist* at least in bearing the architrave, and so were analogous to the famous Caryatids. Two square bases, three feet each way, with the same ornamentation as the architrave blocks, and with most shabby reliefs on one side, were seen to be bases for these figures, the plinth with the feet of one of the statues fitting exactly into the depression at the top of one of them. Thus, we can reconstruct the whole system from the bottom up. Two more large, fine female heads, with the same proportions and the same cuttings at the back, belong evidently to the same series; but nothing of their bodies has yet been recovered. One large plaque of ceiling, doubtless of the same building, containing in two of its sunken squares busts of Helios and Selene in relief, and in a third a rosette, is supplemented by several other pieces with rosettes. As we kept on going southwest from the west end of the Propylæa, we expected to find foundations to fit all these pieces of the superstructure; but now that we seem to have got beyond the mass of them, and no foundations fitted for them appear, the probability that they come from the Propylæa, of which we have massive buttresses remaining, is greatly increased. To reconstruct the Propylæa is a large hope, and it seems now about to be realized. At any rate, the sculpture, although of Roman times, is valuable for itself.

After the first flush of excitement, there followed many dull days in which we had little to record, except the removal of so many cubic metres of earth. Then came the discovery of a very fine head of Ariadne, with an ivy wreath and one hand

thrown up over the head, in a state of perfect preservation; then a relief, with two ecstatic mænads most beautifully carved on a rounded block which formed a part of a base about four feet in diameter, perhaps a base for a group of Dionysos and Ariadne from which the head just mentioned came.

But, not to catalogue all our finds here, I will note the crowning success of the year. About seventy-five feet southwest of the west end of the Propylæa, we came upon a platform about three feet high with a façade made of metopes and triglyphs and a coping above them, with red, blue, and yellow paint still covering them, making a gorgeous show even now. This façade had a length of about thirty feet, and in a part of its extent it had no platform behind it, and was simply a balustrade. At one point it was broken through. As we advanced into this opening we came upon a series of slabs on a level with the bottom of the triglyph system. When these slabs were taken up, the earth rolled down on one side so much that those working above joked at those below to the effect that they were going to be swallowed up in the earth. In a few hours we did get down into the earth; but it was by a flight of seven steps, at the bottom of which we stood on the floor of an irregularly quadrangular room, about twenty-five feet below the surface which we had broken up. In the west wall of the room there were two rather undersized lions' heads of bronze, through the wide-open mouths of which water had once flowed. Beneath them were the round holes in the pavement in which pitchers were placed for filling. Above them there projected forward the edge of the native ledge with which we had become familiar two years ago in the fountain Peirene at the other end of the Propylæa. There was no doubt, there could be no doubt, that here we were at an ancient Greek level, and that the fountain which we have is an ancient Greek fountain, not destroyed like Glauke nor remodelled several times like Peirene, but remaining absolutely intact, an absolutely unique example. I was so staggered by it that I could hardly believe in our good luck. Mr. Kabbadias, the Ephor General of Antiquities, came out from Athens and upbraided me for not being enthusiastic enough over my luck. And when he wrote about it in the papers, visitors came from Athens and elsewhere, so that we had to have a guard mounted to see that the lions' heads were not stolen. Two Cabinet members came separately yesterday afternoon. To-day, casts of the heads are being made.

Although it is certain that the fountain itself is Greek, the balustrade at the top of the steps is Roman in the sense that it was placed there when Corinth was refounded by Julius Cæsar. But it is Greek, and very interesting Greek, in that it is taken from temples which Mummius destroyed when they had all their *parure* fresh upon them, and convey to us a lively impression of the distribution of color on a Doric temple. Pausanius never saw the buildings from which they come, for when he visited the place they had ceased to exist for more than three hundred years. And he was too much engaged in recording *sacred* things to mention this balustrade made of their remains, beautiful though it must have been. He does, indeed, I think, mention this fountain without noticing the balustrade especially; for this is in the agora, and he mentions a single fountain there, one on which stood a bronze statue of Poseidon with a dolphin at his feet ejecting water from its mouth. As we found a base on the above mentioned platform (which, by the way, forms the covering to the room in front of the wall with the lion's heads), it seems natural to connect this with the statue of Poseidon, even if we fail to see how the water was brought to so high a level.

I must refrain from enlarging on other events of the campaign, but ought not to leave unmentioned a most exquisite votive relief found in the last days of the work, with seven small figures not more than eight inches high. The pure spirit of Greek art breathes through it, and is felt as sensibly from it as from the Parthenon frieze or from the Attic tombstones of the best period.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

THE ECLIPSE IN TRIPOLI.

TRIPOLI, BARBARY, May 29, 1900.

A more nearly ideal station for observing an eclipse could hardly be imagined than the roof terrace of the old British Consulate here, whereon, through the courtesy of Mr. Jago, the Consul-General, Professor Todd has set up his instruments. Higher than all the surrounding houses, it commands a fine view of the white city, through whose courtyards an occasional palm or blossoming oleander projects itself above the masonry; and is overlooked only by the green-capped, crescent-crowned minarets of seven or eight mosques, from which the cloaked muezzins emerge five times a day to send out their not unmelodious calls to prayer. Far beyond roofs and domes, too, one sees on three sides the blue Mediterranean, and on the fourth the fringing palms of the desert, and its undulating, mysterious wastes of endless sand.

Here the "royal observatory" is established, and the Arab dwellers on surrounding roofs have watched for several weeks the growth of telescopic groves, a dignified curiosity marking their silent attention. Below, in the narrow streets, figures wrapped in the white barracan pass and repass like ghostly figures of a dream. An occasional Moslem woman showing only one bright eye, the Jewish women less covered but hardly more frequent, brown Arab boys driving flocks of goats, overburdened donkeys, stately camels—the whole Oriental procession in endless interest threads the tiny thoroughfares; and above, the long tubes have pointed skyward, waiting for the important day.

When the apparatus in its many boxes first arrived, the natives imagined that the astronomer was bringing a huge balloon to convey him into the interior of the desert, and many innocent questions as to his intentions gave zest to the early days of Tripoli life. The older men, on being told that an eclipse was coming, said they remembered one years ago, but that was produced by God. This new kind, made by a Kaffir, they knew nothing about. At all events, it was not lawful to draw or depict it in any way. An eclipse was total here, or near by, according to Oppolzer, on December 31, 1861, which may be the one remembered—or possibly the annular eclipse of June 17, 1890.

Just before its plunge off into the desert to the southeast, and its flight away from the earth entirely, the long path of yesterday's total eclipse covered Tripoli in a brief darkness. From Mexico very early in the morning to Barbary late in the afternoon, the swiftly flying shadow of the moon sped on its way, calling scores of astronomers into its track. The chances for clear skies seemed greater here, and hither came Professor Todd and later Mr. Percival Lowell to interrogate the corona.

The automatic system of eclipse photography, first devised by Professor Todd in Japan in 1887, carried out by pneumatic tubes in West Africa in 1889, and by electricity in Japan in 1896, he employed again, with essential modifications, using a purely mechanical force in changing the plates, and turning the controlling barrel by gravity, weights starting at the roof and descending to the bottom of the courtyard. On one great central tube were twelve telescopes, each arranged to take its own series of pictures. The upper one was a five-inch Zeiss-Clark lens by Bausch & Lomb of Rochester, fitted up as a biograph camera for taking four photographs every three seconds. A five-inch Schroeder lens, with image amplified in the ordinary way, came next, with an attachment invented by Professor Todd for photographing both the inner and outer corona on the same plate, by a series of concentric rings, successively removed as the eclipse progresses—which he also used in Japan. Following the order of position on the tube, a quadruple camera with lenses by the Gundlach Optical Co. and C. P. Goerz of Berlin was arranged to take twelve pictures by each lens; a four-inch metal speculum succeeded, and two short focus cameras by Ross of London and Gilmer of Paris were added, to get records of possible intramercurian planets; next came a pinhole photometer for estimating the total light of the corona; a twenty-four-inch lens of thirty feet focus, the conspicuous feature of our roof observatory, was arranged for taking large-scale coronal pictures, and a box of a dozen dry plates for testing the possibility of X-rays in the corona completed the apparatus carried by the one large tube. Half of each of these plates had been previously exposed by Professor Stephan of Marseilles to the Roentgen rays, while the other half was covered with lead, waiting for what might develop on eclipse day. The whole mounting was kept accurately pointed at the sun by the glycerine clock, which has enabled very perfect following of the heavenly bodies. Like everything else in Tripoli, the standards, tubes, and all iron or brass or wood connected with the apparatus, were painted white, to avoid absorption of heat—and indeed it seemed a spectral array of telescopes for photographing a shadow. A number of small glasses to be used visually were mounted by themselves, and three or four fine meteorological instruments were put in position and used on eclipse day by Professor Ayra, director of the local observatory.

As preparations approached a focus, and the eventful day drew near, the skies became an all-absorbing subject of study for the unofficial member of the Lowell Expedition. It is the dry season in Tripoli, and storms would not come, fine weather being always normal at this time; but that does not mean necessarily an absolutely cloudless sky, and there was a bare possibility, also, that it might be a "giblet" day, when the hot wind

would blow straight from the central deserts, bringing a yellowish haze of imperceptible sand to thicken the atmosphere dangerously. But Sunday came, bright and warm, with a few floating clouds, and Monday morning dawned with a fresh west wind and skies of crystal clearness. It was scarcely possible to experience any nerve tension on account of the weather, and yet I jealously watched the western sky all day, lest some wandering bit of film might dim the perfect brightness of it. And as the hour drew nearer, the same sense of expectancy, of something approaching, which has always accompanied eclipses, drew on with the minutes.

From Mr. Douglass, in far-away Georgia, a gratifying cable message was received about 1:59, Greenwich time, of his success in observing the eclipse, thus beating the on-rushing moon by man's swifter messenger. We received the news in twenty-nine minutes from the time the observations were made, and two hours and twenty minutes before totality began here. The Georgia message was telegraphed to Washington; by the Western Union from Washington to New York; from there to Penzance, and thence to Gibraltar. On Prof. Todd's application and by the courtesy of Denison Pender, Esq., General Manager of the extensive lines of the Eastern Telegraph Co., and son of the late Sir John Pender, the use of the new cables from Gibraltar to Malta and Malta to Tripoli was given, which enabled this very rapid communication, and the entire worsting of the moon in its race with electricity.

Gradually, the roofs about the consulate filled with a curious throng, as the afternoon began. Arabs folded in white barracans silhouetted against the sky; Turkish soldiers on their ramparts, the Franciscan monks in brown-hooded robes on their church roof, Jews and Maltese, all crowded skyward as the day advanced. The partial eclipse began, and still the people, like the Ainus of northern Yezo, looked steadily at us, and not at the sun. The adoration of Baal, once the old worship on these sites, had, indeed, given way to a scientific solar devotion of very different character. The minarets were filled with gazers, and, as the eclipse went on, the strange Gregorian chant of the call to prayer came through the still, clear air with an almost weird cadence in the peculiarly penetrating voices of the muezzins. The sky was so clear, the sunshine so dazzling, that the glare of the white roof was almost blinding, and the first change in the light which became perceptible was the increasing comfort in opening one's eyes upon the landscape. Many amateur observers had been drilled for drawing the corona, observing the shadow-bands, Bailey's beads, and other points of interest, and at a signal all went to their appointed places as totality approached. When the sun was somewhat more than half hidden, the light became wan and cold, the colors of everything subdued, sad. The blue Mediterranean turned slate-color, the sky like steel. The streets and roofs, though crowded with humanity, grew singularly silent, with now and then a sound of alarm from some distant point. One man only seemed entirely oblivious to the changing light, and he, wrapped in cassiabeia in a shaded courtyard far below, was stupidly shaking barley in a sieve.

The air grew suddenly cold and slightly damp, and the swallows came out in masses, flying about excitedly, in a manner quite different from their nightly sunset parade. As the black moon crept nearer and nearer to the narrowing edge of the crescent sun, strange shadow-bands began to fly across the landscape at a rapid rate, and then the crescent disintegrated into drops of brilliance, and with a thrill of tingling expectation I felt the corona approaching. Not with jerks, as in 1887, or with a grand leap, as in 1896, the darkness came, but with a strange softness—and there hung the moon's black ball in an absolutely clear sky, while about it the corona grew into life like the blossoming of some beautiful flower of celestial light. And what an exquisite corona it was—with long, delicately pointed equatorial streamers above and below, their edges luminous with white fire, their extensions lost only because the eye could not follow them to the end, the polar rays inconspicuous; and the whole with a definite structure of interwoven filaments almost an exact reproduction of the New Year's Day corona of 1889. Mercury and Venus shone brilliantly, and the sky above the desert glowed warmly yellow. But there was none of that majesty of color, that unearthly effect of a new creation, which made the Esashi eclipse of 1896 so superbly breathless. For fifty-one seconds this heavenly flower hung in the sky, and then a bit of true, dazzling sunlight returned, and totality was over. By shielding my eyes from the increasing brightness I followed the corona distinctly for over a minute after totality, until it faded away with the growing light. And gravity had done its work—endless chains of plates had passed before the lenses, pulleys had kept their place, records were made, and except for releasing the pin at the beginning, as Mrs. Jago did, to put the mechanism in motion, no hand had helped to take the hundred and fifty photographs which that pregnant fifty-one seconds had brought out.

The Lowell Expedition has been peculiarly fortunate in finding on these remote African shores many friends, who made its success possible. First, her Majesty's Consul-General, Mr. Jago and his delightful family, without whose more than courteous kindness the "royal observatory" could not have existed; and to Mr. W. H. Venables and Mr. W. F. Riley, the warmest thanks are due for an unselfish devotion to the mechanical part of the expedition, which insured its proper completion in ample time. So many names should be mentioned, that a complete list of the small English colony here would have to be made in order to include all who have helped us in these weeks of effort.

Another total eclipse will come near Tripoli in 1905, but a fine and very long one is due here on the 2d of August, 2027. It will last about seven minutes, and I only regret that circumstances beyond our control will probably prevent our observation of its protracted glories. And so I can leave this word of hopefulness for those who regretted the spectacular brevity of yesterday's corona: "The same eclipses run their steady cycle."

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

COUNT DE LA FERRONAYS.

PARIS, May 30, 1900.

The success obtained lately by the Memoirs of the present Countess Fernand de la Ferronays—a volume which has given rise to many discussions and comments in French society—will probably contribute in great part to the notoriety of a volume very different in its character, and belonging to severe history, namely, 'Souvenirs Derived from the Papers of Count A. de la Ferronays (1777-1814).' The Souvenirs are edited by the Marquis Costa de Beauregard, member of the French Academy, and well known by the volume which has for its title 'Un Homme d'autrefois.' The Costas de Beauregard are an old family of Savoy, which for many years was devoted to the house of Savoy. Since the annexation to France, some of its branches, which were already established in France, have adopted completely the French nationality. The Marquis Costa, who is the head of the house, took a very honorable part in the war of 1870, and has since applied himself to literary and historical pursuits. The Count de la Ferronays whose papers he now gives to the public with long comments of his own, was an *émigré*, who became Minister of Foreign Affairs during the Restoration, and consequently was of some importance in his time. His diplomatic career is, however, less interesting now than his life in the troubled times of the emigration. He was a modest man, and he did not write real "memoirs." "My career," he said at the age of sixty, "has not been sufficiently marked. I feel neither vanity nor humility enough to write real memoirs." The volume published by M. Costa de Beauregard is therefore made up from the letters and papers which were carefully collected by Count de la Ferronays's widow. "The husband's letters, the wife's notes, such," says M. Costa de Beauregard, "are the elements of this volume."

Count Auguste de la Ferronays was born in October, 1777, at Saint Malo (where Chateaubriand also was born). His mother was a native of San Domingo; his father, Count Eugène de la Ferronays, owned plantations in the West Indies. The boy was educated in a poor old manor-house, lost in the forest of Brittany; his father was almost always either with his regiment or at Versailles, and participated in the Seven Years' War with four of his brothers. "One day, when, on their return from Germany, the La Ferronays brothers came to pay their court at Versailles, 'He! he! there is one missing,' said gayly Louis XV., counting on his fingers." The missing one was precisely the Count Eugène, who had been severely wounded at Brunswick. M. de la Ferronays himself decided to emigrate in the early days of 1790. He came to Brittany to take his son Auguste with him; the boy was only thirteen years old. They went together to Soleure in Switzerland, and joined the Bishop of Lisieux, one of their relations. The boy was placed in a school kept by the Premonstrants of Bellelay; the father joined Condé's army. The Countess de la Ferronays would perhaps have been forgotten if her desire to have news of her husband and son had not brought her to Nantes, where the sanguinary Carrier represented the Convention. She arrived with her two young daughters, who were still children. She was arrested in the street; some good people took pity on the unfortunate girls and offered them their hospitality. The next day, the children took each other by the hand, and would fain have gone to Carrier and ask him to give them back their mother. "Hospitable as they were, these good people

[M. Costa de Beauregard does not give their name] lost their heads, and, in order to prevent this fatal imprudence, conceived the idea of simply walling the children in a corner of their cellar, leaving only a hole open, through which to hand them their food. . . . They were made free again only after the death of Carrier." They were two skeletons, said Madame de la Ferronays, who gives these details in her notes. The torture of the two children had lasted eleven months. Their mother was kept thirteen months in prison. When she left it, she fainted away, and she died soon afterwards. "Her life had been that of a saint; her death was the death of a martyr."

M. Costa de Beauregard gives us a good account of Condé's army and of his difficulties in Germany. The feelings of the *émigrés* are well understood by him. "To those believers," he says, "the idea of fatherland was so different from what it has become to us! Their princes were to them the incarnation of France. We must believe in the sincerity of witnesses who give their lives. Our skepticism is too much above—or beneath—such an act of faith to allow us to judge them fairly." After 1792, Condé submitted to all the requirements of Austria. His regiment was broken up, his gentlemen reduced to the ranks and to the pay of the meanest pandour. He was himself no more than a lieutenant-general. He could not keep any artillery, as he could not feed his horses. His cavalry officers were obliged to sell their horses and to enter the infantry.

Auguste de la Ferronays won his spurs at Steinstadt. He was very proud of his uniform; the Duke d'Enghien presented him to his new comrades. He saw the King for the first time at Riegel, in May, 1796. Louis XVIII. had been obliged to leave Verona and to cross the Alps; he stayed a little while with Condé's army, and took refuge in Blankenburg, near Brunswick. He accepted afterwards the hospitality of the Czar at Mittau, and Condé's regiments took the road to Volhynia. The Condéens had to make a journey of four hundred leagues. M. de la Ferronays, the father, joined the Duke de Berry at Dubno, taking his family with him. It was thought that he might be a useful guide for a young prince who was twenty years old. M. Costa describes with amusing details the life led at Dubno by the *émigrés*, the Duke de Berry, La Ferronays and his family, the Prince de Condé and his mistress, Madame de Monaco (who ultimately became his wife). The portrait which he traces of the Duke de Berry is far from flattering. "It was said of his mother, Maria Theresa of Savoy, that she spoiled the fine blood of Henry IV." He was ugly, excessively ignorant, capricious, without measure in anything; his youth had known none of the mild influences which contribute to form the man in the child. It was said of La Rochefoucauld that he needed a quarrel every morning and a reconciliation every night. The Duke de Berry was to subject Auguste de la Ferronays to this singular régime for fifteen years. The Prince adopted him as a friend, a companion, a confidant, but this great favor became a real slavery and sometimes an almost intolerable yoke.

War began in March, 1799, and the Condéens learned that they were placed under the orders of Suvaroff. The army left Dubno in May. It marched to Italy in five columns. The two La Ferronays were in the cavalry of the Duke de Berry. The whole family accompanied the army. "We went on," says Madame de la Ferronays, "as if we were going to a feast. Nobody doubted that the war would end by our triumphal entry into France, which we were to deliver. It was for us an enterprise as holy as a crusade, and more gay." Suvaroff was beaten by the French in Switzerland, and it was at Constance that the *émigrés* learned the news of the revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire. They spent the winter of 1799 in Steyer, the old capital of Styria. The Russian Emperor had got disgusted with the war, with the King of France, and with Condé's army. The Condéens—Austrian, at first, then Russian—became English, and had to receive their pay from England. Condé established himself at Linz. In the spring of 1800 he took the road to Leghorn, as the English Government had resolved to employ his force and to send it first to Minorca, under the orders of Abercromby. The victory of Marengo put an end to these projects, and the Condéens were once more frustrated in their designs. In the campaign which followed, and which, after Hohenlinden, opened for a moment to Moreau the road to Vienna, they were once more among the vanquished.

Condé's army was finally disbanded, and we find La Ferronays now engaged in more pacific pursuits. His life became a sort of Odyssey, as he had to follow the Duke de Berry from place to place. This unrest did not hinder him from marrying; the new Mme. de la Ferronays was Mlle. de Montsoreau; her dowry was an income of twelve hundred francs a year. The wedding took place on the 23d of February, 1802, and was the beginning of the happiest union. The letters of Mme. de la Ferronays are highly creditable to her character, to her elevation of sentiment. Her husband writes to her: "You have made me understand how our marriages in the emigration are better than those which preceded the Revolution. In the latter, interest, ambition, convention replaced this pure love which is found only in poverty."

The Duke de Berry left Germany during the Consulate and set up an establishment in England. La Ferronays joined him there, but seems to have been very unhappy among discontented *émigrés*, separated from his wife. He was acquainted with all the details of the conspiracy of Cadoudal, with the preparations for a landing in Brittany, and lived in a state of continual uneasiness. If he had not been attached to the Duke de Berry, he would probably have met the fate of Cadoudal's accomplices. The arrest and execution of the Duke d'Enghien filled him with horror. When the war broke out between Napoleon and England, La Ferronays returned to Brunswick. We cannot follow him in all his peregrinations, to Warsaw, to Mittau, where he found Louis XVIII. He tried in vain to enter the Russian service; he was more fortunate in Sweden, and obtained a brevet of officer in the Swedish army. He was recalled to London by the Duke de Berry, and had great difficulty in evading Napoleon's police at Hamburg. His disappointments in England were great, and he had much to complain of the temper of his master. After Jena and the total collapse of the Prussian forces, the La Ferronays were obliged to fly to Altona, and finally they again took refuge in England.

What is most characteristic of La Ferronays is the sentiment of absolute loyalty which he bore towards the Duke de Berry, for whom he could not feel much affection or respect. There is in this sentiment of all the *émigrés* for their princes a remnant of the old feeling which we find so often and so well described in the 'Romans de la Table Ronde'—an absolute, a religious devotion to the lord, whatever may be his defects, often his crimes. This feudal sentiment of the man of war who follows a leader through thick and thin, transformed itself and became the sentiment of loyalty to the representatives of legitimacy. But for it, it would be difficult to explain such lives as that of La Ferronays.

Notes.

'China, the Long-Lived Empire,' by Miss Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore, one of the secretaries of the Oriental Congress at Rome last year, and a well-known writer on the Far East, will make a timely appearance with the imprint of the Century Co. It will have a portrait of the Dowager Empress for frontispiece.

Harper & Bros. will bring out a translation, by Daniel B. Vermilye, of Flournoy's 'Des Indes à la planète Mars,' reviewed in last week's *Nation*, and a novel, 'The Dishonor of Frank Scott,' by an English author, M. Hamilton.

A second volume of Prof. Elisha Grey's 'Nature's Miracles,' on Sound, Heat, Light, and Explosives, is in the press of Fords, Howard & Hulbert, to be followed shortly by a third, on Electricity and Magnetism.

Henry Holt & Co. expect to issue within the present month 'Memory,' an inductive study by Prof. F. W. Colegrove of the University of Washington, with an introduction by President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University.

'Old Ocean's Ferry: The Log of the Modern Mariner, the Transatlantic Traveller, and Quaint Facts of Neptune's Realm,' compiled by John Colgate Hoyt, will be published directly by Bonnell, Silver & Co.

Leonard Huxley's 'Life and Letters of Thomas H. Huxley' is set down for autumn publication by D. Appleton & Co.

The late firm of James Pott & Co., in this city, has been succeeded by Edwin S. Gorham.

The supplemental volume to the Clarendon Press Concordance to the Septuagint, by Dr. Hatch and Mr. Redpath, is to be divided into two parts; the first, of proper names. The second will contain the preface, a short concordance, showing the Hebrew equivalents to the Greek in the lately discovered fragments of Ecclesiasticus; a concordance to the additional words to be found in the Hexaplaric fragments which have come to light since the publication of the original work, including the fragments shortly to be published by Dr. Mercati of the Vatican Library, who has placed at the disposal of the editor an index to those fragments; and finally, an index to the Hebrew of the whole work.

The 'Victoria History of the Counties of England' is the title of a work announced to be published by Messrs. A. Constable & Co., London, in a series of 160 volumes of

large imperial octavo. The editor is Mr. H. Arthur Doubleday, F.R.G.S., aided by an advisory council containing representatives from the universities and the various learned societies. The architectural history and the searching of records will be superintended by two auxiliary committees, while each county will have its separate editorial staff. Among the subjects treated will be "all the phases of ecclesiastical history; the changes in land tenure; the records of historic and local families; the history of the social life and sports of the villages and towns; the development of art, science, manufactures and industries." A supplementary volume will be issued for each county, containing the pedigrees of the present county families, and illustrations of the arms of the families mentioned in the Heralds' Visitations. There will be many thousands of illustrations and about four hundred maps. The price to subscribers of the whole series is fixed at 240 guineas, but each history of a county is complete in itself and will be sold separately. Hampshire, including the Isle of Wight, will be the first of the series to be issued.

Lemcke & Buechner, 812 Broadway, will supply the American market with the important pioneer 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899.' In one author-alphabet will be embraced the Italian publications for the period designated, both in the peninsula and abroad. A subject-index will follow. The work is in charge of the librarian Pagliani, and will be issued in monthly parts of 80 pages, at 75 cents each, with a prospective total of 2,800 pages. Italy will thus, while following our example, better our instruction, since for the moment our 'American Catalogue' dates back only to such books as were in print in 1876.

Mr. John D. Champlin's illustrated 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Persons and Places' (Henry Holt & Co.) reaches its third edition in twenty years of favor, and with considerable additions now fills nearly 1,000 pages. McKinley and the shining names of the Spanish war are among the newcomers, but, by a natural preference for men of spectacular action in such a work as this, the editor admits Hobson and omits Gen. Leonard Wood. A faulty perspective is likewise shown in yielding a place to so fleeting a name as that of Stephen Crane. Marconi well deserves his entry, but one looks in vain for Crispi. Palmer Cox and Olive Thorne Miller have afforded pleasure and instruction enough to young folks to warrant some account of them; but Kenyon Cox and Elliott Coues have respectively a better title to be known to the rising generation curious about art or ornithology or American exploration. St. Gaudens's masterpiece, by the way, the Shaw monument, goes unmentioned. The sketch of Edison is marred by its style and by its insisting on his boyish precocity. Wendell Phillips and Frederick Douglass and Carl Schurz are still wanting in this Cyclopædia, which ought not to be deficient on the side of American oratory. The Greater American Diaz has no article to himself. Africa is described wholly from the physical point of view, and no political map is given, though the formation of it is perhaps the most striking world incident of the century now closing. And what should an American boy make of these sentences from the inadequate notice of Rousseau? "Writing books . . . which did a great deal of harm by the ideas he put forth. Some of these are that all men are born equal."

Last November there came to light in a London sale a manuscript copy of a metrical translation of Bürger's "Lenore" by the late Dante Rossetti. As no scrap of greatness must nowadays go unprinted, a handsome thin quarto volume has been made of this version, and published in London by Ellis & Elvey. The poet's brother William, as usual, supplies an introduction, which tells of Dante's early experiments in rendering the German into English, and also reviews the English versions of "Lenore," which are on the whole not an inspiring lot. M. W. M. Rossetti thinks his brother's intrinsically worth printing, apart from the fact that it was written by a boy of sixteen; and we agree with him. It is spirited, and it is not so manifest a translation as to be hard reading; but it is free, like the man Rossetti's dealings with the Italian.

Any Irish Rip Van Winkle, falling asleep five years ago, and now awakening and opening 'Spring and Autumn in Ireland,' dedicated by the British Unionist Poet Laureate to "The Brave and Gifted Irish People," would indeed open his eyes in astonishment. But so it is: subject peoples are esteemed by their rulers as it suits their purpose to esteem them. We have here, in a thin volume published by Macmillan, full appreciation of the charms of Irish scenery, much (rather patronizing) appreciation of Irish kindliness, a not unfair conception of Irish shortcomings, much misapprehension of causes, too great a belief that differences between English and Irish are due to inherent dispositions rather than to history and environment. There is scarcely a page concerning which all but Imperialists and Unionists of the *Spectator* type might not have much to say. Mr. Austin at the first eschews controversy "over the Irish question," yet, especially in the poem with which he concludes, raises it in its worst form in the minds of most who have thought and felt deeply thereupon. The book is too freely scattered with quotations in foreign languages—we have counted sixteen in the ninety-six pages of prose. It will add to the self-satisfaction with which the average British tourist visits Ireland. It will bring strong expressions to the lips of many Irishmen, and yet give them somewhat upon which they might well ponder.

We spoke at some length of the series called 'The World's Orators' (Putnams) on the appearance of the first volume. The second is devoted to orators of ancient Rome; and C. Gracchus, Cato, Cicero, the elder Seneca, Quintilian, Pliny the Younger, and Florus find places in it. There are also speeches selected from the histories of Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus. The introduction is thoughtful and interesting; the translations are in general correct and not without spirit. The book itself is beautifully printed on excellent paper, and contains half-a-dozen illustrations purporting to be likenesses of the orators. The editors wisely refuse to vouch for the authenticity of these, but they might at least have omitted the fancy sketch ("from an old copper print") of the Elder Pliny and his book of animals, which they have called 'Pliny the Second.'

Any one who wishes a brief popular sketch of monachism guaranteed to avoid carefully any dwelling on the unpleasant, and to leave in the mind a comfortable sense of peace with all men, may turn safely to A. W. Wishart's 'Short History of Monks and Monasteries' (Trenton, N. J.: Albert Brandt). The book covers the ground fairly well and in a light, easy style, but the covering everywhere is very thin. Its centre is England; there its threads run together, and the account of the suppression of the English monasteries is the only part which enters upon any details. In marked contrast is the section dealing with the military orders; it is meagre in the extreme. The four pages of bibliography prefixed are also English only, and Schaff's 'Nicene Fathers,' Scott's 'Monastery,' and Smith's 'Student's Ecclesiastical History' jostle one another in pleasing medley. And those "authorities" have been freely used. If all the direct quotations from them were cut out, there would be a marked shrinkage in bulk. Mr. Wishart, also, has carefully avoided any independent judgments, brawling or otherwise. Brawling, indeed, is far from him; his paths lie through placid calms. Externally, the book is charmingly got up; beautifully printed on excellent paper, with rough edges and gilt top. The scientific and artistic ideals of the Brandt Press, which produces it, are evidently higher than those of its author.

Dr. Henry Hayman's 'Epistles of the New Testament: An Attempt to Present them in Current and Popular Idiom' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) is excellent as a commentary, but hardly satisfactory as a version. The sense—or, rather, *a* sense—is brought out with great clearness, better than by pages of exposition, but we cannot believe that the form is how the Apostles "would have expressed themselves if the vernacular English of our own day had been their medium of expression." But apart from this the problem is essentially insoluble. The old phrases haunt our ears with their mysteries of association and melody. "So vast a cloud of attesting spectators" will never take the place of "so great a cloud of witnesses," nor does "the cherished object of my heart" compare as English with "my heart's desire." But if the rendering be taken simply as a paraphrase, such criticism is wide of the mark; as a paraphrase it will be very helpful. The book is beautifully printed, page for page with the Authorized Version.

The Jewish Publication Society of America (Philadelphia) has just added to the books issued by it a translation by Henrietta Szold of Part i. of the 'Ethik des Judenthums' (the Ethics of Judaism) of Prof. Moritz Lazarus of Berlin. In the awakening interest in Judaism—hostile and friendly, scientific and popular—which is a feature of the time, such a book as this by the veteran founder of the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie* must play an important part. It is marked by the attitude of mind of the comparative psychologist, but in it there is no comparative psychology. Comparison means apologetics; apologetics mean polemics; and what part can ethics have in polemics? "If thou wave thy sword over an altar, thou hast polluted it." So we have here a sympathetic and incisive sketch of the ethical principles of the later Judaism, that vast exercising ground of bizarre mental gymnastics. The difficulties in the case are great, but have been fairly met. Strictly, Judaism can have no philosophical ethics; morality for the Jew is based on the nature of God. Only in the

pseudo-Aristotelianism of Maimonides is another starting-point posited. But while this theological origin is admitted—or, rather, emphasized—the idea of the morality of God is so developed as to permit an ethical treatment of human morality. This, of course, involves more or less of squaring of the circle; the Socratic riddle, Do the gods do a thing because it is right, or is it right because the gods do it? is not to be so easily answered. In the first part three chapters of the original work are included, those on the Sources, on the Principle, and on the Character of Jewish Ethics. The translation is good, but might read more easily.

The Dent-Macmillan series of Temple Primers has lately been increased by Mr. Lionel D. Barnett's sketch of 'The Greek Drama.' This concise treatise, while "claiming no spark of originality," has followed recent and eminent authorities—chiefly the German—and may be commended as a skilful and conscientious piece of condensation. Nowhere, indeed, can so many minute facts be found on its subject in so small a compass, since it treats of the origins of tragedy and comedy, the literary history of both, the structure and development of the Greek theatre, and finds room also within one hundred pages for the insertion of about a dozen well-chosen plans and illustrations. There are statements and views which one naturally marks with an interrogation point; but a primer is, in this branch, only a series of texts to preach from by way of expansion or limitation, and the author may fairly be excused for his dogmatism, if the reader is warned that the last word has not been said. The references are unexceptionable, as far as they go; the author shows no acquaintance with French works on his topic, yet his view of Euripides, for instance, might have been modified by a reading of Decharme. The index is good, and displays a hyper-conscientiousness in proper names, *e. g.*, Sekyon, Semonides.

Dr. John Macpherson's 'Mental Affections: An Introduction to the Study of Insanity' (Macmillan) is an excellent treatise, clearly written, so far as the difficulties of the subject allow, and not calling for adverse criticism so long as one remains in sympathy with the author's mode of approaching the subject. Those who are interested—and who is not?—in the engrossing subject of insanity, are aware that, in the study of its problems, emphasis may be laid preeminently upon either the psychological, the anatomical, or the clinical methods, and some may be aware that, within the last few years, a school has risen into prominence, mainly under the guidance of the German physician Kraepelin, by which the claims of the clinical method have been more especially urged. We must have a classification of mental diseases, they say, and for this it is unsafe to take analyses of the psychologist, who often misses the broad features of a life-long illness in his analysis of special symptoms. The name of Kraepelin occurs but once or twice in Dr. Macpherson's book. On the other hand, his psychological chapters and his studies of the laws of degeneration and genesis of symptoms are admirable, even if one may not wholly agree with the conclusions. The clinical part of the book is good, but not, as we have intimated, sufficiently prominent.

French reviewers cannot bear the thought that their articles are to pass away with the weekly or monthly issue of the journal or review for which they have been written, and as their work is usually careful, the various articles speedily reappear in book form. There is too much of this sort of thing, yet in M. Gaston Deschamps's fifth volume of 'La Vie et les Livres' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) there are three articles that one rereads with pleasure—those on Théophile Gautier, on Anatole France, and on Paul Bourget. In each of these there is food for thought, and some keen appreciation of the writers and their works.

In a pamphlet entitled 'De l'Émancipation de la femme musulmane' (Lisieux), the Russian Orientalist, Madame Olga de Lededer, has published her address delivered at the International Congress of Orientalists at Rome in October last. Her attainments in Turkish and Arabic, and, especially, her intimate associations with the women of the Mohammedan Orient during many journeys in those countries, enables her to give information on a matter the existence of which was, perhaps, not even suspected by the outsider. Yet her report shows that the woman question exists, at least in its beginnings, in the Orient, although chiefly through contact with the ideas and ideals of Western civilization. She declares that the equality of women with the men is not inconsistent with the Arabic type of civilization. Considerable influence in this direction has been exerted by the schools for native girls established by France in Algiers and Tunis. A society is being organized at present in St. Petersburg for the purpose of elevating the rank of Moslem women. The *Italie* of Rome recently reported that Kassima Emin Bey, a prominent judicial official in Cairo, had come out with a plea for the better education of women, for freedom in selecting her own husband, and for denying the absolute right of divorce to the husband. The new programme culminates in a proposal to abolish polygamy.

The July number of the *American Historical Review* will contain articles by Prof. George B. Adams of Yale on "The Critical Period of English Constitutional History"; Mr. Hubert Hall, F.S.A., of the Public Record Office, on "Chatham's Colonial Policy"; Prof. Max Ferrand, on "Territory and District," and "The Judiciary Act of 1801"; Mr. Howard L. Wilson, on "President Buchanan's Proposed Intervention in Mexico." Noteworthy also is a series of letters by Col. Ebenezer Huntington of the Revolutionary Army, extending from the siege of Boston to the siege of Yorktown.

Two articles in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June speak to the eye as well as to the intelligence. One is President Eliot's sketch of the life of the late Prof. Charles Franklin Dunbar, whose typical Yankee face (in spite of Scotch descent) prefaces the text, and anticipates what the biographer has to say of his speculative mind and shy habit, along with his services to daily journalism during the civil war, and to instruction in political economy at Harvard subsequently. The other illustration is of a Meleager torso loaned indefinitely to the Fogg Art Museum, and discussed by Mr. Richard Norton, Director of the American School at Rome.

A supplementary number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* has been published, containing the proceedings of the Society of which it is the organ at its annual meeting, together with brief biographies of members deceased. Among the noteworthy names are W. E. Gladstone, Hannibal Hamlin, Bishop Perry, and J. M. Forbes. In the address of the President, reference is made to the approaching completion of a consolidated index to the first fifty volumes of the *Register*. It is estimated that this will contain "no less than 600,000 names of persons, besides 200,000 of families, and about 150,000 of places"! The "Genealogical Gleanings in England," by Henry F. Waters, which have formed an important feature of the *Register* for the past seventeen years, have been rearranged for a book edition, making three volumes of over 500 pages each, which, it is hoped, will soon be published.

The last number of the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* contains a capital article by M. Tallichet on "L'Opinion publique et la guerre africaine." The writer corrects a good many popular errors and misapprehensions, and, incidentally, dresses down M. Brunetière in a way not calculated to displease impartial observers. There is also an interesting review of 'Richard Carvel' from the foreign standpoint, and the usual full conspectus of affairs in various parts of the world, the latter being one of the strong attractions of the *Bibliothèque*.

—No. 9 of the Bulletin of the Department of State is dated October, 1897, but has only recently been published. It contains another instalment of the Miscellaneous Index, and a "literal print of Madison's Notes of Debates in the Federal Convention." Interest naturally centres upon these Notes, although they are incomplete in parts, and the manner of printing makes certain sections almost unintelligible. It is a pity that economy was carried so far as to omit resort to the cancelled letter, much used in the Public Printing-Office in printing bills, for this would have rendered unnecessary the repetition of explanatory phrases. Nor is the distinction between the two sizes of type clearly drawn. It is probable that Madison dressed his notes before making a fair copy, and the insertions and alterations have consequently been distinguished from the original text; but it may be doubted if this minute attention has produced commensurate results. The issue, however interesting, will never supersede the Gilpin edition, and a facsimile reproduction would have been of far higher value, and given to the eye what the formal type can never convey. The remarks on p. 193 require most careful study and the aid of Gilpin to be comprehended, and this is only one instance among many.

—How far do the Notes add to what has already appeared in print? Only a phrase here and there, and a word rejected by Madison in his revision. The comment of Lansing on Hamilton, "The greatest objection against whose ideas in general was perhaps the repugnance of the people to them," is all the more illuminative because Madison struck it out. So Franklin is made to speak of the "mock establishment of the papal system," but, in printing, Gilpin omitted "mock." The verbal differences between Gilpin and the Bulletin are many, and frequently suggestive. King is made by Gilpin to say that the people had "impliedly" given their sanction to the confederation, but the Bulletin uses the word *implicitly* (p. 66). Dickinson asserted, according to Gilpin, that the Senate, with a long term of service, could "*check* and de-

cide with becoming freedom"; but the proper word was *speak*, as the Bulletin shows (p. 75). Other examples may be found on p. 90 of the Bulletin, where *reclaim* is used for *restrain* in Gilpin; p. 145, *present* for *private;* p. 156, *intent* for *extent;* p. 174, *bearing* for *leaning;* and p. 220, *terms* for *times*. Some few errors have crept into this text. *Proposition* in the last line on p. 77 should be *proportion; imports* on p. 102 should be *imposts*; and *facts* on p. 190 should be *parts*. The contraction for McClurg on p. 94 is wrong. An index of more than 100 pages is proof of the care bestowed by Mr. Allen upon this issue of the Bulletin, and it is a welcome promise of some activity on the part of the Government in making accessible its store of historical manuscripts.

—In noticing from time to time the series of public-school histories which has been recently appearing, we have more than once expressed the desire that some competent person would write an account of the actual working of the English "Public School" system as it exists to-day. This wish is to some extent met by the new series of Handbooks to the great Public Schools now being issued by Messrs. Bell in London and the Macmillan Co. in New York. The two volumes now before us—'Rugby,' by H. C. Bradby, and 'Charterhouse,' by A. H. Tod—are well written, and will serve excellently their evident purpose, which is, doubtless, to show the British parent what sort of place it is he is thinking of sending his boy to. They describe the daily routine of the school, the division into "sides" and "forms," and the position and traditions of the several "houses"; and both print a copy of the present timetable of studies. Mr. Tod, not having so much to tell in the way of traditions, finds room for a special chapter on Expenses. Perhaps it is for the same reason that instead of thirty-six pages, which is Mr. Bradby's allowance, he devotes fifty-two pages to the subject of school games. The story of Charterhouse should be particularly interesting to American readers; it shows how quickly a brand-new school, under a capable and sympathetic head-master, such as was Dr. Haig Brown, may gather around itself a fund of loyalty and common associations of an ennobling sort. For it was really very little that the new Charterhouse, planted on the hill-top out at Godalming in 1872, carried on from the old Charterhouse of Thackeray in the heart of London. Recent events will justify one brief quotation from the Charterhouse volume. "Baden-Powell, who kept goal in 1875-6, took a very liberal view of a goalkeeper's functions. His voice enabled him to direct the forwards at the other end of the ground, and his agility enabled him to cheer the spectators with impromptu dances when he had nothing pressing to do." Both books are lavishly illustrated with pictures both of exteriors and interiors; there are maps of the school grounds and descriptions of the several buildings. They will, therefore, serve as superior guide-books for visitors, and will also give the American reader who cannot visit the places a very fair notion of what an English "Public School" is.

—We record with very deep regret the death in Boston, on June 14, of William Henry Whitmore, City Registrar. Mr. Whitmore was one of the oldest contributors to the *Nation*, having joined the staff of its reviewers in 1869, and he continued to write for this journal even down to and during his fatal illness, which involved a long confinement to the house. He was, past question, the foremost genealogist in the country, and his private library, in this vein, was one of the largest and most valuable extant. It embraced numerous works compiled by himself, especially the indispensable catalogue entitled 'The American Genealogist,' which appeared in more than one edition. He was at one time an editor of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, founded the *Heraldic Journal*, and was one of the founders of the *Historical Magazine*, as also of the Prince Society and the Boston Antiquarian Society. His ingenious 'Ancestral Tablets' has won him the gratitude of thousands eager to discover and to conveniently display their pedigree. Other books from his pen were 'The Cavalier Dismounted,' a tract on the character of Southern colonial immigration; 'Elements of Heraldry,' a 'History of the Old State House, Boston,' and interesting monographs on Mother Goose, early Boston engravers, etc. He edited the Hutchinson Papers, Andros Tracts and Praed's Poetical Works. He was for eight years a member of the Boston Common Council, and used his position to advantage in procuring the appointment of Commissioners of Public Records, serving gratuitously—himself among them—who rescued from perishing and put in print, at small cost to the city, important early Boston records, with vital statistics of early churches in the vicinity. He was also enabled to take a leading part in saving the Old State House from destruction, and in restoring the legislative chambers to their pristine condition; and to fix its destiny, he founded the Bostonian Society, which has been its custodian ever since, and has made it one of the most interesting museums in the Puritan capital. In this pious antiquarianism he used to say that he received more aid from the descendants of the Irish immigrants of 1846 than from the blue blood of Beacon Street, which was disposed to make way with the old landmark for the widening of State Street. He could seldom be persuaded to leave Boston, and no more intense lover of it could be named, nor one whose services to it were more disinterested. Mr. Whitmore was born in Dorchester, Mass., September 6, 1836. He was educated at the Public Latin School, and in due course should have gone to Harvard, but a difference with the principal discouraged him. He received the A.M. degree from Harvard in 1867, and simultaneously from Williams College. He possessed a most active and curious mind, was an entertaining writer, and was capable of very warm friendships. Boston has not, for a long time, lost a more individual citizen, or a truer. Mr. Whitmore was late in marrying. His wife and a son survive him.

—M. Marcel Prévost, in the *Journal des Débats*, has drawn attention to the very striking resemblance between the initial situation and development of Gabriele D'Annunzio's new novel, 'Il Fuoco,' and an episode in the life of the author to which the press of Italy had given European notoriety. This long-winded and wholly unedifying narrative of a love adventure implies, M. Prévost held, a breach of reticence not to be atoned for by the artistic pretensions of the conception, and totally unworthy of one so fortunate as to win the smiles of a woman of genius. The rule of kissing and not telling applies to the author as an author, as well as to the gentleman. To this, D'Annunzio offers a most inadequate reply. The confusion of a political election in which he is interested presents the opportunity for a hasty telegraphic denial of having drawn on private experiences for his novel, and an expression of chagrin at being taken to task by a member of his own confraternity, who is himself not entirely beyond reproach in this very respect. It is always possible to shirk such an issue as this by saying with Pailleron, when accused of a kindred offence in "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," "l'on trouve toujours des portraits dans la comédie de mœurs, comme on se trouve toujours des maladies dans les livres de médecine." The Italian author, while demanding the widest license for all worshippers of *la pura bellezza*, disclaims any intention of betraying to the public what might have been intended for one pair of ears alone. 'Il Fuoco,' he protests, is a work of pure imagination, designed to set forth part of its author's synthetic philosophy of the beautiful, already sketched in 'Le Vergini delle Rocce.' That some of its leading incidents should suggest what the public knows already, and that the chief personages are the most prominent decadent poet and the foremost actress of the day—both Italians—are coincidences and nothing more.

FISKE'S MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War. By John Fiske. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. xxv, 368.

Mr. Fiske's delightful vigor of narration, which has made his long series of books on early American history so attractive, does not disappoint us in this new volume on the history of our own time. His own long association with St. Louis and the Washington University there has given him local intimacies which have been put to good use in lending color to the critical opening period of the civil war in the West. It was in doubtful States like Missouri and Kentucky, where Unionists and Secessionists were equally ready to fight for their creeds, that the revolutionary form of the struggle took on its most distinctive type, and the local intensity of it can be fully understood only by those who, like Mr. Fiske, have absorbed its traditions on the spot, and have enjoyed familiar acquaintance with men, like Colonel Gantt, who were part of the history from the beginning. The diminished prominence of Frank Blair, jr., in the latter part of his life has made many men forgetful of the commanding rôle he played in Missouri in 1861, and of the daring, the intellectual leadership, the courageous and far-sighted patriotism, the executive ability and initiative, which united to make him the necessary chief of the loyalists. Mr. Fiske's appreciative characterization of him does no more than justice. Blair became a soldier of high reputation well earned, but we may doubt whether his more appropriate career would not have been found in the statesmanship of civil life which marked the ablest of

the War Governors who upheld Lincoln's hands.

Mr. Fiske's sketch of the steady progression of events "from the seizure of Camp Jackson in 1861 down to the appearance of Sherman's army in the rear of Virginia in 1865" shows a strong grasp of the real meaning of the campaigns in the West, of their relation to the war regarded in its unity, and in its true historical perspective. The swift initiative of Lyon and Blair, which demoralized the secession leaders, and imposed their own will upon the course of events in Missouri, is admirably exhibited, as is Lyon's heroism at Wilson's Creek, where ended his all too short career that promised so much for the country. The beginnings of Grant's military service are also appreciatively told, with due regard to his early exhibition of the qualities which were the essential conditions of his final military preëminence. As to both Grant and Sherman Mr. Fiske is frank in cordial admiration. Criticism is made of both, as is the historian's privilege, and more or less of comparison is made with Gens. Buell, Rosecrans, and Thomas, whose campaigns also come within the scope of the work.

The author tells us that the book has grown out of a course of lectures delivered by him at various times from 1886 onward, with the addition of material written both before and after. It is here that we find the marks of such limitations as may be noted in Mr. Fiske's treatment of his theme and the prominent figures in it. By far the greater part of the Official Records of the war has been published since the lectures were first delivered. On a number of interesting points, much debated, very bright light has been thrown. We think Mr. Fiske's conclusions would, in those cases, have been modified had he been writing anew the fuller history of the period which he encourages us to hope he may yet give us. Among the points referred to are the justice and statesmanship of the changes in army commanders made by Mr. Lincoln in 1862 and 1863; the competence of Gen. Grant to command an army, his duty to pursue the enemy instantly upon the close of the battle of Shiloh, the similar duty of Buell after Perryville, and of Rosecrans after Stone's River; the strategy of the Vicksburg campaign, that of Sherman at Dalton, on the march to the sea and through the Carolinas; the number of troops in Thomas's army in November, 1864, Grant's urgency upon Thomas to resume the aggressive immediately after the battle of Franklin, etc. On all these points Mr. Fiske shows the influence of a coterie of able writers who adopted the theory that Mr. Lincoln was an incompetent in war administration, and that Grant and Sherman were, as army commanders, inferior to the officers whom they superseded or followed. Want of space would prevent the collation of new evidence on these points, but a brief summary on one of them will indicate the manner in which a fresh study would probably modify the author's judgment.

Mr. Fiske propounds the question why Beauregard at Shiloh "was not persistently followed up and harassed," adding that Grant "never offered any sound explanation." He has so fully stated Grant's military characteristics in detail that we might fairly expect him to give the General the benefit of the presumption that his action in this case had a "sound explanation." Immediately after the capture of Fort Donelson, Grant had pressed upon Halleck the prompt pursuit of Sidney Johnston, and, pending Halleck's consideration of it, he had gone to Nashville to concert action with Buell, with whom one of his divisions had made a junction. His going was treated as an offence and he was threatened with arrest for it. Mr. Lincoln's sagacity so well appreciated the promise of Grant's victory that he brought Halleck to book by a demand for specifications of Grant's faults, that they might be fairly investigated; and Grant himself twice asked to be relieved from service with Halleck, intending to follow it by a demand for a court of inquiry. This brought a withdrawal of complaints; but Halleck's duplicity used Lincoln's order and his own disclaimer to prove to Grant that the trouble originated at Washington, and that the General was indebted to him for a vindication. Grant believed this, and gratitude made him almost painfully solicitous to follow Halleck's directions to the letter, and not to incur new danger of reprimand by going beyond them. This is plainly seen in the whole correspondence of the month of March. His perception of the importance of chasing the retreating enemy after Donelson in 1862 is as evident as it was after Five Forks in 1865. He was the same man if less experienced.

Halleck had no purpose of putting Buell under Grant's command, but had informed them both that he should be with them by the time the junction of their forces could be made at the Tennessee River. On March 23 he wrote to Stanton that Grant's orders were "to make no important movements" till Buell joined him. On the 24th he wrote to Buell that "a battle should be avoided for the present, and until we can concentrate a larger army," and directed him to send a copy of this to Grant. On the 26th Halleck writes to Buell concerning the latter's suggestion as to a plan of campaign, indicating general approval, and adding: "I propose to join you as soon as you reach the Tennessee." On Saturday, April 5, the day before the battle, he notified Buell in a dispatch that he could not leave St. Louis "till the first of next week." The same day he directed Grant to "act in concert" with Buell, adding, "He will exercise his separate command, unless the enemy should attack you. In that case, you are authorized to take the general command." The battle raged through Sunday and Monday. Buell's forces (but not all) crossed the river on Sunday night, and on Monday morning, under Grant's orders, both armies advanced, and, in an all-day fight, drove the Confederates from the field. At the close of the engagement, Grant went back to the Landing, and sent a note to Buell saying that his intention had been "to occupy the most advanced position possible for the night with the infantry engaged through the day, and follow up our success with cavalry and fresh troops," which he had expected to arrive during his last visit to the front. These were, of course, part of Buell's, which had not yet reached the field. As these had not come, the condition of his own raw troops, who had fought and marched two days (and he might have added their partial disorganization), "would preclude the idea of making any advance to-night without the arrival of the expected reinforcements." He had, therefore, left the front with the expectation of pressing the pursuit through the night with fresh cavalry and infantry; but, finding they were not yet available, he did not think it best to disturb again the tired infantry at "the most advanced position" they had been able to reach during daylight.

Here is "sound explanation" for not continuing what is rarely practicable or useful, a night pursuit in a wooded country, over bad roads, with weary and fasting troops. He said that instructions had been sent to his subordinates "not included in your command" to be ready to find the enemy in the morning. He gave Buell no orders, and Buell did not volunteer. An abundantly sufficient reason for this is found in the other sentences of the same dispatch: "Under the instructions which I have previously received, and a dispatch also of to-day from Major-General Halleck, it will not *then* do to advance beyond Pea Ridge or some point which we can reach and return [from] in a day. General Halleck will probably be here himself to-morrow." Buell had the same information as to Halleck, and the necessity of leaving the general-in-chief free from trammels in starting his own campaign, as well as these orders, more than justified both officers in restricting themselves to what was barely necessary. That Halleck meant that they should do so is shown by his later as well as his earlier dispatches. Instead of reaching Pittsburgh Landing on the 8th (Tuesday), he said to Grant on that day, "I leave to join you to-morrow. Show this to General Buell." On the 9th (Wednesday) he added: "I leave immediately to join you with considerable reinforcements. Avoid another battle, if you can, till all arrive. We then shall be able to beat them without fail." This was in reply to Grant's dispatch of Monday evening, in which the latter had said: "I shall follow to-morrow far enough to see that no immediate renewal of an attack is contemplated."

The reading of this correspondence shows the strict limitations as a subordinate under which Grant was acting, especially as to any initiative of his own, for which he had been mercilessly snubbed. It accounts for Buell's attitude of coöperation rather than of willing subordination. It explains Grant's acquiescence in this with the manifest conviction that it best fitted Halleck's wishes, in a juncture when the real commander of both had intended to be present. It shows, too, the magnanimity of Grant's brief report which did not urge Halleck's orders as explanation, but mentioned only the surrounding physical conditions as a reason for not pushing the pursuit of the enemy. And this was done when newspaper correspondents were already inspired by hostile influences, of a kind that may be seen in General McClernand's irregular and unauthorized communication directly to the President, a week after the battle.

Were Mr. Fiske writing the story of that time from all the sources now available, he would not treat Grant's power and responsibility as that of a general who had organized and disciplined his whole army, and planned a campaign as its real commander. A leader in fetters, as he was, and under such orders, is not to be held to a standard of judgment for autocrats like "Frederick or Napoleon" at the head of their veteran divisions. A similar analysis of the Records would show the need of similar revision of

the author's conclusions in others of the disputed questions we have mentioned.

Passages in a Wandering Life. By Thomas Arnold, M.A. London: Edward Arnold; New York: John Lane. Pp. ix, 268. Portrait.

With no ordinary interest we opened this book by a son of Dr. Arnold of Rugby, by the father of Mrs. Humphry Ward, a man known twice to have embraced the Roman Catholic faith, and consequently once to have departed from it. We are not disappointed. We are favored with the recollections of a transparently honest man, reared amidst the best of English surroundings, who can claim relationship and friendship with some of the best minds in the country, who has travelled much and thought more. It is written in a limpid style and a broad spirit. One-third of the volume is devoted to a nine years' residence in New Zealand and Tasmania, where Mr. Arnold married, and embraced Roman Catholicism, where the future Mrs. Humphry Ward was born; fifty pages are given to recent short visits to Sweden and to Rome; the rest of the book is occupied with Mr. Arnold's life in England and Ireland.

He displays a singular faculty for the description of natural scenery. A notebook written on the plan of the last chapter would be a delightful companion in Rome. He has the ability to make interesting the narrative of a voyage. But then a voyage A. D. 1847 in a sailing ship, conveying some of the first New Zealand settlers, affords more scope than one of the present day in a steamer, with the date of arrival at the antipodes assured. We have entertaining notes on colonial settlement and bush life. The deepest interests of the book are, however, personal and spiritual. In the lives of many of Mr. Arnold's associates we realize afresh the extent to which the best-trained minds in England are brought into political service. We find many noteworthy individual sketches. Of Wordsworth:

"I must therefore give my own impressions, which range intermittently over a period of fifteen years. Wordsworth's figure was of a rather coarse make, and his step was heavy; the eyes were weak, and usually protected in some way or other; the aquiline nose was too large and thick to be called beautiful, and the mouth and chin, though far from weak, were without distinction. It was the beauty and nobility of the head, the width and poise of the forehead, the manifest adaptation of the 'tenement of clay' to house a majestic and many-sided intellect, which atoned for all minor shortcomings, and fixed the admiring gaze of the beholder. Clough's head, too, was beautiful, but Clough's head was not equal to Wordsworth's. Though capacious, it seemed hardly equal to the burden and stress of thought which it sometimes had to bear; in Wordsworth, one would say—setting humor aside—it was equal to *all* thoughts, and incapable of being disturbed from the just balance in which its Creator had poised it. Wordsworth, however, was a great poet, and his life was lived in a sense apart; and though he could discuss trivialities and domestic matters, and sometimes seem heartily amused by them, I suppose there was a general want of practicality, and the *esprit positif*, about him which raised a barrier between him and the Westmoreland people."

Of Mrs. Quillinan:

"Dora Quillinan was Wordsworth's only daughter. From the first time that I ever saw her, when Rydal Lake was frozen over and she gave my brother and me some useful hints with regard to skating upon it, the sense of unbounded confidence in her kind eyes, or rather in the tenderness or goodness which beamed from them, never left either of us."

Of Southey:

"Southey, though he lived far away at Keswick, was brought near to our daily interests by Wordsworth's affection for him. When I was about ten, and my brother a year older, my father took us with him one day to call at Greta Bank. As we shyly advanced, Southey rose up and came to meet us, shook hands with us both, and said with a smile, 'So, now, you've seen a live poet!' He was in no way handsome, but had the look of a hard student. Again I saw him in 1839, when Wordsworth brought him to call at Fox How."

Of Clough:

"In the years 1842-47 I was in close intimacy with Arthur Hugh Clough. . . . Between 1843 and 1845 there was a small society in existence at Oxford called the Decade. Among its members were Jowett, Arthur Stanley, Coleridge [afterwards Chief Justice], my brother, Chichester Fortescue, John Campbell Shairp, the present writer, and several others. Shairp has described two speeches made by Clough at meetings of the Decade. The impressions of the future professor of poetry seem to have been in unison with my own—that no member of the society spoke in so rich, penetrating, original, and convincing strain as Clough. He was not rapid, yet neither was he slow or hesitating; he seemed just to take time enough to find the right word or phrase."

Of Dean Stanley:

"But the charm and fascination of his society cannot thus [from Mr. Prothero's Life] be adequately understood. Spontaneity, genuineness, simplicity, characterized all that he did and said—nay, were distinctive of every movement and gesture." "None that ever knew him could forget his engaging and delightful personality. The eyes, of heaven's own blue; the short, dark, hair curling over his head, till age straightened it somewhat and turned it gray; the quick, short steps; the beautiful, childlike mouth; the eager, animated talk—the total impression of energy, guilelessness, courage, and veracity—who, to the end of the longest life, could forget all this?"

We have a somewhat ungracious reminiscence of the author's brother, Matthew Arnold:

"The whole family went up to Oxford in January, 1842, when my father read his first course of lectures as professor of modern history. My brother, in all the glory of a scholar's gown and three months' experience as a 'university man,' welcomed his rustic *Geschwister* with an amused and superior graciousness. We visited him at his rooms in Balliol at the top of the second staircase in the corner of the second quod. When he had got us all safely in, he is said to have exclaimed, 'Thank God, you are in!' and when the visit was over, and he had seen the last of us out on the staircase, 'Thank God, you are out!' But this tradition is doubtful."

Considering that Prof. Arnold's residence in Tasmania was during the most crucial period of the convict régime, it is to be remarked that he has nothing generally to say upon the subject; nor does he mention the names of Smith O'Brien, John Mitchel, or any of the 1848 Irish prisoners; nor at home, and long in Ireland, has he, except upon the Catholic University question, anything special to say upon home politics.

It was the Oxford Movement that bore him into Catholicism. It was his ingrained liberal tendencies that carried him out of it for a time—according to his own account, partly ill-health, partly failure sufficiently to distinguish between Liberalism in politics and in religion. Through all, he is never carried away by the enthusiasm of the neophyte. In Rome he "reluctantly, yet with full conviction," arrived at the belief "that it is now impossible for the lay people of united Italy (if it be assumed that the Italian Kingdom will endure), to consent to the installation of any other Italian city as the capital of that Kingdom." In Sweden, once Catholic, now so but to the extent of 1,390 in 5,000,000 of the population, which he visited mainly to see the Shrine of St. Bridget, he again "reluctantly admits," "the prospects of Catholicism . . . do not appear brilliant." Here, finally, is a man of fine intellect and the highest training to whom the Catholic Church has become all in all, "the one success which earth has still to show" (p. 235). Yet there is not in these pages a word of condemnation of those who continue out of its fold, nor a suggestion of a fear of their future condemnation. How can a doctrine be much longer officially maintained which is in the intercourse of life practically abandoned?

Introduction to Ethics. By Frank Thilly. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. 8vo, pp. 346.

The logical analysis of the conceptions connected with morals is one of the very best whetstones for the wits ever found; and it has never caused anybody to be burned at the stake! It is this of which Prof. Thilly has put together a convenient little handbook, in nearly alternate chapters historical and defensive of his own positions. In the latter parts, many things are well and forcibly put, yet we are not impressed that the volume will be treasured for their sakes. There is at least one long portion in which thought of no very forcible logical cohesion is administered in pretty dilute solution. In the historical parts, by separating the accounts of the controversies over separate questions, and by separating, under each question, the divergent lines of thoughts, without, however, mincing the matter very fine, the rationale of the sequence of opinions and the gradual penetration of thought further and further into the problems are brought out with force and clearness. This method of presenting the history of such a subject is amazingly superior to the chronological plan; but its full success would call for a very thoroughly considered taxonomy of the opinions. In this respect, the present volume is not quite what we could desire. Thus, the classification of the doctrines concerning the basis of right and wrong is substantially borrowed from Wundt (without acknowledgment, by the way). It is true that a tabular view on p. 128 shows some trifling departures from Wundt's scheme; but these have no perceptible effect upon the history.

Wundt's arrangement may be exhibited as follows:

Theories of the Basis of Morality.

A. The Moral Law is externally imposed.
B. The Moral Law is rational:
  I. Its end is happiness:
    1. that of the agent,
    2. that of the community.
  II. Its tendency is improvement:
    1. of the agent,
    2. of the community.

The most serious defect of this classification lies in its subdivision of rationalistic theory into only two branches, splitting upon the insignificant question of whether the end is completely attainable or not. This results in several inconveniences. It is very unjust to utilitarianism (one of the few theories of morals which have manifestly brought about any amelioration of society), by separating it only slightly from hedonism proper, or the doctrine that the lowest motive from which a rational being can act is at the same time the highest possible, and in short the only possible, motive. It overlooks entirely the very familiar view which makes the prolongation of the agent's conscious life the highest end. It confuses the morality which takes as its end the perfection of the individual man in a predetermined respect—say, by the substitution of altruistic for egoistic motives—with the morality which aims at the perfection of the individual in the sense of giving him whatever characters the future study of the question may show to be most desirable; and it falls into a like confusion in regard to theories which aim at the perfection of society. Moreover, it altogether fails to mark the world-wide difference between taking the perfection of society or of the individual as the *ultimate* end, and supposing a perfectionment to be brought about, so far as it is brought about at all, by natural selection, in which case the ultimate end is not perfection, but that toward which alone all natural selection works, to wit, the virtual fecundity of the race. Finally, it leaves out of account the possibility of so conceiving the ultimate end that it shall not be limited either to the individual or to human society. If we conceive that there is a methodical ideal—like order, or rationality—neither specifically psychical nor physical, which somehow has a power of developing itself in thoughts and things generally, then whatever furthers this progress is good, and *vice versa;* and such a conception refuses to be limited to any particular matter of realization.

Considering the imperfections of the classification with which Prof. Thilly has worked, it is much to his credit that he has, with little departure from accuracy, made the history appear clear and rational. We shall note a few small points to show that this book, like every other, has to be read critically. In the history of the theory of conscience, Hartley is placed after Bentham—a chronological displacement induced by the imperfection of the classification, and aggravated by the fact that the dates of publication are not commonly given, but only those of the different writers' birth and death. Some write their most characteristic works early, others later. Kant is placed among the perfectionists, contrary to his own energetic protests. He maintains that one must not act to bring about any definite result, but simply from the idea of duty. Herbert Spencer is refused a place among the evolutionistic moralists. He is, in truth, so vacillating that it is hard to say whether this is correct or not. It would have surprised Leslie Stephen to find himself in quite a different class from Spencer; and, whether this is right or not, neither he nor Darwin ought to be placed among perfectionists. True, they hold that conduct ought to realize an ideal, but not as its ultimate end. On the contrary, the ideal itself is, according to them, simply a result of natural selection, which acts solely to make some race or races dominant. Thus, the ultimate end for them is not inward but outward. Hume, in reference to his theory of conscience, is classed with Hutcheson. But he really followed Hartley, in the main; and where he disagrees with Hartley, he disagrees still more with Hutcheson. To Bernard Mandeville is attributed the proposition that greed and other selfish passions contribute more to the public good than benevolence does; and this proposition, being placed in quotation marks, will be understood to be the *ipsissima verba* of that author. This is approximately the opinion of some modern political economists of repute, but it was categorically repudiated by the author of the 'Fable of the Bees,' who was acute enough to see that it no more came within the scope of his inquiry, than it does into that of political economy, to determine what is and what is not for the public good. That which he undertook to prove was, that *if a nation desires expansion and splendor,* then it must have a rich and vicious class as the condition precedent to success in that career; but he added his private opinion that expansion and splendor do not really conduce to the happiness of a people, and therefore not to their "well being," if by that is meant their happiness. The last words of the fable are:

"They flew into a hollow tree,
Blest with content and honesty."

Robert's Primer of Parliamentary Law, for Schools, Colleges, Clubs, Fraternities, etc. By Joseph Thomas Robert. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

The object of this book is very plainly stated at the start. The author proposes to "make a text-book in Parliamentary Law so simple that the average High-School teacher can make it plain to the average High-School pupil." We will frankly express our disapproval of the whole idea. At the same time we are ready to acknowledge that this Primer, which consists almost entirely of dialogues and examples to show the method of instructing High-School boys, and possibly Western legislatures, is very well prepared.

When Mr. Robert says that the various public bodies are working each in its own way, and that he has examined all English and American works on parliamentary law, and yet does not give the name of a single author, he does not deal fairly with his readers. Throughout New England and the Atlantic States generally, including the District of Columbia, there is an authority most generally accepted, This is, of course, Cushing's Manual. We will show later that no new text-book is required on the subject; but we will first dispose of Mr. Robert's heresies. His idea is to give every member of any public assembly such a smattering of law as will make him think that he knows as much as the presiding officer. No better plan could be invented to cause trouble, and to reduce such meetings to riotous mobs. No assembly of any size can transact business properly unless it has full confidence in a presiding officer, who shall be honest, impartial, and thoroughly versed in the principles and details of parliamentary law. Striking examples of this may be found in the House of Commons and Congress. In Parliament the Speakers have been highly honored, supported by all parties, and then, on retiring, rewarded with peerages. In Congress there have been some famous parliamentarians elected as Speaker, as, for example, Winthrop, Banks, Blaine, Randall, and Carlisle. We may add that the Legislature of Massachusetts and the Common Council of the city of Boston have distinguished themselves by great attention to parliamentary law, and that their rules have been extensively copied and observed throughout New England.

One of Mr. Robert's special fads is the idea that every motion must be seconded (see note on pp. 24-25). In both branches of the Massachusetts Legislature it is specially provided by a rule that no second is necessary. In the Common Council of Boston the same custom prevails, except that, by a special rule, an appeal from a decision of the Chair must be seconded. The requirement of a second is unnecessary, and only leads to wrangling and delay.

Mr. Robert also (pp. 52-53) has a good deal to say about a parliamentary inquiry. By this he means that "a member desiring information as to any rule or form relating to business already acted on, or now under consideration, or which he wishes to bring before the Assembly, may rise to a parliamentary inquiry." This means that he may interrupt a member who has the floor and is speaking. This idea of a parliamentary inquiry has made a slight inroad into the work of the Boston Common Council, but probably nowhere else in New England. It is a stupid innovation, unnecessary and prejudicial to the proper transaction of business. The old, sensible rule was, that a member obtaining the floor was to be protected from any interruption. There was a motion of privilege which could be made, but which was confined to a matter affecting the whole body, and not simply the individual member. If, for example, a member should discover signs of a fire in the hall, or a dangerous accident to the heating apparatus, or the presence of an unauthorized person in the members' seats, or, possibly, outrageous conduct by one of the members—it being clearly a matter which could not wait—he might rise and call the attention of the Chair to the fact. But no debate was allowable. In popular bodies where discipline had been loosened and the Chair had lost its grip, a bad custom has sprung up by which members have risen to make personal explanations under the pretence that it was a privileged matter. This is another bad innovation, and ought not to be countenanced.

We will now revert to our previous allusion to real authorities. The Massachusetts Senate provides that "The rules of parliamentary practice comprised in the revised edition of Crocker's 'Principles of Procedure in Deliberative Bodies,' and the principles of parliamentary law set forth in Cushing's 'Law and Practice of Legislative Assemblies,' shall govern the Senate in all cases to which they are applicable, and in which they are not inconsistent with the rules of the Senate, or the joint rules of the two branches." The order in the lower branch specifies no more than that the rules of parliamentary practice shall govern the House; but this is construed to be the same as the Senate rule. The Boston Common Council has the following rule: "The rules of parliamentary practice as contained in Cushing's 'Law and Practice of Legislative Assemblies' shall govern this Council in all cases to which they are applicable, and in

which they are not inconsistent with these rules or the joint rules of the City Council." In many New England cities and towns, by express rule, and in all of them probably by custom, Cushing's Manual is fixed as the standard authority.

As to Crocker's Manual, which was prepared by the President of the Massachusetts Senate, it is simply Cushing's Manual amended on one point. The only real change in parliamentary practice during the last fifty years was made by Speaker Reed when he took the revolutionary measure of counting, to make a quorum, members who sat in the room but declined to vote, and also those whose hats and coats were hanging up in the side-rooms, even when the owners were not in sight. It was pretended that the Supreme Court endorsed this action, but, as we have heretofore pointed out, the court did nothing of the kind; it merely refused to consider the matter, on the ground that Congress had, under the Constitution, full power to make its own rules. It is understood that Mr. Crocker's book was written merely to introduce this doctrine as a part of the standard parliamentary law in Massachusetts. Reed's rule was an unjustifiable innovation for a fancied political necessity. But what is the result? The Great Speaker, being no longer needed, has been turned down by his party, and is now but a tradition in those Congressional halls where for years he was supreme. The Democrats, when next in power, will undoubtedly wipe the obnoxious rule from the Congressional Manual.

The Life of Wellington: The Restoration of the Martial Power of Great Britain. By the Right Hon. Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M.P., F.R.S. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xxviii, 405, 415.

This new Life of Wellington is warranted by the great mass of original material bearing on his career and his times which has been published during the present generation. Sir Herbert Maxwell has done his work in a judicial yet sympathetic spirit, avoiding excessive and indiscriminate eulogy, and seeing clearly the defects of temper and the dictatorial spirit which were at once the strength and the weakness of the Duke's leadership in civil affairs, after his great military history was closed. The free use of his dispatches and correspondence brings out strongly the clearness and directness of his judgment and the practical sense which he promptly applied to every question that arose, subject always to the strongly conservative principles of government which became a part of his nature.

The story of his military campaigns is well told, and may be accepted as the result of fair consideration of all the helps to the truth which are now available. His military qualities which most impress us are his power of seeing the problems of a campaign reduced to their simplest elements, and his indomitable courage, which made him the ideal battle-leader of the hard-fighting rank and file of the British army. Refinements of manœuvre he rarely attempted, but his undisturbed presence of mind, his tenacity, and his watchfulness for any slip in his adversary's tactics, coupled with his eager aggressiveness when such a slip occurred, made him a most formidable opponent, and gave him good claim to a place in the first rank of captains.

In his political career his cardinal principle was the aristocratic one, that the balance of progressive and conservative elements had made the British Constitution, as he found it, a nearly perfect practical instrument of government, so that any change was likely, by disturbing this balance, to precipitate mischievous results. Even the rotten boroughs, absurd in themselves, he defended as a vested interest in the hands of the great landowners, giving them an extra weight in legislation which was beneficial to the state by being a check upon the democratic tendencies of the House of Commons. The one exception to this conservatism in his creed was the favor he showed to the reform of Catholic disabilities; and this was due to his comradeship with faithful Catholic soldiers in his army, and his sense of injustice in refusing them the promotions and the recognition which they fairly won under his own eye.

In the great contest over the Reform Bill of 1832, Wellington began with a strong fight against the measure, leading the Tories in the House of Lords in the repeated rejection of the popular extension of the franchise, until he awoke to the truth that the nation was on the verge of a revolution which was likely to destroy the monarchy and the peerage at once. The cool generalship which had made him know when it was time to retreat before Masséna within his lines of Torres Vedras, now made him change his policy in politics. Instead of fighting to the end, he retired before defeat should be destructive, and made it thenceforward his strategy to obstruct and delay the progress toward democracy, never risking the existence of the House of Lords or the monarchy upon a pitched battle. Such a policy necessarily seemed inconsistent to his friends the ultra Tories, and broke up the old party. Yet Sir Herbert Maxwell makes it plain that from Wellington's point of view it was practical prudence, struggling to save as much as possible of the prestige and the power of the landed aristocracy, and to check the pace of a popular movement which could not be wholly stopped in any decisive measurement of forces. One of the chief values of this biography lies, as we think, in bringing out the natural development of this new conviction in the Duke's mind; the learning of his lesson that the old Toryism was doomed, and that a new and more moderate phase of conservatism must take its place if the monarchy and the peerage were to be saved. The lesson was roughly taught by the mobs which were perilously near an insurrection, and which, by smashing the windows of Apsley House, showed how his own great popularity was shattered; but his mental quality as the consummate soldier was never better shown than in confessing his defeat, and turning at once to reorganize his political forces for a dilatory campaign to save whatever could be saved of the power and privilege of his class. The amply told story is the conclusive answer to those who charged the Duke with vacillation and timidity, if not want of principle in politics, and gives his civil career a coherence and verisimilitude which is satisfactory. His brusqueness and too military methods in party leadership diminished his success in parliamentary management, but we can also see how the power of genuine character made its impress on the whole people.

The mechanical production of the book is in the well-known excellent English form, and the fine series of portraits is very interesting. The narrative has gained freshness by the judicious quotation from unpublished MSS. at Apsley House, Lady Salisbury's correspondence and journals at Hatfield, and from the storehouse of the Wellington Supplementary Dispatches.

The International Year Book: A Compendium of the World's Progress during the Year 1899. Frank Moore Colby, M.A., Editor. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. 887.

This book is more than its title indicates, and of a higher order than most year-books hitherto. A few "timely" and semi-journalistic touches may be found, of the sort usually supposed appropriate to these ephemeral publications; but the aim has been at solidity, and the general tone is that of a serious work—encyclopædia rather than annual. This, the editor tells us, was his design; and to this end he has had the powerful aid (as consulting editor) of Professor Peck, who seems to claim the entire field of knowledge for his province, and whose day can never contain less than twenty-four working hours. Examined piecemeal, the result of their labors affords far more occasion for congratulation than for complaint. The weightier topics have been treated with full knowledge by thoroughly competent hands. Especially excellent are the articles on astronomy, by Professor Jacoby, and those on engineering, by the editors of the *Engineering News*. Educational topics, psychology, philology, archæology, geology, biology, and the like, also receive full attention.

In the history we are more sharply constrained to remember that "to date" means to the date of going to press, and that no publication ever was or could be brought literally to date except an evening newspaper. The articles seem to omit nothing of importance that occurred during last year; yet we are less disappointed at the one on the Transvaal inclining somewhat toward the Boers than at its ending with Buller's dispatch after his losses at Colenso. Sometimes this inevitable limitation produces an almost archaic effect, *e. g.*: "Excepting Lord Wolseley, Lord Roberts is regarded as the foremost general in the British army." Nobody would make that exception now. Still more quaintly remote is this, which indeed it is difficult to read without a smile:

"There [was] widespread talk in the press, for a time, as to his possibilities as a Presidential candidate. He was mentioned principally as a candidate for the Democratic party, but as no one seemed to be certain that he was a Democrat, and as he stood for things which Democrats seemed unlikely to support, but especially because Admiral Dewey refused to consider any suggestion of the kind, the subject was not seriously discussed during the rest of the year."

But it is not the editor's fault that the world moves rapidly of late; and there is no irony about the picture of the Dewey Arch and parade.

As with History, so with Biography; Buller and Methuen get somewhat more space than they would now, and French and Hamilton were not discovered in time; but Roberts—most strictly contemporary just now

of all great names—fortunately for all interests except Krüger's, was made commander-in-chief last December, and here we have him in full. Kitchener is mentioned merely as his chief of staff. The obituaries, necessarily a special feature in a year-book, are chiefly American, and largely of old political fossils like J. Madison Wells, ex-Governors, ex-Congressmen, and the like, who had so long survived their usefulness (or their offensiveness) that the only emotion aroused by these notices is surprise that their subjects were not buried long ago. In such cases, since compression was needed here, it would have been sufficient to give the fact and date of death, and let lingering admirers find the rest in the stock books of reference. Of the living, we do not grudge the space allowed to Croker and Quay, since none of it is wasted in compliments; but why these and not Platt? Is not he also a Boss? There seems unfair discrimination here. In pleasing variation from the usual soberness of these notices, the biographer of Gov. Roosevelt devotes a paragraph to his reunion, review, and gold medal in New Mexico in June, 1899—events apparently of national importance. Mr. McKinley is cruelly passed by. Has Professor Colby no loyalty, no patriotism?

It is a good book whose blemishes are as trivial as these—not errors of fact, but matters of relative space, selection, and the point of view. For instance, why should Richard Whiteing (of 'No. 5 John Street') have an article to himself, when Miss Cholmondeley, whose 'Red Pottage' was the most successful of last year's English novels, has none? Why—to shift the field—discriminate in favor of the New England colleges? Here are Amherst, Bowdoin, Dartmouth, Wesleyan, Williams, but not (to cite but a few omissions) Dickinson, Lafayette, Vanderbilt, nor even the Washington University of St. Louis, which during 1899 received large gifts in land and money. Here are Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, but no Bryn Mawr. More strangely still, the leading technical intitutions—the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, the Stevens Institute at Hoboken, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Lehigh University—are passed by. Of course all these are mentioned in the seventeen-page table of universities and colleges; but why give some of them a special article apiece, and ignore others of equal importance? And as to the last batch referred to, the editors of so practical a book as this, containing so much about the applied sciences, surely cannot mean to underrate technical education. The well-known Dr. J. Max Hark of Bethlehem, Pa., is here unkindly turned to Hork.

A few of the articles seem inadequate. The Tuskegee Institute, as one of the most useful and admirable schools in this or any land, deserves more than eleven lines. Automobiles are now so much in evidence that less than a page appears scant measure. The Chicago Drainage Canal gets but two lines and a half, under "Canals." Under the Brooklyn Bridge, it was hardly necessary to omit the familiar and pathetic fact that the engineer who completed that great structure wrecked his health through exposure incident to his duties.

The main article on Literature, a résumé of the books of 1899, devotes ten pages to those of America, and less than three to the English, which seems odd in an "international" book. The English part is the better done, but it contains two large statements: on Stevenson's Letters, "the unanimous verdict was that they had been too severely and discreetly edited"; Kipling's 'Stalky & Co.' "was received with universal disappointment." "Universal" and "unanimous" are big words. But the American annalist goes further yet. Mrs. Wharton's 'The Greater Inclination,' when he fell upon it, was "exhibiting in the highest degree that rare creative power called literary genius." That is, Mrs. Wharton is on a par with Shakspere: higher praise could hardly be given to the bard, though it might be better expressed. This sort of "criticism" ought not to get beyond the weeklies; when it reaches the year-books, its fires are out and it makes chilly reading. On the other hand, the obituary notice of Cherbuliez is intelligent enough for any season. To have in a book of reference so just a tribute and so true an interpretation (however brief) of a neglected writer is a gain. Usually our cyclopædists and school-book makers knew not this Joseph, or looked on him askance.

Further search would probably disclose some errors which we have failed to detect, and opinions or expressions from which we must dissent. But the wonder is that a book which has to be got together in a deadly hurry, and which nobody expects to be other than amorphous and ephemeral, should be so well planned and carried out. If it is the first of a series, the series promises large usefulness.

Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill, and Other Literary Estimates. By Frederic Harrison. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

The task of writing a short article upon this volume would in no case be an easy one, since the fourteen essays which it contains relate to almost as many different subjects. But Mr. Harrison, to make things still more difficult for the reviewer, expresses a very low opinion of the value possessed by current criticism. He not only places the average critic in comparison with Matthew Arnold; this of itself would be damaging enough. Having thus given the modern pretender a *coup de grâce*, Mr. Harrison buries him completely by stating that "too much of what is now called criticism is the improvised chatter of a raw lad, portentously ignorant of the matter in hand." Mr. Harrison has apparently not escaped the conservative tendencies which accompany mature years. Youth often is "raw," no doubt, but it must get its experience somehow, if only through the tedious process of book reviewing. One feels rather surprised that any man with Mr. Harrison's long record of radicalism should decry youthful efforts, even when jejune.

Mr. Harrison's quarrel with modern reviewers has, however, another aspect. He complains less of immaturity than of haste. "It is not the 'indolent reviewer' that we now suffer under, but the 'lightning reviewer,' the young man in a hurry, with a kodak, who finally disposes of a new work on the day of its publication. One of them naïvely complained the other morning of having to cut the pages, as if we ever suspected that he cut the pages of more than the preface and table of contents." The reader will see how such an indictment must affect the nerves, indeed must shake the confidence, of the writer who attempts to review Mr. Harrison's essays without having meditated upon them duly. Fortunately, we can say that our withers are unwrung. We have read the book, and read it with attention; in proof of which we may say that the passages already quoted occur not in the preface, but at page 117.

Although Mr. Harrison is not a blind admirer of the reviewing tribe, we shall avoid making any reprisals on that score. There is an undue desire at present to bind up the articles, more or less fugitive, which have appeared in the magazines, and call them a book. Whether or not we accept either Milton's or Ruskin's definition of what a book should be, these haphazard miscellanies seldom reach a high level. We state the general rule. But no one who has followed Mr. Harrison's career, both literary and philosophical, will deny that he has more than ordinary right to republish the articles which he sends to the *Nineteenth Century* and the *Contemporary Review*. What he writes is always sprightly and often vivacious. Moreover, these essays possess the unity of a series which deals with different aspects of the same subject. He now brings to the discussion of English literature the same precision of idea which he showed erstwhile in debating the philosophical position of Positivists and Agnostics.

Mr. Harrison's intellectual interests are so wide that one is not surprised at finding representatives of poetry and prose, of history and philosophy, in his page of titles. Tennyson, Ruskin, Matthew Arnold, Symonds, Lamb, Keats, Gibbon, Froude, Freeman and Mill are the several masters whose intrinsic value and breadth of influence he estimates. For each of them he has glowing praise; and though he points out limitations, the spirit of praise is preponderant throughout. The lives and works of great men are nowhere held in more honor than among the Comtists, and the warmth of Mr. Harrison's sympathy lends his studies a certain hortatory value. We have been impressed at all times in reading Mr. Harrison's volumes by his cordiality of tone towards strong opponents. There is hardly among Englishmen a more out-and-out party man, and he has borne the brunt of whole controversial campaigns. But though he has hit his opponents hard, he has recognized their ability with far less grudging than the "man-in-the-street" shows. In spite of their celebrated duel, he does not belittle Spencer; and Mill, who also assailed the Positivists, escapes his enmity.

We emphasize this philosophical detachment because we know several persons who look upon Mr. Harrison as a wrong-headed controversialist, and nothing more. They should turn to the essay on "Ruskin as a Master of Prose," if they would see how unjust such an impression is:

> "As one of the oldest and most fervent believers in his genius and the noble uses to which he has devoted it, I long to say a word or two in support of my belief; not that I have the shadow of a claim to speak as his disciple, to defend his utterances, or to represent his thoughts. . . . He regards me, I fear, as an utterly lost soul, destined to nothing but evil in this world and the next. And did he not once long ago, in private communication and in public excommunication, consign me to outer darkness, and cover with indignant scorn every man and everything in which I have put my trust?"

If a single passage taken from the context sounds like a parade of ostentatious generosity, we may say that Mr. Harrison re-

peatedly shows the same disposition in a manner of forgiveness less pronounced.

We have restricted our comment to a single point from the obvious impossibility of making this short notice "a review of reviews." Mr. Harrison is a student of style who examines the mechanism of melodious prose, striving to see how exalted effects are produced by alliteration, consonance, and other conscious or instructive expedients of the master. On the other hand, he has a wide comparative knowledge of classical and modern literature, so that he approaches his theme with respect for careful workmanship and also with an admiration of large ideas. He has a most ready command of his learning, and the faculty of presenting general questions in a direct and concrete way. We hope that he will not consider modern criticism altogether bad, when it freely recognizes the many admirable qualities of style and thought which are revealed in the present volume of "literary estimates."

Federal Clearing-houses. By Theodore Gilman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

No financial agency better deserves study than the clearing-house. The original purpose of this institution was simply to save the use of large quantities of money in settling the daily balances between a number of banks in the same city. Every bank daily receives from its depositors checks drawn on all the others, and at the same time the checks of its own customers are deposited in the other banks. To collect all these claims by messengers and to pay them to messengers was long since found altogether too laborious and expensive, and a central office, or clearing-house, was created, where debts and credits were offset and final balances paid by means of a comparatively trifling amount of cash.

Such were the original and still are the ordinary functions of the clearing-house, and yet we have here a book which treats of clearing-houses without so much as alluding to these functions. No testimony to the magnitude of the new powers which these bodies have come to exercise could be more striking. These powers are the direct outgrowth of the closer relations between the banks which the clearing-house produced. In order to insure the proper discharge by each bank of its responsibilities to the clearing-house, it was necessary that its financial condition should be to a certain extent disclosed, and in this way the foundation was laid for that use of collective credit which is exemplified in the clearing-house certificates. It may often happen that a certain bank is subjected to demands from its depositors which it cannot meet without embarrassment, although its assets may greatly exceed its liabilities. The conditions may be such that these assets cannot be liquidated without great loss, and loans upon them cannot well be obtained by banks at times when the demands on the banks for loans are exceptionally great. But there are always some banks, and generally a large number, which are strong enough to meet all the claims that are likely to be made on them, and which have even such wealth as to be able to lend to their feebler brethren. These banks, by the use of clearing-house certificates, lend their surplus to such banks as are in straits, on pledge of satisfactory securities, and at such rates of interest as make it an object to the borrowers to repay the loan as soon as possible.

It is the opinion of Mr. Gilman that the exercise of these new functions should be regulated by law. He regards the functions and mode of organization of clearing-houses as in a rudimentary condition, and thinks that they can be developed and made uniform only by the Congress of the United States. He contends that our credit system "requires an adjunct which shall provide a currency for its support based upon a credit disconnected from and independent of the banks." According to his plan, which he has worked out in detail and with full understanding of the situation, there should be a clearing-house in every State incorporated under Federal law; membership therein being given to all banks in good standing. The clearing-house should have power to issue currency to its members up to seventy-five per cent. of the value of banking assets pledged, which currency is to be received by all members of clearing-houses for all dues, and to be guaranteed not only by the borrowing bank, but also by all the other members of the clearing-house, and in the last resort by all the clearing-houses of the country.

The theoretical advantages of such a system are undeniable. The currency would be more "elastic," and the terrible strain upon the meagre reserves of individual banks would be relieved. The contraction of credit necessary to maintain these reserves in times of panic would probably not be so severe as at present. On the other hand, the objections will be thought by many conservative bankers to outweigh all those advantages. At present the associated banks of New York issue their certificates according to their judgment. They know the officers of the borrowing banks personally; they know their debtors personally or by reputation. They can modify their regulations in the light of their experience; and after what the country has suffered from the financial incompetency of Congress, we cannot contemplate without a shudder the possibility of putting the control of the clearing-houses in the hands of that body. The gentlemen who manage the New York Clearing-house are, perhaps, the most competent and responsible body of financiers in the world, and we should hesitate long before we subjected them to the control of whatever party happened to be in charge of the general Government. To enact that these bankers must guarantee the payment of certificates issued by the clearing-houses of Texas, or Montana, or South Dakota, would, we apprehend, tend much more to weaken our credit system than to strengthen it.

On this general subject the wise words of the late Prof. Dunbar deserve to be quoted:

"What is effective by way of relief is not necessarily salutary as a regular system. The relief in this case comes from the fact that, under the arrangement for combined reserves, every bank is completely discharged from any real sense of responsibility for cautious action. Slight as its share of responsibility may be under ordinary circumstances, under this arrangement it is free to expand or to neglect ordinary precautions at pleasure; the arrangement is entered into for the precise object of thus setting it free, and it is in the public knowledge of this fact that the virtue of the arrangement consists. But under ordinary circumstances it is not by any diminished sense of responsibility that the way to sound banking and to the ultimate good of the community is to be found."

Shakespeare-Grammatik. Von W. Franz. Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

This is not a Shakspere Grammar at all, but, like many others of its kind, is a treatment merely of Shakspere's syntax, with a preliminary discussion of inflection. One would expect this from the spelling of the title, for modern Shakspere study has long divided itself on the shibboleth of S-h-a-k-e-s-p-e-a-r-e and S-h-a-k-s-p-e-r-e, dilettante and popular methods preferring the spelling of the Folio, scientific and historical study generally following that of the majority of Shakspere's signatures. There are, of course, noted exceptions to this, but they are to be found chiefly among English and American scholars and not among the Germans, though it would seem that the adoption of the S-h-a-k-s-p-e-r-e form by the 'New English Dictionary' and the 'Century Dictionary' should definitively settle the matter. The book itself, however, is not unscientific in its method; the author shows a familiarity with English Historical Grammar, and treats his subject from the historical standpoint. In this respect the work is a great improvement over Abbott's, which, though accurate and painstaking for its time, has long since been superseded by better methods.

It would have been comparatively easy to bring together a considerable amount of scientific information in regard to Shakspere's sounds, and to have presented this clearly and simply in the light of modern English scholarship; nor would it have been impossible to present the fundamental principles of Shakspere's versification in a clear and simple way, revising and correcting Abbott's treatment of the subject so as to bring it up to date. If the author had done this, he would have given us a book which is badly needed; but he has not done this, and has given us instead a very discursive, though withal scientific and historical, treatment of Shakspere's syntax, largely based upon Abbott's 'Grammar' and the grammatical material found in Schmidt's 'Shakspere Lexicon.' The work is evidently intended for the German student of Shakspere, and therefore contains a great deal of information, much of it incorrect, in respect to the grammar of present English. All but the very best German work in this field shows a great weakness in its lack of a feeling for idiom, as any constant reader of such journals as *Anglia* and *Englische Studien* cannot fail to notice. This book is conspicuous for its lack of New English *Sprachgefühl*. One learns, for instance, on page 187, that *yon* and *yonder* are no longer in use in spoken English; on p. 135, that the idioms *this same, that same* are obsolete; on p. 192, that the word *somewhither* is obsolete; on the same page that *forth*, in connection with ideas of motion, has gone out of use in English; that *stand by*, in the sense of *to stand back*, is now obsolete—that *hard by* is present English; on p. 185, that *never*, in such idioms as *never fear, never a word*, is not in literary use.

Another conspicuous weakness of the book is the carelessness and the inconsistency of its references, and the confusing way in

which they are printed. It is with great difficulty, for instance, that one understands a reference like "N. E. D. B. I S. 322" to refer to Vol. 1, p. 322 of the 'New English Dictionary' (the citing of a dictionary by volume and page is deliciously German), but how is one to explain "Murray Dict. S.175," with no indication as to the volume referred to? Or how is one to disentangle "Murray Dict. *but* C. 6 S.1211"? or "N. E. D. unter *and* C. B. I S. 317"? or "N. E. D. unter *asleep* B. I S. 491"? or "Murray Dict. B. I S.64"? "Scott, B.D.III S.22" is rather an unceremonious way of introducing Sir Walter's 'Black Dwarf' to the student's attention, though the reference is explained in the preface. But who or what "Gerber S. 46" is, there is no clue to anywhere, either in preface or appendix. "Jesp. Progr. S. 214" is seemingly meant for "Jespersen, *Progress* (of something), Seite 214"—or is "Progr." meant for *Programm?*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allchin, Dr. W. H. A Manual of Medicine. Macmillan. Vol. I.
Allen, G. Hilda Wade: A Woman with Tenacity of Purpose. Putnams. $1.50.
Altsheler, J. A. In Circling Camps: A Romance of the Civil War. Appletons. $1.50.
Ashe, Dr. E. O. Besieged by the Boers. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Baldwin, Rev. S. L. Foreign Missions of the Protestant Churches. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Beman, Prof. W. W., and Smith, D. E. Elements of Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Benjamin, P. The United States Naval Academy: The Yarn of the American Midshipman (Naval Cadet). Putnams.
Bourne, G. C. An Introduction to the Study of the Comparative Anatomy of Animals. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Bradley, H. C. Rugby. [Handbooks to the Great Public Schools Series.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Brady, C. T. Stephen Decatur. [Beacon Biographies.] Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
Brinkerhoff, Gen. R. Recollections of a Lifetime. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Brown, Rev. W. B. The Problem of Final Destiny. Thos. Whittaker. $1.50.
Bürger's Lenore. Translated from the German by Dante Gabriel Rossetti. New ed. London: Ellis & Elvey.
Carlyle, T. The French Revolution: A History. New ed. Scribners. $1.75.
Caylor, Rev. E. H. The Late Dr. Sedgwick and the Spirit Medium. Dayton, Ohio: United Brethren Publishing House. 50c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1900.

The Week.

There was published last week a proposal for peace in the Philippines presented by six of the Filipino leaders, in behalf of a meeting of two hundred of their followers, which was held in Manila on Thursday. The proposal embraced the following terms, upon the acceptance of which these leaders agreed to use their influence with Aguinaldo and all the leaders and forces now in arms against the United States, to discontinue hostilities, viz.;

"(1.) Amnesty.
"(2.) The return by the Americans to the Filipinos of confiscated property.
"(3.) Employment for the revolutionary generals in the navy and milita when established.
"(4.) The application of the Filipino revenues to succor needy Filipino soldiers.
"(5.) A guarantee to the Filipinos of the exercise of personal rights accorded to Americans by their Constitution.
"(6.) Establishment of civil governments at Manila and in the provinces.
"(7.) Expulsion of the friars."

A later dispatch from Manila stated that Gen. MacArthur had rejected the seventh condition, "the expulsion of the friars," because he had no authority to grant it, but must leave it to be decided by the Taft Commission; also, that he could not guarantee to the Filipinos the right of trial by jury or the right to keep and bear arms, though both are accorded to the Americans by their Constitution.

It must be the ardent desire of every patriotic and humane citizen that killing and burning in the Philippines shall cease. This is the first apparent step to any settlement of the difficulties in which we have been floundering for the past sixteen months. It may turn out that the six leaders who made these proposals are only shamming in order to gain time and better opportunity to renew hostilities. They may be like the "Amigos" of the rural districts, ready to welcome our troops to-day and shoot them in the back to-morrow. Their influence with Aguinaldo may not be so great as they suppose. The whole scheme may fall through for want of responsibility or for want of good faith on the other side; but, supposing it to be acceptable to Aguinaldo and his following, what are the obstacles to our acceptance of the terms named? The only one we can discover is the fact that we agreed in the treaty of peace with Spain to protect the friars in their rights of property. As for "employment for the revolutionary generals in the navy and militia," it is what Sir George Clarke begged Capt. Mahan to urge upon our Government from the start. Take Aguinaldo, he wrote, and make him Governor of Luzon. But Gen. Merritt avoided the Filipino leader. Otis never saw him; and the miserable drift into miserable hostility was unchecked.

What is *in* the Republican platform we all know, or can know, by reading it. What was kept out of it we are just beginning to find out. First of the outs is a plank on Expansion in these words:

"We reassert the principle, which was the watchword of the Republican party in its first great battle, of which Abraham Lincoln was the illustrious champion, and on which he was elected President, that Congress has full legislative power over territory belonging to the United States, subject only to the fundamental safeguards of liberty, justice, and personal rights."

Gen. Grosvenor says that this plank was agreed upon first by President McKinley, and afterwards by the sub-committee on the platform, but that it "was drivelled out by a driveller from New York, who had charge of that branch of the work." Mr. Lemuel E. Quigg admits that he was the Secretary of the Sub-Committee on Platform, but he denies flatly that he did anything else than carry out the orders of the Committee. He denies that anything was put into or taken out of the platform surreptitiously, or without due consideration by the Committee. He gives a detailed account of what occurred in the Committee in reference to this particular plank. Here he has the great advantage over Grosvenor that he knows what took place in the committee-room, while Grosvenor can only conjecture. Moreover, Quigg's statement is intrinsically and manifestly the correct one, since no individual member could alter the platform, of his own motion, without instant detection and exposure, and perpetual infamy afterward. Quigg says that the Platform Committee considered it unwise to adopt the Grosvenor-McKinley plank, because the question involved in it was pending in the Supreme Court, and it might be embarrassing to the party if a decision should be rendered contrary to the platform. This shows how much more powerful in making a party platform is the man who has the last hack at it than the President of the United States, or a member of Congress who is not on the Committee. The man who has this power, and uses it for wise ends, can smile when called a driveller by rival statesmen and platform-makers. It should be explained, however, that no such plank was in the platform on which Abraham Lincoln was elected President, and that the Republican party had no such watchword in its first great battle, or in any battle. The platform of 1860 said: "The new dogma, that the Constitution, of its own force, carries slavery into any or all of the Territories of the United States, is a dangerous political heresy," etc.; which is quite a different thing from the Grosvenor-McKinley paragraph.

Grosvenor complains of the loss of another paragraph—one relating to steamship subsidies; or, rather, he complains that a paragraph which "had passed the scrutiny of the leaders of the party" was emasculated after it left their hands. The following "ringing sentiment," he says, was almost entirely left out:

"Our national defence and naval efficiency require merchant auxiliaries as a nursery for skilled officers and trained seamen. For the restoration of merchant marine, which was our early glory on the seas, we advocate such legislation as will enable American ships to again carry our foreign commerce."

The loss of this paragraph is not charged upon Quigg. The loser of it is not yet identified, but we can imagine that he might be looked for in the States of Indiana, Iowa, or Minnesota. It is possible that he detected the ring of a bad coin in the ringing sentiment, and laid it aside for that reason. There are many ways to account for its disappearance, but the most natural one is that the real leaders of the party *ad hoc* were not the men whom Grosvenor had in mind when he said that his resolution had passed their scrutiny. Such mistakes have been made before.

Nothing could illustrate the lowering of tone in the Republican party more strikingly than the success of Addicks in at last securing recognition as the head of the party in Delaware, the Committee on Credentials having decided in his favor by the overwhelming vote of thirty-eight to nine. This result represents the final triumph of the most persistent, extensive, and audacious attempt to corrupt the electorate of a whole State which has ever been seen in this Union. Addicks set out, many years ago, to secure a United States Senatorship by the buying of votes, and he has kept at it every time that a seat has fallen vacant, until now the prize seems to be within his grasp. The next Legislature will choose two Senators. If the Republicans shall control it, he will be sure of the office, while his relations with one of the Democratic factions are so intimate that he ought to be able to make a trade if that party should have a majority of the legislators. At any rate, the national council of the party now accepts him as a State leader, worthy to rank with Hanna and Quay and Platt in his absolute control of the Republican organization in his commonwealth.

Quay profited greatly by the Republican National Convention. It is hardly

too much to say that it rehabilitated him. Whenever he appeared before the Convention he was greeted with extraordinary demonstrations of approval. It is notorious that these demonstrations were started by Quay heelers among the ushers, and were taken up by the thousands of machine followers with whom Mayor Ashbridge had packed the galleries. Nevertheless, the display could not fail to impress observers, and it seems to have affected Hanna himself, especially when taken in connection with the demonstration of Quay's power over the Pennsylvania delegation. It is announced, and there is no reason to doubt the truth of the story, that the Chairman of the Republican National Committee has notified the "insurgents" that "there must be no sulking," and that the Administration does not like their plan of entering into fusion schemes with the Democrats to beat Quay candidates for the Legislature. The indications now are that the "harmony" policy, which is so strongly favored by President McKinley, will result, among other things, in the return of Quay to the Senate next winter.

Quay is not the source from which one expects a scheme of reform, and his motives are, of course, always open to suspicion. But he was entirely sound in his contention that a new and fairer system of representation in Republican national conventions ought to be adopted, and the plan which he advanced was based upon the right principle. Giving each State four delegates-at-large, as each has two members of the Senate, the rest were to be apportioned according to the number of Republican votes cast. This would increase the representation of States at the North like Massachusetts, New York, Indiana, and Iowa, which are either Republican, or can be hopefully contested by the party, and would greatly reduce the number of delegates from hopelessly Democratic States at the South; Alabama, for example, shrinking from 22 to 9, and Mississippi from 18 to 5. The justice of such a readjustment has long been clear to every candid man, but the politicians who run the Republican organization in the South have always opposed any restriction of their power, while their Northern brethren have dreaded to offend them because they wanted their votes for one or another candidate for President. There was no reason why the matter should not be taken up and settled on its merits—except that it was so much easier to shirk it; and to this Quay himself finally agreed, having accomplished his purpose of driving the Southern delegates to support Roosevelt.

Platt now makes little effort to conceal the animus against Roosevelt which led the New York boss to work strenuously to kick the Governor up-stairs into the Vice-Presidency. He observes, with sinister smiles, that "some people" had grave doubts all along of Roosevelt's ability to carry the State as a candidate for Governor this fall. Yet Platt adds, by way of left-handed compliment, that he has no doubt of the Colonel's carrying the State as candidate for the Vice-Presidency. This is as much as saying that McKinley is counted upon to drag through an unpopular nominee. What plans the boss has in reserve he does not yet deign to reveal; but the reformers "within the party," whom he has now so completely dished, can give a good guess. A Platt dummy for Governor, the New York County machine got ready for the Mayoralty campaign next year by purging it of every independent-minded man—is it any wonder that the Tammany leaders are all smiles at the prospect? It was to thwart and defeat a return to the old régime of deals between the two machines in State and city that Roosevelt valiantly announced, "My duty is here." Now, to the intense dejection of his friends whom he had enlisted for the good fight of reform in this State, and who were pointing to him as the stern, strong man who would swear to his own hurt and change not, he leaves them in the lurch. Hereafter, he will have to be as careful as McKinley himself how he uses the word "duty."

What should a Governor do if he is nominated for the Presidency or the Vice-Presidency six months before the end of his term? This question is raised by the selection of Roosevelt for the second place on the Republican ticket. The obvious answer would seem to be that he should keep on discharging the duties of Executive in the same way as though he had not been suggested for another position. On general principles every official should serve out the term for which he was elected, unless he is promoted to another before the term ends. It is equally plain that he should not hold one office and neglect its duties while he seeks another. A very good precedent was set by Grover Cleveland when he was nominated for President in July, 1884. He retained the Governorship of New York until the following January, and discharged its duties with the same fidelity during the last half of 1884 as during the same period of 1883. He was away from the executive chamber at Albany only three or four times in the whole campaign, and then only for a day or two at a time, and did not go outside of the State, except for a hasty trip to New Haven, Conn., and another to Newark, N. J., in the last week. Except for these brief absences from his office, growing out of his nomination for the Presidency, Mr. Cleveland conducted himself as Governor precisely as he would have done if somebody else had been made the national leader of his party.

Gov. Roosevelt will find the path of safety in following the precedent thus established by one of his predecessors sixteen years ago. There is no more reason why he should resign the Executive office because he has been nominated for a national position in 1900, than there was for Mr. Cleveland's withdrawal under the same circumstances in 1884. It is, however, quite as essential that the present Governor should sedulously apply himself to a faithful discharge of his duties during the next few months as it was that Mr. Cleveland should do the same thing sixteen years ago. Indeed, it is more essential that there shall be a single-minded devotion to these duties this year than in 1884, because there is now an uncommon accumulation of most important responsibilities for the Executive. Charges are pending against three of the highest officials in New York city, the Mayor, the Comptroller, and the District Attorney, and there should be no question of abundant opportunity for their deliberate consideration by the Governor. It would be a national scandal if Col. Roosevelt were to spend the bulk of his time during the next few months rushing over the country to electioneer for the Republican ticket, only making brief stop-over stays at Albany to hurry through a mass of business in helter-skelter fashion. The Governor should have too much respect for his present office to comply with the demands which will be made, that he shall give most of his energy to stump-speaking and Rough-Riding in all parts of the nation.

The conference of Anti-Imperialists in this city on Monday was devoted almost entirely to a discussion of the proper attitude toward the candidates for President this year. A strong disposition to rebuke Mr. McKinley was manifested by nearly all of those who expressed themselves, but it was finally decided by a unanimous vote to postpone any action until a general conference or convention can be held, after the meeting of the Democratic National Convention next month—probably in some city in the Middle West about the 1st of August. There is no need, however, to wait a day about active work against Imperialism in one direction, which can be prosecuted without any reference to candidates for the Presidency. This is an earnest campaign to secure the election next November of a House of Representatives with a majority of members opposed to Imperialism. In work to this end there can be hearty union among men who are of the same mind as to the duty of Congress, however they may vote for President next November. One great advantage of this campaign is the fact that

it does not need to be conducted exclusively along partisan lines. A number of the strongest opponents of Imperialism in the present Congress are Republicans. The most vigorous opposition to the Porto Rican tariff in the House a few months ago came from prominent Representatives belonging to the dominant party. It was a group of Republicans—McCall and Littlefield from New England, Crumpacker and several others from the Middle West—which forced the radical transformation of the measure, so that what was originally to be a permanent tariff became a provision for free trade within two years. On the other hand, there were Democrats from Pennsylvania, Louisiana, and California who coöperated with the bulk of the Republicans in sustaining the extreme Imperialist policy when it came up for the first time.

It is possible for a national election to result in the choice of a President of one party and of a House of Representatives controlled by the Opposition. This all but happened twenty years ago. Garfield was elected President in 1880 by 214 electoral votes to only 155 for Hancock, but his supporters carried only 148 of the 293 Congressional districts, so that the Republicans had but one more than a bare majority when the House was organized. In the elections of 1898, the Republicans obtained only a small majority of the House, although in that year there were many States which they carried by large majorities. The lower branch of Congress now consists of 357 members, and the Republicans elected only 186 Representatives, or but seven more than a majority. Among these 186 Representatives were no fewer than nine who, at one stage or another of the Porto Rican controversy, voted against Imperialism, and the party leaders would have been in despair if they had not secured the active help of four Democrats when the first test was made, and the only less valuable assistance of four more who stayed away without securing pairs.

Prosperity in the wheat district has very much to do, as the country has learned since 1896, with national prosperity, and the Republican party is going into the campaign with prosperity as its chief reliance for success. A ruinous harvest failure—such, for instance, as the destruction of the Kansas and Nebraska corn crop in 1894, which cut down the yield four hundred million bushels—would make havoc with this Administration argument. Such an event would in no way be chargeable to the party. But people have a way of blaming the ruling powers for the shortcomings of nature, and it would be hard for the party which condemned Mr. Cleveland for the low price of wheat in 1895 and the corn shortage of 1894, to escape some similar inference on its own account in the case of harvest-failure. For the moment, it is hard to say which way the scales will really turn in the matter of the wheat crop's bearing on politics. If the predictions of the more pessimistic experts turn out true, and half the wheat crop of North Dakota is destroyed, it might not be easy for the Republicans to hold the three electoral votes of the State, which were won in 1896 by 5,000 plurality, and were divided with the Opposition in 1892. If the South Dakota farmers suffer similarly, its four electoral votes would not be likely to return from the other party. But as against these possibilities lies the curious fact that Nebraska, the poor and discontented State of 1896, promises this year to reap the largest wheat crop in its history—a crop, moreover, which, because of the Dakota shortage, will sell at highly profitable prices. An accident of nature is therefore menacing Mr. Bryan in his own political stronghold, and the same good conditions prevail in Kansas.

We conclude that President McKinley has been perfectly advised that there is no need as yet to call Congress together to deal with the Chinese crisis. There is no question of making a declaration of war. The Executive has simply been doing his duty in endeavoring to protect American citizens. The time may come when the aid of Congress will be necessary, if not to make a formal declaration of war, at least to provide men and money. But Secretary Hay's quiet and efficient measures, meeting each day's situation as it arises, and striving in every way to minimize rather than inflame the difficulty, have been far better chosen than anything likely to be extracted from the wisdom of Congress. Unless things go from bad to worse, there is power enough in the Executive to deal with the Chinese situation, so far as American interests are concerned. The warlike goings on in China have a queer look. The men who are killed on either side might well wonder if a real state of war could be more deadly to them than this form of nominal peace; but we think it clear that, legally, the invasion of China may or may not be magnificent, but it is not war.

It is to be hoped that the reports of attacks on Japanese laborers in Montana are exaggerated. The number of these immigrants has increased very much of late, and their presence has called forth protests from the labor-unions Hitherto the Japanese have not been assaulted, but trouble has been brewing, and if steps are not promptly taken to protect them, the results may be very serious. The Government of Japan is a very different affair from that of China, and Japan itself is now on the same plane as the other Powers. The maltreatment of the Chinese in this country, which has in some cases been barbarous, has been endured with patience, or indifference, by their Government. Japan will not and cannot submit to such indignities. Any persecution of her subjects while they are in this country, having a right to expect protection under law and treaty, will certainly be resented. We have every reason to wish that our relations with the Japanese should continue to be of the most friendly character. So far as commerce is concerned, our trade with them promises to be of great value, and if we had a rational tariff, it would rapidly expand. Apart from material considerations, the Japanese have taken such wonderful strides in civilization as to deserve respect and sympathy. As human beings, Japanese are no better than Chinese; but internationally they have a higher status, and our responsibilities toward them are thus enlarged. The fact that the Japanese Government has taken steps to limit emigration to this country, should cause our authorities to see that such Japanese as are here receive ample protection.

Lord Salisbury must have heaved a sigh of relief when he read Chamberlain's speech last week and found that the Colonial Secretary had not attempted to force the Premier's hand in the matter of dissolving Parliament. The Conservatives have been dreading that Chamberlain would take the bit in his teeth, and blurt out his desire that the general election be held at once. Such is his power within the party, and so much is his terribly frank and direct way of "going for" what he wants dreaded by Liberal-Unionist leaders, that they half expected him to say something to embarrass, if not commit, the Government. But he wickedly refused to "gratify the curiosity of the Opposition," and had his fling, instead, at the United States for holding up hands in holy horror at England for doing in South Africa very much the same thing that America is doing in the Philippines—*i. e.*, subjugating a race that is struggling to be free. The Hon. Joseph did not call it that. He said that in both cases "a great work of civilization and humanity" was being carried out. But what he wanted to know—and there is much force in his question—was why the United States, after seeing that England did not "enter into quizzical disquisitions" about our stamping out Filipino independence, should suddenly discover such qualms about the snuffing out of Dutch independence in South Africa. There are fine possibilities of lurking sarcasm in Mr. Chamberlain's assertion: "I believe that the great majority of true Americans recognize that our aims in this war are as high and unselfish as those which animated themselves in the Spanish-American struggle."

PLATFORM AND GLOSS.

A morning newspaper, a very ardent advocate of "Expansion," betrayed astonishment and disgust at the platform adopted at Philadelphia on June 20, and wondered who wrote it and who revised it. It found some small compensation, however, in the speeches of Senators Wolcott and Lodge, which, it says, supplement the platform satisfactorily, and it thinks also that its deficiencies are made good by the acts of the Republican party during the past year or two. The reason for the *Sun's* disgust is to be sought in the following plank:

"In accepting by the Treaty of Paris the just responsibilities of our victories in the Spanish war, the President and the Senate won the undoubted approval of the American people. No other course was possible than to destroy Spain's sovereignty throughout the West Indies and in the Philippine Islands. That course created our responsibility, before the world and with the unorganized population whom our intervention had freed from Spain, to provide for the maintenance of law and order, and for the establishment of good government, and for the performance of international obligations. Our authority could not be less than our responsibility, and wherever sovereign rights were extended, it became the high duty of the Government to maintain its authority to put down armed insurrection, and to confer the blessings of liberty and civilization upon all the rescued peoples. The largest measure of self-government consistent with their welfare and our duties shall be secured to them by law. To Cuba independence and self-government were assured in the same voice by which war was declared, and to the letter this pledge shall be performed."

This deliverance leaves the party facing both ways in the coming campaign. It is contrived to suit the views of Senators Hoar, Hale, Mason, and Wellington, and of Representatives McCall, Littlefield, and Crumpacker, as well as those of Lodge, Wolcott, and the avowed Expansionists. It accords with the party's inconsistency in dealing with the question in Congress. During the whole session only one step was taken to define the party's position on Imperialism —in the Porto Rican law—and on that subject the platform expresses no opinion at all. On the Philippine question the party is free, so far as the platform goes, to grant the Filipinos complete independence. Of course, there is no such intention at present, but if future events, occurring either in the Philippines or in the United States, should make such a policy advisable, there is nothing in this platform to prevent the adoption of such a policy. The only way the Democrats can make a clear issue on the question is to promise an unconditional withdrawal of our troops from the Philippines; for if they favor a withdrawal only when order is restored, or some similar condition is fulfilled, the public will see no difference between the two platforms.

On the currency question the platform is keyed up to concert pitch. "We renew our allegiance to the gold standard," it says, and then it proceeds to endorse, in somewhat veiled language, the programme of the Indianapolis Monetary Commission for what is called "banking on assets" as distinguished from bond security. The words used are these:

"We recognize that interest rates are a potent factor in production and business activity; and for the purpose of further equalizing and of further lowering the rates of interest, we favor such monetary legislation as will enable the varying needs of the season and of all sections to be promptly met, in order that trade may be evenly sustained, labor steadily employed, and commerce enlarged."

This does not commit the party to a change in the present mode of securing banknote issues, but it furnishes a basis and groundwork for future agitation by the supporters of the Indianapolis movement; and to this there can be no objection.

The steamship-subsidy crowd "got left" in the platform, as we anticipated they would. The plank merely favors "legislation which will enable us to recover our former place in the trade-carrying fleets of the world." The use of the phrase "trade-carrying fleets," which we have never seen before in the maritime vocabulary, would seem to exclude passenger-carrying fleets as the subjects of needed legislation, and, if this was the intention of the platform-makers, would suffice to knock the props from under the Hanna-Payne bill completely. Certainly the subsidy-hunters who thronged the lobbies of Congress last winter have not got what they wanted in the platform.

There is some self-restraint also in dealing with the Isthmian canal question: "We favor the construction, ownership, control, and protection of an Isthmian [not necessarily Nicaraguan] canal by the Government of the United States." The Clayton-Bulwer treaty is not mentioned, nor is the pending treaty by which that treaty is modified.

"We approve the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States." This brief and rather flatulent utterance is all that the platform gives us on this subject. The plank in favor of the purchase of the Danish islands, which was inserted in the platform of 1896, is conspicuously absent. Perhaps we have more islands than we can comfortably digest, or "benevolently assimilate," now.

The platform as a whole is better than we had looked for. It implies no change of heart in Mark Hanna, or Tom Platt, or Matt Quay; but it betokens a general apprehension in the party that they are to have a stiff fight this year, and that they will need all the help they can get; and to this end they are pandering somewhat to the moral sense of the community.

The addresses of Senators Wolcott and Lodge were in rather sharp contrast with the mild platitudes of the platform. Whereas that document was carefully framed so as to be as unobjectionable as possible, the speeches of the two Senators show plainly what the leaders of the party would like to do, and would do if they dared. Yet Senator Lodge was not quite so truculent as he has been on some former occasions. He promised that the inhabitants of the Philippines should be advanced as rapidly as possible "along the road to entire freedom, and to self-government under our flag." It will be rather difficult for the Democrats to promise anything that will sound better than that, unless, as we have said, they are willing to declare positively that our troops shall be withdrawn at once, and the Filipinos allowed to govern themselves now. Senator Lodge's declaration is one of many signs that the Administration is weary of the wretched entanglement caused by its arrogant proclamations, and is now disposed to come to terms with the unfortunate people who were forced into hostility by its despotic attitude.

In his account of the financial history of the last few years, Senator Lodge came a good deal nearer to the truth than Senator Wolcott, although he could not, as a partisan, give the credit of saving the country from coming to the silver standard to President Cleveland. He was prudent enough not to dwell long on that subject, and the greater part of his speech was an "arraignment" of the Democratic party under its present leaders. Here, it must be said, Senator Lodge had a good opportunity, and he made the most of it. As a matter of fact, the country has enjoyed two or three years of prosperity, and is now enjoying it. It does not follow that this prosperity is due to the McKinley Administration; but it is certainly true that the Democrats have so far done nothing to show that they would effect any improvement if they came into power, and Mr. Bryan is beyond question joined to the silver idol. Mr. Lodge asks the question, "Will prosperity continue if you make a change in your President and in the party which administers your Government?" He says that business confidence rests largely on sentiment, and asks if that sentiment would be a hopeful one the day after Bryan's election. No one can deny that the great mass of the business men of the country will ask these questions most seriously, and it will be very hard for the Democrats to answer them. It is true that material prosperity is not the best thing in the world. It is true that the disease of Imperialism demands the remedy of a change of Administration. But will not the remedy of a Bryanite Administration be worse than the disease? And, what is the most serious question of all, will it really afford any remedy for the evils of Imperialism? These are the questions which Senator Lodge artfully suggests, and the answers to which will perplex conscientious voters.

THE NOMINATIONS.

That Mr. McKinley would be renominated for the Presidency had been known for many months before the meeting of the Republican National Convention. There was a time when the prize might have slipped from him. If Admiral Dewey, on his arrival in New York at the beginning of October, 1899, had allowed his name to be used as a rival candidate, there might have been an irresistible stampede to him. With Dewey shelved by his own act, the renomination of McKinley became inevitable. He had put the American republic on a new course. He had changed its inherited principles and its traditional policy. He had turned it out of its accustomed pathway. It was born in the belief that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. He pushed it into a situation which compelled the Republican party to take a new stand and espouse a new doctrine. Expansion was sure to run into Imperialism. This was as certain as any step in political or social evolution since the world began. Possession of distant territories made it necessary to adopt principles for their government. Should these be American principles? Should they be based on the right of peoples to govern themselves? Should the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands be citizens or subjects? If citizens, then they must have all the rights of citizens, including that of free movement, and equal representation in the management of public affairs. But obviously they could not have the right of free movement without bringing up the question of Asiatic immigration in a more dangerous form than ever before. On the other hand, if they were not to have the rights of citizens, they would be subjects, ruled over by a republic; and since a republic can act only through political parties, they must be ruled by the appointees of whichever party happened to be in power. Call them proconsuls or what you will, the life-giving principle of the republic was immediately put in jeopardy by Expansion. This was the act of William McKinley, and this act made his renomination inevitable unless a more spectacular representative of the same principle, like Dewey or Roosevelt, should supersede him.

For this reason the Republican party is logical in renominating him, but it is logical in nothing else. It took the Philippine Islands by treaty sixteen months ago, but has not been able to decide yet how it shall govern them. Eight months ago Mr. McKinley was making speeches in the Northwest, and, in response to the question what kind of government we should give them, he said that that was a question for Congress to decide. Congress would meet soon, and he (the President) would be guided by its wisdom and follow its instructions. Congress met at the appointed time. Instead of deciding the question—instead of meeting the pregnant issues presented to it by the President, and still more by the march of events—it first made a pretence of referring the whole question back to the questioner.

The Spooner Bill, which embodied the party's purposes at the time of its introduction, proposed to put the whole government of the Philippines in the hands of the President—that is, to create the very kind of despotism which the Anti-Expansionists said would be the outcome of Expansion. But the party, on further reflection, decided to do nothing whatever—not even to turn the decision of the problem over to the President. Doing nothing would virtually leave everything in his hands, but it would not commit individual Congressmen to any particular ideas on the subject of Imperialism. It would not make anybody in particular responsible for anything, but would leave everybody free to spout as Wolcott does about the flag, and the bravery of our soldiers, and their sacred burial-places in the Philippines. Shall we ever withdraw the flag from that hallowed ground? Never, says Wolcott, never. Thus far, and no farther, has the Republican party gone in settling the great question which McKinley referred to Congress last October.

Gov. Roosevelt's nomination for the Vice-Presidency will, no doubt, be vastly popular with his party. We think it will add strength to the ticket, especially in the Middle West, where they do not take their politics sadly. The Rough Rider in second place will rouse a certain kind of enthusiasm, and doubtless win some votes, beyond the reach of the smooth writer at the head of the ticket. From the standpoint of political expediency, therefore, the naming of Roosevelt must be conceded to have been well advised; but in its effect upon the State of New York it will be little short of a disaster, while its result in lowering the personal prestige of the Governor himself is melancholy in the extreme.

Say what his apologists will, his nomination is a malign victory of Roosevelt's enemies over him. It was in their hands, not in those of his friends, that he placed himself. Grant the undoubtedly sincere and widespread demand for him in the West. It is yet as clear as daylight that if Platt had been willing to take Mr. Bliss, or any other respectable business figure-head from New York—the type of nominee that Hanna and McKinley undoubtedly desired—the Western enthusiasm for Roosevelt would have died without a murmur. The truth is, and everybody knows it, that Platt had recorded a solemn vow that Roosevelt should not be Governor again, and craftily and treacherously pushed forward his nomination for the Vice-Presidency to further his own schemes in this State. No one asserted in advance the danger of exactly this result more vehemently than Roosevelt's intimate friends, who denounced the plan of the boss to "side-track" the Governor for having been too independent, and for having, by his franchise-tax legislation, offended powerful corporations. As for Platt himself, those in his confidence have declared all along that his determination to get rid of Roosevelt was fixed. He has played with the Governor for four months, and has triumphantly tricked him at last.

Where is the dashing Roosevelt of other days, the soldier blunt and true, the one man in politics whose course was

"— an eagle flight, bold and forth on"?

His own words and acts are what compel us to see in him a faltering will and a judgment eaten into by political ambition. On February 12 he gave out an official statement at Albany declaring, "Under no circumstances could I, or would I, accept the nomination for the Vice-Presidency." Not that he despised the office, but, he said, "my duty is here." "Great problems have been faced and partially solved in this State, . . . and I hope that the work thus begun I may help carry to a successful conclusion." There spoke, everybody thought, a resolute and clear-sighted man. Lest there might be any misunderstanding, he took occasion within two weeks of the Convention to reiterate his position. His decision was "irrevocable"; he would "decline the nomination if it were made." Gov. Roosevelt was under no obligation to make these statements; but, having made them, having got his friends to believe them, mere self-respect should have prevented him from going to Philadelphia to exhibit himself as a nervous, harried, and worried man, not knowing his own mind. Was a gallant Rough Rider thus to be transformed into a man with his ear to the ground?

Gov. Roosevelt has frequently mounted the pulpit of the political preacher. We should like to hear from him now a new discourse on "efficiency." Or, if he prefers a magazine article, we suggest as a subject, "The Story of a Man and a Machine." For our part, we can see in the downfall of Roosevelt's hopes and plans only a new reading of the old lesson of the fatal folly of compromising with evil. He has boasted of his ability to dominate the machine. Confer with Platt? Why, certainly. A really strong man could breakfast or hob-nob with a boss and use him as an "instrument" for good government. But now we see. Those who play with fire will get burned. Those who sup with the devil, even with a long spoon, are sure to have to swallow a nauseous portion in the end. Roosevelt will now be able to jot this truth down in his political commonplace book. He was not going to be nominated for the Vice-Presidency because he had Platt's word for it, and Platt's word was as good as his bond. What does he think about that now?

THE DEEPENING CHINESE DIFFICULTY.

When the Chinese question first became acute, a couple of weeks ago, everybody was talking of the final settlement—how extremely puzzling that would be. The preliminary step of putting down the mob, rescuing the ambassadors, deposing the Empress, and clearing the ground for a grand congress of the Powers at Pekin to decide what to do next, was universally thought to be easy. China had always yielded to a show of force, and she would now. Admiral Seymour, with 2,000 men, would march to Pekin and, joined by the guards at the legations, would be able to dictate terms. But that is all changed, and again we find that it is the first step that costs. The Powers begin to see that the subjugation of the infuriated millions of North China will be a long and bloody task, taxing the resources of civilization.

It is estimated that there are some 50,000 Chinese troops in the neighborhood of Pekin; and it has now become a moral certainty that they, or at least some of them, have joined fortunes with the Boxers in a mad crusade against foreigners. Those Krupp quick-firing guns served against the foreign concession in Tientsin spoke of regularly trained artillerists. That the European Governments and our own now realize that they have to face China in arms, instead of a mere uprising of fanatical and badly armed peasants, is clear from the haste with which troops are being dispatched from all quarters to the scene of hostilities and of peril. The nations are dropping all perplexing questions about the ultimate fate of China while the immediate fate of their own ministers and consuls is so uncertain and may prove to be so appalling.

Happily, the common peril has caused international bickerings to cease. Japan and Russia were supposed to be ready to fly at each other's throats; yet they are now coöperating with the utmost harmony. The Russian Admiral sent a mixed force of 4,000 men from Taku on Sunday to the relief of the beleaguered foreigners in Tientsin, and nearly one-half the number were Japanese. It is like Guelf and Ghibelline in an Italian city of the Middle Ages sinking their bitter quarrels in order to unite against the common enemy. As the case stands, Russia and Japan are undoubtedly in a position to bring the largest force first to the spot. Probably 20,000 Russian soldiers are within reach. Japan, we suppose, could land 50,000 at Taku within a month. She would have marched to Pekin in 1895 if the Powers had let her. It would be an odd revenge of time if they should now be constrained to ask her to become the commissioner of civilization to rescue the imperilled foreigners in Pekin and set up some semblance of a responsible government.

Russian diplomacy and designs in the Orient are brought freshly to notice by the sudden death, at this crisis, of the Russian Minister for Foreign Affairs, Count Muravieff. The disappearance of the man in whose hand all the threads were held might seem to threaten confusion; but we already see how least of all in Russia may any man be said to be indispensable. Russian policy in the Far East is a matter of race inheritance and tradition, of generation after generation pushing on to the goal, without haste and without rest; and as one statesman goes, another comes to carry on the same work. Russia is, in fact, the one great Power now in the world which can play the Imperialistic rôle with proper grace. Even Japan has a Parliament and political parties, to vote money and to question the Government. Russia wears no such fetters. She interprets Imperialism as absolutism, as it must be to be truly successful, and her rulers brook no criticism. The Russian press is muzzled. It was not even allowed to publish the recent news about the triumph of Russian diplomacy in Korea. Such things become known to the public in St. Petersburg only by accident or by information leaking from foreign sources. The diplomats of Russia in the Orient may thus be assured that their footsteps will not be dogged, and their purposes thwarted, by publicity.

Nor is there in Russia the fickleness of popular opinion bred by a fickle press. We Imperialists of the new breed cannot keep our attention fixed long upon any one part of our Imperial domain. We have our successive fits of hysteria about Cuba, about Porto Rico, about the Philippines, only to drop each in disgust. Even in England they complain of like vacillation. Now it is Fashoda, now the Afghan frontier, now South Africa that fills the press with alarms; but each soon passes, and a public avid for some new thing demands sensations in other fields. Russia, however, suffers from no such embarrassments. Her age-long and unwearied purposes she holds to without changeableness; and, as we say, if her Imperialism could only be sure that its silence and secrecy did not mean enfeeblement by corruption, it would be the most triumphant thing of the kind in the world.

But Russia and all the rest have a tremendous job on their hands in China. These white man's burdens are, in truth, coming thick and fast. "The hate of those ye guard"—that certainly is a reward all the civilized nations will reap in China. And yet they have all been mad for cultivating the Chinese trade! The whole thing is a fine illustration for those who maintain the "ironical theory" of Providence—what Tacitus called the *ludibria rerum mortalium.*

THE LIBRARIANS AT MONTREAL.

MONTREAL, June, 1900.

It is the universal opinion of the attendants at the Montreal conference of the American Library Association that there has never been a better conducted, more successful, more satisfactory meeting. Mr. Thwaites, editor of the great republication of the Jesuit Relations, was certainly "indicated" as the man to preside in the region of early Jesuit missionary activity. His parliamentary capacity proved to be as great as his historical knowledge. Everything went smoothly, and each session concluded its own business. There was, to be sure, the usual want of time for adequate debate; but what debate there was, was perhaps all the more eager, interested, and to the point. Free access to open shelves received as much attention, and excited as much feeling, as last year at Atlanta; but neither year did the *odium forulicum* reach the pitch of ferocity which it always raises in an English library conference. There was the same appearance of a great majority in favor of a freedom carried as far as local circumstances will allow, if not a little farther.

The place that classification took at Atlanta in general attention was filled by cataloguing. Both subjects, almost excluded of late from the *Library Journal*, appear to engage the interest of members at once and deeply whenever there is a chance of introducing them. But, this year, cataloguing was the more important because the increased probability of carrying out some scheme of coöperative cataloguing renders it imperative that rules should be formulated which all the coöperating libraries can agree to. Now, Cutter's Rules, Linderfelt's Rules, the A. L. A. Code, the Library School rules, and the practice at various libraries differ not perhaps on very many points, but very widely on some points; and one problem—that of corporate entry—is of extremely difficult solution. It is greatly to be hoped that, with a spirit of compromise, there may come to be an agreement in essentials. If on any point—as of the entry of noblemen—there is irreconcilable diversity, some arrangement may perhaps be made for furnishing cards which can be used by either party.

The President's address took the character natural at the close of a century—a review of the past—though he wisely confined himself to the last decade, in which he could find as much progress to comment upon as in any other two decades; more than in the first three-quarters of the century. State library commissions, interstate, State, and district associations, library training schools, travelling and branch libraries and deliveries, travelling exhibitions, library advertising, children's rooms, coöperation with teachers, rooms for the blind, access to shelves, coöperative cataloguing, interlibrary loans and exchanges, the general erection of library buildings superb in appearance even if generally defective in plan, phenomenal gifts from philanthropists both of library buildings and of endowments, compulsory library legislation, improved methods of binding and issuing public documents—are all younger than the American Library Association, and most of them the accompaniment or the product of the last third of its life. The decade has to its credit seventeen State

library commissions created, twenty State library associations founded, three library schools, and more summer library schools started, and the astounding sum of $24,000,000 given for the foundation or maintenance of public libraries. The address showed a warm appreciation of the good work wrought by travelling libraries in widening the horizon and improving life in small, isolated back-country hamlets, "corners," and even in larger rural communities, and by branch libraries not in specially prepared buildings, but wherever the railroad men, the firemen, or the policemen would accept books, or the school-teachers, the hospital doctors, or the shop-keepers would distribute them.

At this twenty-second conference most of the papers were, of course, a threshing out of old material. There was one new topic, the use of photographs, but lack of time prevented that from being followed, as it should have been, by an experience meeting. In library statistics, the advantage of comparing the size of the stock in a department with the issue from the department, to ascertain the demand for that class of books and how to satisfy or increase it, is not an absolutely new idea, but was for the first time made clear by a carefully worked out example (taken from the figures of the New York Free Circulating Library).

The most important topic was not a novelty, for it was introduced in 1853, at the first library convention ever held, by Mr. C. C. Jewett, then Librarian of the Smithsonian Institution. He was struck, as so many have been since, by the prodigious waste of effort involved in the fact that whereas a book is composed, written, put in type, only once for all the libraries that buy it, its cataloguing requires a separate investigation of facts, a separate decision on doubtful points, a separate writing of cards, a separate possibility of error at each of those libraries, so that the same work is done over and over again, with no advantage whatever accruing from the repetition. He proposed that a central office should catalogue and stereotype all titles, he invented a cheaper method of stereotyping, and he prepared a code of rules—good, but far from complete—for the cataloguing. His stereotyping process was a failure, and nothing came of the plan. It has been taken up since by others, but has always met with one fatal difficulty, the want of funds. If the work could be done on a large scale, it was sure to be a success; on a small scale, it could not succeed. The cost of cataloguing and printing divided among very many libraries would have been trifling for each, and the saving would have more than repaid the cost of distribution. But the enterprise was dependent on its subscribers; naturally they were comparatively few at first. Then, few books could be catalogued, but the cataloguers were compelled to demand, in order to cover their expenses, that the subscribers should take all the cards issued. The participating libraries found that the cost of keeping in order these cards, most of which were of no use to them because they had not the books, far exceeded any saving on the few cards that served for the books which they had. They had to maintain just as large a cataloguing force as ever. But if the enterprise could have undertaken to catalogue all the new American, English, French, and German books, and, with an easy system of ordering by numbered titles, to supply to libraries only such cards as they wanted, a large part of the needs of a large number of libraries would be met, and, as nothing succeeds like success, very many libraries would soon join. Then the central cataloguers would be able to attack the accumulations of the past, and no new library, hardly any old one, could afford to be out of the union. The plan certainly has not reached this point yet, but it has at this meeting taken a long step forward in this direction. A sufficient number of libraries have combined (so far as their librarians could pledge them) to insure an extensive experiment being tried with a reasonable hope of success. The results already obtained in a special field by a combination of a few great libraries were most encouraging. Mr. Andrews of the Crerar Library has invented a device which renders the storage and handling of electrotyped titles easy, and lessens one of the main difficulties of the scheme. It has been tried with over 30,000 titles, and works well. The day is perhaps coming when a librarian will order his printed catalogue cards as regularly as he orders his books, and more easily, for he will only have to write a number. Perhaps the day will come when the cards will be furnished by the publisher with the book.

The Association, though in favor of cheap book-postage for the use of the interlibrary loan, did not approve of the measure as at present proposed.

The next meeting will be somewhere in the Middle West. Mr. Carr, Treasurer for several years, and Secretary for the last two, is the new President.

Nearly three-quarters of the members took the post-conference trip to Quebec, and beyond to Tadousac and Chicoutimi, on the wild banks of the Saguenay. On the return, half a hundred stayed at Quebec to see the Corpus-Christi procession—a sight which, in that place, is a little journey to Europe. They admired the magnificence of the priests' vestments, the length of the procession in so small a city, the charming effect of the long double lines of girls in white veils, each conventual school arranged by age—the youngest, hardly four years of age, in front. They noted that the children's remarkable beauty was not to be seen in the older members of the procession, whether that the Canadian beauty is short-lived, or that the new generation is going to be more lovely than its predecessors, or that there is a natural selection, which drafts off the handsomer faces into domestic life. The Papal, Canadian, English, Irish, French, and American flags were here and there stretched across the street, and there were on the houses great red bands, with suitable inscriptions, "O Salutaris Hostia, Panis Angelorum," and the like. On the edge of the sidewalk all along the route were set lines of young pines and firs, thousands of which must have been sacrificed for the purpose. In two or three places arches were erected, covered with evergreens, whose sweet odor filled the air even at some distance. At these stations the four men paused who bore the canopy covering the priest with the Host; a score of choir-boys in beautiful blue robes scattered flowers; a dozen incense-boys swung their censers; the richly robed priests chanted in strident tones; and then the procession moved on. They returned along the same route, and dissolved with impressive ceremonies in the Basilica. The choir of the Jesuits' Church of Montreal, reputed the best in the city, had come to Quebec for the occasion. The lucky librarians returned on the same boat, and for half a day were pleased by a profusion of songs, solo and chorus, grave and gay, sung by rich, well-trained voices. From Montreal a fitting route home was offered to the Western librarians by the St. Lawrence and the great lakes; to the Eastern party by Lake Champlain and Lake George. F. L.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—I.

ITS ARCHITECTURE.

PARIS, June, 1900.

Everything is in the point of view, and your first impressions of Paris this summer will depend upon whether you have gone to amuse yourself in a world's fair, or to learn something from an international exhibition.

It was never so well realized as at the Paris show of 1889 that much might be taught by the buildings put up for the occasion, no less than by the exhibits they were designed to contain—that the moment might be made one of architectural as well as commercial and industrial display. The French, with their traditional sense of style, could not, even for a temporary purpose, lapse wholly into the vulgar or the discordant, and I remember being struck, eleven years ago, in the Champ de Mars, with a unity, a dignity, a symmetry, that certainly had not characterized the Philadelphia Centennial buildings in 1876. But Paris simply gave the hint which Chicago, without any artistic traditions whatever, elaborated and carried to complete achievement. It is an old story now, but one with such important results, one imposing such serious obligations by way of sequel, that it cannot be forgotten. For it meant, not only that, during a long summer, a white city, more beautiful than Claude's most beautiful dream, rose upon the shores of Lake Michigan; but also that a standard—and a high standard—was set for all similar enterprises. There is no doubt that the buildings were admirably adapted to the necessities of exhibition; but they were also an architectural triumph, more practically representative of the development of the architect's art in America than all the plans and elevations hung on any of the walls within. For this reason it is now impossible to go to Paris without remembering Chicago—impossible to visit the Exposition without looking upon the buildings and their arrangement as something more than a gay background for an international picnic. A chance has been given to the French architect in his turn, and the question is, What use has he made of it?

To approach the Exposition by the chief entrance, the Porte Monumentale, is to feel a very sharp pang of disappointment—to face discouragement at the start. It opens on the Place de la Concorde; there is no nobler square in all Europe, and, more likely than not, you have come to it along the Rue de Rivoli, which, with its arcades and fine sky line, is one of the stateliest streets in a city where stateliness is the rule. It is, therefore, the greater shock to find yourself opposite a cheap, tawdry, gimcrack structure, painted in the colors of the rainbow; a figure, like the decoration of a wedding-cake, set on top; the whole thing more ap-

propriate to the circus ring than the meeting-place of the nations in the most important capital of the world. It is the more difficult to describe because, as the friends and admirers of M. René Binet, the architect, boast, it is built in an entirely new style. But there are qualities in architecture, as in painting and sculpture, more desirable than novelty, and he pays a heavy price for his too thorough originality. Three arches support a cupola and are flanked on either side by two tall columns; the whole of open work studded with hundreds of little electric lights, so that, even in the day, you can see that the problem of the architect was less beauty, or grace, or harmony of proportion than an effective scheme of illumination to startle the Parisian by night. M. Moreau-Vauthier's symbolic statue of Paris that crowns the cupola, and two other gigantic figures that stand under it, upholding great electric lights, are, at least, frivolous or commonplace enough to be in keeping. But, almost as if to emphasize the flimsiness of the design by contrast, two bas-reliefs, representing Labor, by M. Guillot, connect the arches with the columns, and are as hopelessly out of place as the work of M. Meunier, of whom M. Guillot is evidently a disciple, would be in a music hall or a side show at the circus. The arrangement of turnstiles to admit a vast crowd may be ingenuity itself, but, architecturally and pictorially, the French are the first to admit that the Gate is a failure.

It is wiser, really, to get your first impression from the Champs-Élysées entrance, where there is no attempt at architecture. But while the Porte Monumentale opens only into alleys of horse chestnuts, here you have before you a vista in some ways not unworthy of Paris, the city of vistas. In front, the new Avenue Nicolas II. leads, between the Grand and the Petit Palais des Beaux-Arts to the new Pont Alexandre III., and then across the Esplanade des Invalides to the Invalides itself, severe and solemn with the greater reticence of another age and the memories of the intervening years. The two palaces, the avenue, and the bridge are to remain, and, with their characteristic respect for the permanent, the French architects have treated these features of the Exposition in a more serious spirit. The palaces are by far the best designed and most impressive of all the buildings. The Petit Palais, which now contains the Retrospective collection, and later will become a museum of decorative and industrial art, is the more satisfactory of the two. In both, due regard is shown for the present pseudo-classic ideals of French architecture. But M. Girault, the architect of the smaller palace, has understood the advantage of restraint. The central doorway, a huge arch rising above the line of the building, is rather florid, but elsewhere the decorations are comparatively simple and harmonious. It is another matter with the Grand Palais of MM. Thomas, Louvet, and Deglane. Here statues sprawl wherever there is room for sprawling; the walls within the colonnades are ornamented with M. Fournier's frieze, appropriate in subject (the Great Periods of Art), but, in feeling and style, wholly inconsistent with the architecture. Throughout there is an overloading of detail, an excess of ornament especially irritating in a building whose chief motive calls for reserve and repose. On the other hand, the success with which the palace has been planned to fill an irregular space, and yet present a symmetrical front, not only to the Avenue Nicolas II., but also to the Avenue d'Antin, is little short of marvellous. The bridge, the work of M. Cassien-Bernard and G. Cousin, is also good—frankly the engineer's feat that bridge-building resolves itself into nowadays; the architectural ornament not overdone, even if here there is one point curious to note. Though a serious defect in so much of the sculpture exhibited is felt to be the disproportionate size of the base to the statue, so that, in the case of an equestrian group, the horse is usually galloping off into space, the two columns at each end of the bridge are unnecessarily big for the allegorical figures that surmount them. However, the general effect is not unpleasant. But, when you cross the bridge, what is to be said of the two big industrial art palaces that face each other across the wide avenue? What are they but stucco gone mad? Chicago has suggested for all the larger buildings white as the prevailing color, though often it is needlessly broken by touches or spaces or bars of pale yellow or other tints. And in these two palaces every spare surface, every corner, every line is disfigured and tortured by ornament—a very frenzy of ornament. It may be infinitely dexterous in detail—I do not deny it. And, indeed, I know of no country where, for the mere ordering, frescoes could be produced as effective and skilful, without being absolutely great, as those painted by the modern French artists on the façade of either building—or, for that matter, on the countless buildings in the grounds, down to the most unpretending theatre for children. But the result of the whole in the Industrial Art palaces is an extravagance, a flamboyancy, that bewilders and fatigues the eye. It has none of the naïveté that amuses one in the absurd rococo of, for instance, the famous bridge at Prague. It is self-conscious, deliberate; you are oppressed by the effort, the agonizing effort, of it all. And the two staring white edifices, with their frescoes and arcades and endless wreaths and arabesques and flourishes of stucco, seem only the more tawdry and frivolous, framing in, as they do, the solemn old gray building with its golden dome. A wonderful opportunity has been lost. The Invalides might have suggested an arrangement that would have surpassed Chicago, even as Chicago eclipsed all previous exhibitions. But, instead, you have a sensationalism, a caprice, reminding you at every turn that the exhibition, if intended to serve, on the one hand, as an educational factor, is, on the other, merely an exaggerated development of the country fair.

As every one now knows, this end of the Exposition grounds is joined to the Champ de Mars and the Trocadéro by two narrow strips along the river-front. At the Champ de Mars, again, was a fine chance for a vista. Gardens and avenues, connected by the Pont d'Iéna and interrupted only by the Eiffel Tower, stretch from the old Palais du Trocadéro to the new Château d'Eau with the great Palais de l'Électricité and Salle des Fêtes behind it. On the Champ-de-Mars side of the river, however, all these huge palaces—of Education, of Costume, of Womanhood, of Mines and Metallurgy, of Textile Fabrics, and who can say of how many other things?—are only less ornate than the two long outbreaks of stucco leading to the Invalides. The general plan, the same as in 1889, is excellent; the details are distressing; and the giant arches of the Eiffel Tower put everything else out of scale. On the Trocadéro side, if the vista were shut in by the river, less fault could be found, for, from the high steps there spread out before you the bare white walls and low domes of the Colonial section—Algerian streets, Moorish bazaars, and so on—that, in the imitation, preserve something of the impressive simplicity of the East. But there, beyond the bridge, the huge tower breaks in rudely upon the composition without adding any compensating beauty, except in the evening, perhaps, when, in long rhythmical lines of light, it springs upward into the dark, though the illuminations, when I saw them, could not bring the whole picture together any better by night than by day.

Chicago, no doubt, also suggested the use to be made of the river front, but I am not sure that it is not just here that the Exposition is most disappointing. One or two long white buildings—the Palace of Navigation, the Palace of Forestry, Hunting and Fishing—border the Seine on the southern bank, and they are among the simplest and quietest of all. But they appear to find themselves there by haphazard, rather than to have been placed, like the memorable group in Chicago, as part of a great architectural scheme. They are jostled at either end by pavilions and houses that have no architectural relation to them, they are overtowered by others as irrelevant. Even the bridges do not lead up to them with any distinction. Above, on the same side, is the row of Pavilions of the Nations. A few are really fine, especially the Italian, for to Italy was granted not only more space but quite the best site. It stands first as you look down the river from the Pont Alexandre III., and there is nothing to interfere with the effect of its stately proportions and golden domes. But it is followed by such a jumble, such a heterogeneous mess of architecture, such an absurd medley of German gables, and English mullioned windows, and Hungarian castellated towers, and I hardly know what, that the only definite impression you bring away from the confusion, if you happen to be an American, is one of honest shame that your country should be so shabbily represented. While every other nation, big or little, has taken some pride in putting up a building worthy of its history, or traditions, or present prosperity, the stars and stripes float from an insignificant, undignified structure that looks like nothing so much as the Mausoleum of American Art it has already been called. After Chicago, this architectural disgrace seems all the more unpardonable. On the opposite banks of the river, the Palace, which is a discredit to the city of Paris, is followed by the horticultural buildings, and then by M. Robida's "Vieux Paris," which, however clever as make-believe viewed from within, from without sets one to wondering if, after all, modern Paris, with its quays and shady groves and here and there a palace like the Louvre, is not nobler and more pictorial than the mediæval capital it has replaced. As I stood on the new bridge of Alexandre III., I thought the view up the river toward Paris, untouched—for, from this point, you cannot see the brand-new Gare d'Orléans and the treeless quays be-

yond—must leave one thankful that the world's combined efforts to achieve beauty are doomed to perish with the year.

If I criticise, it is because, as I have said, the miracle on Lake Michigan led one to hope for the coming of the architectural millennium, and where should one expect it but in Paris? I understand the difficulties that confronted the French architect. I grant that in no other city in Europe or America could so much have been made out of such a piecemeal enclosure—and this, too, in the very heart, be it remembered, of a busy and crowded capital. But the disposal of the buildings is one thing, their architecture quite another; and my complaint is that in almost every case the architecture has ruined a general plan which is really admirable considering the special circumstances. The American architect in Chicago, it is said, succeeded by frankly copying old models; with him there was no endeavor to originate, to create. The French architect, on the contrary, has seized with delight upon the opportunity presented by buildings that are to be pulled down as quickly as they were put up, to experiment, to venture upon entirely novel and original departures. Besides, his standpoint is altogether different. He, at least, never forgets that the Exposition, whatever else it may or may not be, is a world's fair, and gayety is his principal object. But there can be unity even in experiment, and gayety can be obtained by more legitimate means than a debauch of stucco. As you wander from big building to big building, you begin to believe there is something in Ruskin's definition of architecture as "the art which so disposes and adorns the edifices raised by man *for whatever uses* that the sight of them contributes to his mental health, power, and pleasure." It is a relief to leave the colossal palaces, upon which so much energy has been misspent, for some of the smaller foreign pavilions, or an occasional building like that in which the P. and O. Steamship Company have their offices, where the architect has relied for his effect solely upon a good design and appropriate decoration.

It seems as if with the French architect, as with the French painter and sculptor, the more deliberately he strives after originality, the more persistently it eludes him. Like the painter and the sculptor, he is thorough master of his trade. He is always an accomplished craftsman. There are some things that he (and let me class with him the French engineer as well) can do better than most other men. Look at the new bridge and the new avenue so nobly completed by the Invalides; look at the stairway, with its curving flights, in the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts; at the spring and arching of the roof in the great Salle des Fêtes. These are marvels that prove his knowledge and his skill. But the creative, the highest power of all, is, for the time, at any rate, beyond his reach. The study of the architecture of the Exposition is interesting because it explains both his merits and his shortcomings as clearly as the collections in the buildings of his designing show the present condition of the other arts in France. It is a fact, not easily to be denied, that while the perfect craftsman is found everywhere, the creator or genius at the century's end is rare in any art. N. N.

CHUQUET'S ALSACE IN 1814.

PARIS, June 14, 1900.

'L'Alsace en 1814' is the new volume added by M. Arthur Chuquet to the already large series of volumes which he publishes under the general title of "The Wars of the Revolution." It is, in fact, a separate subject, as the volumes of the "Wars of the Revolution" extend only from the first Prussian invasion to the struggle for Alsace, Valenciennes, and Hondschoote. M. Chuquet jumps over a long period to arrive at 1814, and deals with a subject which belongs to the Empire; but the Empire may well be considered as a continuation of the Revolution. The personality of Napoleon is such that the historian passes lightly over incidents in which he took no prominent part. The campaign of 1814 is well known; never did Napoleon show more military genius; never did he use with more boldness and skill the resources which were still at his disposal. The interest of M. Chuquet's book is almost independent of Napoleon. Alsace was a lateral field, so to speak, in the great struggle which took place; but it was not an unimportant field. M. Chuquet gives us very curious and interesting details regarding the situation in Alsace at the end of 1813; the campaign of Victor, the siege of the fortified places, and the conduct of their governors; the attitude of their garrisons towards the Bourbons; the siege of Huningue, which he pronounces to have been more heroic in 1814 than it was afterwards in 1815 (this siege was chosen as the subject of one of the finest pictures of Detaille, our great war painter. He represents the coming out of the garrison after the capitulation). Though Phalsbourg and Bitche really belong to Lorraine, these two fortified posts are so near Alsace that M. Chuquet has given a place to their defence in his book, thus adding not inglorious pages to the history of the resistance which France offered in 1814 to the invasion of its territory by the Allies.

The numerical inferiority of the French armies in the campaign of 1814 was such that the Allies, said Ney, could have reached Paris in a few days if they had dared to do so. For a campaign in which Napoleon showed himself more audacious than ever, he had, to confront the deep columns of the Allies, a thin line of battle. He filled his regiments with conscripts, 120,000 of whom belonged to the class or annual levy of 1814 and to the anterior classes, and 160,000 were called in advance from the class of 1815. Napoleon had no idea that the Allies would attack him by way of Alsace. "It would be madness," said he. In his opinion the Allies would attack by way of Belgium. He thought that Alsace could be sufficiently protected by national guards; he left little artillery in Strasbourg, and sent all the guns he could to Metz and to Lille. He gave orders, however, that the national guards of Alsace should form legions for active service and belong to the regular army.

The sentiments of the Alsatians were not doubtful. Alsace, still German in language, as in its popular habits, was intensely French in feeling. The fusion with France dated from the Revolution. "After 1789," says M. Chuquet, "she united her destinies to those of France. . . . Her children fought under the French flag for the triumph of liberty and equality, they signed the treaty of alliance with their blood. Alsace was proud of being a part of the *grande nation*, and its vanguard." An Alsatian poet, Hartmann, says, "The triumphal crown of the French armies bears many gems which were conquered by Alsatian hands," and he cites Kléber, Lefebvre, Kellermann, Rapp, Walther, Berchheim, Schaal, Beurmann, Schramm. "Our valley has produced many a hero, from the head of the army to the corporal." In a report written after the return of the Bourbons, the Chevalier de la Salle, royal commissioner, writes in 1815, "This province is as French as the oldest provinces of the monarchy." After the disasters of 1812, Strasbourg and all the Alsatian cities equipped at their own expense a force of cavalry and guards of honor. Ministers, generals, prefects showed the greatest activity in their efforts to prepare the means of resistance in Alsace; the fortified places all made ready for a siege. Blücher and Gneisenau were in favor of a prompt offensive; they wished to cross the Rhine, and to push on directly to Paris, by way of Metz and Verdun. Schwarzenberg was more calm and methodical; he felt a sort of fear of entering the territory of France. He wished at any rate to be well supported on all sides. He wanted to occupy Switzerland before beginning an offensive campaign; in his eyes it would have been an unpardonable sin not to do so. To enter France through Switzerland was the way to turn the fortresses of the Rhine. Radetzky, his chief of staff, defended his opinions, as Gneisenau defended the theory of Blücher; he considered the strategical line of offence of the Allies to extend from Holland to Switzerland, and looked upon Switzerland as the key to France. The Tsar objected that Switzerland was neutral, but had not Switzerland already sent some regiments to France? Finally, it was agreed that an army of the North, under the orders or Bernadotte, should enter Holland; that Blücher's army, called the Silesian army, should cross the Rhine between Mainz and Ehrenbreitstein; that Schwarzenberg's, or the Bohemian army or grand army, should cross the Rhine at Bâle, Lauterburg, and Schaffhausen, and advance towards Neuchâtel and Langres. The two armies of Silesia and Bohemia were to concentrate on the plateau of Langres, a very important position, as the point from which flow three rivers towards three different seas.

Schwarzenberg developed his front over an enormous area, in this not following the strategy of Napoleon, who was always in favor of rapid concentration. He lost in reality much time. He entered the Swiss territory on the 21st of December, the federal troops offering no resistance. The grand army crossed the Rhine at Bâle, and the sacred territory, as Napoleon called the French territory, was immediately invaded. Wrede entered Alsace with five divisions, three Bavarian and two Austrian. He had to watch Belfort and the valley of the Rhine. On the 22d of December he invested Huningue, sent one division towards Belfort, another towards Porrentruy. The Allies, said Rechberg, the commander of this division, wished only for peace; it was very painful for him who, a year before, was in the grand army of Napoleon, and who had had his feet frozen in Russia, to appear now as the enemy of France and

of the Emperor. This did not prevent him from making enormous requisitions.

The allied forces easily seized the castle of Blamont, sixty kilometres from Besançon, the only fortified place between Belfort and the fort of Joux; as well as Landskron, which is near Huningue, on the summit of the Blauen, one of the last ramifications of the Jura. The French had the advantage in two engagements fought at Sainte-Croix, a large village on the road between Bâle and Colmar, at a short distance from Colmar. Victor, Duke of Belluna, who was charged with the defence in the east of France, expected to be reinforced by Marmont, Duke of Ragusa, and thus to be able to turn Wrede out of Alsace. But the Tsar was at Rastadt, with a corps of 40,000 men, and on the point of crossing the Rhine. He crossed it only on the 13th of January, as he wished that the crossing should take place on the first day of the Russian year. The arrival of the Russians changed the situation. Wittgenstein took Fort Vauban, the former Fort Louis, seven leagues from Strasbourg, on an island of the Rhine, and almost defenceless. The French fell back on the Vosges. Ségur was in the rear guard; on the 4th of January he entered Reichshoffen, a name which received in 1870 a terrible notoriety. He marched on Saverne, and crossed the Vosges in the night of the 6th of January. He was accompanied to the end by brave Alsatians, who formed for him a guard of honor. "My regiment," he wrote in his report, "marches well, and takes good care of itself; I have not left a man behind me in nine days."

Marshal Victor retreated on Raon-l'Étape and Baccarat by the Celles valley. He was followed up by the Russians, and had to go to Lunéville. The retreat had fairly begun, and the allied armies in Alsace and Lorraine had nothing to do but to make sieges. Even the passes of the Vosges were not defended. In vain did Napoleon send orders for the organization of new divisions in Alsace; at the very time he was dictating them, the Allies were massing their forces before Colmar, and Victor was in full retreat. The anger of Napoleon fell upon him. He may perhaps have retarded the movements of the enemy, but his old audacity was gone; he was discouraged and fatigued. He had only 18,000 men in hand, and with such a force, how could he defend Alsace and the line of the Vosges against overwhelming and constantly increasing armies?

The close of M. Chuquet's interesting volume is full of details concerning the occupation of Alsace by the Allies, and their operations against the fortresses, which, one by one, fell into their hands. The new administration of Alsace by military governors was a series of requisitions. M. Chuquet cites a place, named Blotzheim, which was one of the *étapes* on the military road from Bâle to Troyes, and which, from the 22d of December, 1813, to the 29th of June, 1814, had to lodge 63,807 officers, to receive 32,620 horses, and eleven headquarters. The people of Alsace were kept in absolute ignorance of the operations of the campaign which was fought on the other side of the Vosges. They hoped at times that Napoleon would suddenly make his appearance, and succeed in cutting the communications of the Allies in the east. The little garrisons left in the fortresses were yet more ignorant than the population of the plains; even after the abdication of Napoleon and the restoration of the Bourbons, the governors of some fortresses refused to capitulate and to obey any orders but those of the legal government. The story of these small sieges is a very honorable page in the annals of Alsace. The resistance of the fortresses of Brisach, Huningue, Belfort, Landau, etc., was carried as far as it possibly could be under the most unfavorable circumstances.

Correspondence.

CHARLESTON AND PORT ROYAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reply to Mr. J. C. Hemphill's letter in the *Nation* of June 7, permit us to say that any of your readers who may happen to be in Charleston, and at the same time to be impelled by a sense of curiosity to wend his way through the quiet streets to the generally empty wharves of the city, will be able to count all foreign-going vessels on the fingers of his left hand. For this decadence of its commerce reference is made to the official report of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., for 1899, page 1546, from which it appears that the number of vessels cleared in 1878 for foreign ports was 483, and that this number has dwindled from year to year until in 1898 the number was reduced to 86.

Gazing towards the east, the stranger will discern in the distance a very small island, Castle Pinckney, devoid of vegetation, even so much as a tree whereunder to seek a grateful shade from the sun's rays in this semi-tropical clime. Partly surrounded by marsh, barren, uninviting, and repellent, is this spot which the people of Charleston are desirous that the Government should occupy as a sanatorium.

From the same vantage-ground, gazing towards the south, the line of the jetties is discernible. These, with other improvements to the harbor of Charleston, have, according to the report of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., for 1899, page 1543, cost the Government, up to June 30, 1899, $4,037,256.70. Major Ruffner of the Engineer Corps estimates that it would require an additional $2,408,552 (vide report as above, p. 1551) to secure a channel depth of twenty-six feet at low water from Charleston to the ocean. The non-utility of this harbor, notwithstanding this great expenditure, was made evident during the Spanish war, when the transport *Yale* and cruiser *Columbia* were ordered to Charleston to embark troops for Cuba. Not being able to enter the harbor, these vessels had to lie at sea, and the troops to be sent on board in barges (*vide* annual report for 1889 of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., page 1550).

To the north across the river will be observed a stretch of land extending along the eastern shore, and should the stranger's curiosity prompt an inquiry, a truthful person would inform him that during the malarial or summer season few, if any, white people can live in that neighborhood. This is the location where the Charleston people want a navy yard established in place of the health-giving locality of Port Royal.

But the real question at issue is, as to whether the naval station at Port Royal should or should not be practically abandoned and removed from a superior to a much inferior port, like that of Charleston? In denying the wisdom of such a removal we make the following assertions, as of well-known facts: That the dry dock at Port Royal is the most valuable timber dock on the Atlantic Coast; that it is commodious enough to hold safely the largest vessel in our navy; that in proof thereof the *Indiana*, one of our largest battle-ships, was successfully docked at Port Royal, without a mishap; that no structural weakness has developed in the dock since it was built; that the foundation of the dock is unusually firm and solid, as shown by a recent test of a pressure of 200 tons to 140 superficial feet with a depression of but three-sixteenths of an inch; that the dry dock was built at a less expense to the Government than any other dock erected by it; that the average yearly expenditures for repairs have been less than on any other dock on the Atlantic Coast; that it is in condition to-day to dock successfully the largest vessel in our navy; that the recently built brick and steel shops, with their complement of modern machinery, are capable of making all ordinary repairs to men-of-war; that the officers' quarters are commodious, as are the barracks and hospitals which make up the marines' quarters, and that the administration building, the store-houses, paint-house, coal sheds, electric light and water plants, wharves, roadways, etc., which go toward making up this plant are answering the purpose for which they were intended.

Finally, as regards the harbor of Port Royal, it is superior to any and all on the South Atlantic and Gulf Coasts. There can be no comparison between this royal harbor, within whose confines the whole of the American navy can safely lie at anchor, and the artificial harbor at Charleston. The one is nature's handiwork, and is to-day as it was 340 years ago, when Capt. Ribault first entered it; the other, in a great measure, the handiwork of man, with the aid of dredges and scows, and the yearly raid upon the national Treasury in order to preserve this year the work that was accomplished the previous year.

We contend that, under these circumstances, it would be a crime to transfer the present naval station from Port Royal to Charleston—a crime as involving raids upon the Treasury, as involving a blow at the national defence; a crime against the nation and against posterity.

Beaufort Naval Station Committee.

Beaufort, S. C., June 19, 1900.

[We cannot publish any more letters on this subject.—Ed. Nation.]

ONLY ONE ISSUE IN KENTUCKY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am pretty well in touch with the anti-Goebel party of Kentucky, which comprises, almost without exception, every decent man in the State, whether Democrat or Republican; and I can assure you that "we" are fully satisfied with Gov. Taylor's unwillingness to make himself a martyr and to rot in jail, and we are thankful to Gov. Mount for not delivering him up to his enemies. His act may be revolutionary and a bad precedent, but let us hope that the infamous action of the Goebelites, in first turning the Governor elected by the people out of office, without even the pretence that

he was not elected, and then prosecuting him for murder on trumped-up charges before a packed grand jury (the action which led to Gov. Mount's righteous if unlawful refusal), will not become a precedent for traitors against right and justice in other States.

The Legislature which met in January had a Goebelite majority in both branches. How was it obtained? The tools of the arch-conspirators, though restrained by the fear of the lamppost from throwing out whole Republican counties, cleverly overlooked a few precincts here and there, and refused to count a few informal ballots elsewhere, and thus stole a Senatorship and three seats in the House; and, still finding himself one vote short in the Senate, Mr. Goebel bought it for cash and an office. The Legislature thus constituted unseated Taylor.

The people of Kentucky know of no other issue in this year 1900 than that of righting this wrong. We care nothing for Filipinos or Boers, nothing for tariff or currency, for Expansion or Trusts; we want to restore freedom in our own commonwealth by piling up so big a Republican majority for Governor in November that the three ballot-stealers at Frankfort will not dare to disregard it. If you cannot help us in this matter, Mr. Editor, please stand aloof.

Truly yours, LEWIS N. DEMBITZ.

LOUISVILLE, KY., June 24, 1900.

IZAAK WALTON'S ANGLER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I shall be much obliged if you will allow me to ask, through your columns, for reports of perfect or imperfect copies of the first edition of the 'Compleat Angler' (1653).

Yours, faithfully, R. B. MARSTON.

ST. DUNSTAN'S HOUSE, FETTER LANE, LONDON, E. C., June 15, 1900.

'TOMMY AND GRIZEL.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is there any way of putting a tourniquet on an author to prevent his bleeding to death in a serial? Surely Mr. Barrie needs such treatment in the case of 'Tommy and Grizel.' Sentimental Tommy has from the start been to many of us a disagreeably sappy youngster—a kind of Scotch Little Lord Fauntleroy, in tartans and unbreeched. But we used to fancy that Mr. Barrie had "caught him young enough" to make something worth while out of him. 'Tommy and Grizel' has destroyed any such vain expectations. Moreover, it has also destroyed the fond illusions of the really ardent admirers of Tommy, who used to fancy that Tommy was Mr. Barrie himself in his prehistoric periods. No reader of 'Tommy and Grizel' can hold to this theory; for we all know that Mr. Barrie is a sweet and healthy and simple-minded Scotchman, whereas Tommy is fast becoming a monster of sappy self-consciousness, priggishness, and poltroonery, whose only "finish" should be a sanitarium. Every one remembers Oliver Wendell Holmes's asylum for decayed punsters. Let us have as well an asylum for used-up characters in fiction, and let Mr. Barrie be urged to commit Tommy to it promptly. Nobody doubts that Mr. Barrie has a very pretty genius for sentimental garrulity; he is a kind of nineteenth-century Sterne, warranted safe for misses in their teens. Can't he be persuaded to put an end to Tommy in three chapters and an epilogue, and then to turn back to his 'Auld Licht Idylls' or 'When a Man's Single'? As for Grizel, doubtless she was studied from life and Mr. Barrie has already married her; at any rate, the naïve reader may be permitted to hope so.—Yours very truly,

LEWIS E. GATES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 21, 1900.

Notes.

'Familiar Fish, their Habits and Capture,' about to be brought out by D. Appleton & Co., will have an introduction supplied by President Jordan of Leland Stanford Junior University.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will shortly publish a biography of Joel Dorman Steele, the well-known teacher and text-book maker, composed by Mrs. George Archibald.

A reprint of Mrs. Gaskell's 'Life of Charlotte Brontë' is not out of place in the "Haworth Edition" of the "Life and Works of the Sisters Brontë" (Harpers). This is the more evident when one considers the number of letters and conversations (principally Charlotte's) which this memoir contains. In the present edition, material of the sort is sensibly increased by Mr. Clement K. Shorter's notes, who, for this volume, supplants Mrs. Humphry Ward as editor. It cannot be said, however, that his annotations add much except in the way of biographical and chronological accuracy, though some of Charlotte's letters to her publisher are both new and interesting. But Mr. Shorter had, of course, already exhausted the main interest of his special Brontë studies in 'Charlotte Brontë and her Circle.' He himself modestly explains his present function as that of simply introducing afresh a charming biography, which remains, after all that minute research has since discovered, its own excuse for being.

A revised edition of Captain Eardley-Wilmot's book, 'The Development of Navies during the Last Half-Century,' reviewed in these columns, has been imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, and is now entitled 'Our Fleet To-day, and Its Development during the Last Half-Century.' The changes are mainly the elimination of the chapters on foreign navies contained in the previous publication, thus confining the scope to a description of the British Navy as it is, and adding a chapter upon the lessons of recent naval wars. Of course our late Spanish war occupies a large part of this chapter, and the author seems to have a just idea of what was done, and where the merit especially might be found. Unlike those who of late seem to desire to depreciate the victor and victory at Manila Bay, he remarks with good judgment that it was for the operations preceding this fight that Dewey should receive the highest commendation. The entry into Manila Bay, with its boldness in conception and promptness of execution and personal leadership, is what stamps the Admiral's greatness. As to the defects in the naval campaign in the West Indies, the author does well to call attention to the fact that successful war at sea, as on land, depends much on efficient scouting, and this cannot be achieved without adequate numbers. This little volume has been improved by revision, and will be found to be a good handbook of the British Navy.

A life of 'Stephen Decatur' appears as one of the handy Beacon Biographies of Eminent Americans published by Small, Maynard & Co. of Boston. It is by the Rev. Cyrus Townsend Brady, a clergyman who is a graduate of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and, previous to his taking orders in the church, served in the navy. It is consequently not wholly strange to find that Mr. Brady has produced an excellent memoir of the American seaman who, ranking with Paul Jones and Farragut, is distinguished from both of these naval heroes by being more characteristically American in birth and lineage than Farragut, while Paul Jones's career touched America as one only of several countries under whose flag he served. Decatur is to our mind more nearly the Nelson of the navy of the United States than any other officer, and, while superior in personal character to Nelson, he certainly lacked none of his personal bravery and professional skill as a ship commander. Denied the opportunity afforded Nelson as a fleet commander and strategist, the comparison cannot be carried further. We can cordially commend the little volume to those who wish to refresh their memories, or to make an immediate acquaintance with a man who gave us a high standard of what an officer of the navy of the United States should be in peace and war.

Mr. Bernard Bosanquet's 'Education of the Young in Plato's Republic' (Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press; New York: Macmillan) is a translation of the greater part of the second and of the whole of the third and fourth books of Plato's immortal dialogue, with an introductory essay on Greek education and a considerable number of simple and helpful footnotes. It is a gallant attempt to render the reforming wisdom of the Athenian aristocrat acceptable and intelligible to a modern democracy, and as such is deserving of all success, even though we may feel that the educational ideal which seemed best for a leisured class dedicated solely to war and politics, and never destined to be industrially productive, requires to be materially modified in the case of those who have to learn how to make their living under the complex conditions of modern society.

The series of "Oxford Classical Texts" now issuing from the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde), can hardly receive too high praise; except for the price, the volumes may be called luxurious. The typography, paper, and margins leave practically nothing to be desired; the various readings and emendations are conveniently placed at the foot of the page. They are edited by scholars of distinction, and of special study and fitness in the work each has undertaken. The latest additions to the Greek texts are Æschylus by Sidgwick, the 'Argonautica' of Apollonius Rhodius by Seaton, and a first volume of Aristophanes by F. W. Hall and W. M. Geldart. The first volume issued of the works of Xenophon is the 'Hellenica,' by E. C. Marchant. Simultaneously appears as a companion to this text 'A Commentary on the Hellenica of Xenophon,' by C. E. Underhill, which discusses minutely points of chronology and history, as well as the curious problem of the origin of the work, and the source of its inconsistencies and inequalities.

Eveleen Harrison's 'Home Nursing; Modern Scientific Methods for the Care of the Sick' (Macmillan), gives in a condensed, clear, and readable form suggestions which

in the main are excellent for the purpose designated. It seems to have been written by one who has herself had good training as a nurse; and for those to whom it is addressed—namely, such persons as are beyond the reach of the daily visit from a good physician—the advice given is wholesome and helpful. The objection to the book is one which it shares in common with all treatises on household medicine, that at times it trenches too far on the province of the doctor, making statements which might lead the patient now and then to avoid sending for the medical attendant at a time when the responsibility should be in his hands only.

The remarkable function assigned in August, 1373, by the Signoria of Florence to Boccaccio, of public lecturer on Dante, bore fruit, as is well known, in the commentary which was cut short at the 17th canto of the "Inferno" by Boccaccio's death in January, 1374. Along with its preëminent merits this commentary had the usual characteristic of its class, prolixity and discursiveness. It has occurred to Prof. O. Zenatti to extract from the mass narratives, lively anecdote, descriptions of persons and places, moral considerations, and like matter of permanent worth and interest. Hence a not large volume, 'Giovanni Boccaccio: Dal Commento sopra la Commedia di Dante: Letture Scelte' (Rome: Dante Publishing Society). This pious labor is commended as a manual of school reading.

The 'Anatolische Landwirthschaft,' by Richard Herrmann (Leipzig: Grunow), is a book quite out of the ordinary in the multitude of Oriental works of the present day. It treats, not of the past, but rather of the present and the future possibilities of Anatolia. The author, formerly a professor in the Agricultural College in Bonn, has for six years been the "Kulturinspector" of the Anatolian Railroad, with the special purpose of investigating the economic and agricultural condition of the territory opened up by this new enterprise; his mission including also the instruction of the Turkish farmers in better methods and manners. His report of what he saw and accomplished is very favorable; he believes the Turks will be apt pupils, should agricultural colonies from Europe take possession of this farming land.

'La Grèce Antique: Entretiens sur les Origines et les Croyances,' by André Lefèvre (Paris: Schleicher Frères), is an appreciative study of the early ages of Greek development. Attention is directed primarily to Homer and Hesiod, and in connection with the former an interesting section describes the various manuscripts and palimpsests of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey.' The tone of the book is conversational, and the spirit of the Homeric poems is entered into with especial enthusiasm and affection. Unfortunately, much space is taken up in establishing the origin and nature of the several deities, and a great deal of ingenuity is expended on philological and symbolical explanations of myths. This is dangerous and uncertain ground. Prof. Lefèvre also finds many interesting suggestions of relationship between the Hellenic and the Hindu, Assyrian, and Egyptian divinities. He is a great admirer of the Homeric religion, with its quiet fatalism and simple resignation. "These are very rare moments in history—these periods of accord between religions and that complex of experience and prejudices called common sense." The work is the more interesting because of its apt and spirited renderings of representative passages in Homer and Hesiod.

It is announced that the *Popular Science Monthly*, established by the Appletons in 1872, has passed into the hands of McClure, Phillips & Co., under the conduct of Prof. James McKeen Cattell of Columbia University, also editor of *Science*.

In the April number of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston) will be found a clear photoprint of the John Robinson tablet set nine years ago in the front wall of St. Peter's, the Lutheran Cathedral Church of Leyden; with some account of the dedication exercises. In the same number, under the heading "The *Mayflower* Genealogies," Mr. George Ernest Bowman gives an alphabetic exhibition of the "vital statistics of the *Mayflower* passengers." The authority for each particular of parentage, birth, marriage and death is reserved for the family genealogies to which this list serves as a prodrome.

Prof. W. Dilthey of the University of Berlin contributes to the June *Rundschau* a first article on the Berlin Academy, "Die Berliner Akademie der Wissenschaften, ihre Vergangenheit und ihre gegenwärtigen Aufgaben." Coming fresh from the reading of Harnack's recent monumental history of the Academy, the writer is prompted to arrange his comments and his own thoughts on the subject in the form of an historical retrospect. He describes the birth of the institution through the plannings and activity of Leibnitz—to whom the greater and most interesting part of the essay is devoted—and leaves himself little space for an account of its wretched existence under the first two Prussian kings. But one almost wonders at Professor Dilthey's courage in recalling even the few revolting instances of the humiliation to which the so-called Academy was subjected by the brutality of Frederick William the First.

Two articles in *Hochschul-Nachrichten* for May relate to phases of the strife between the different types of educational institutions in Germany—a matter of more than local interest in view of the changing social conditions which are at the bottom of it. In the first, Prof. Klein, the mathematician of Göttingen, defends himself against Professor Slaby of Charlottenburg, who, for the first time, represents the technical high schools in the Prussian Herrenhaus, and there accused Professor Klein of transgressing his functions as university professor to the prejudice of the technical schools. The second is from the pen of Oberbürgermeister Dr. Adickes of Frankfurt, who justifies the demand for the admission of graduates from the Realgymnasia to the legal career. Both these men are in accord with the past in their respect for knowledge and culture for their own sakes, the one being distinguished in pure mathematics, the other as a highly cultured jurist; both, on the other hand, are *new* men in that they believe that adaptation to the practical wants of humanity cannot derogate from the dignity of any man, science, or institution.

The University of Birmingham, which received its charter of incorporation on the last day of May, differs in some important respects from the other English universities. The most striking innovation is the attempt to grapple with the problem of commercial education by placing side by side with the faculties of Science, Arts, and Medicine a Faculty of Commerce. With the view of preventing the University from degenerating into a mere teaching and examining machine, provision is made in the charter that it "shall further the provision of original research in all its branches." Another provision, which bears a truly mediæval character, is that by which the "Guild of Undergraduates" will elect three members to the supreme governing body. Power is given to admit women to the medical as to the other faculties, and to seats on the governing bodies.

The annual report of Mr. W. E. Foster of the Providence Public Library gives in the appendices the usual careful analysis of the library work for the past year. It is significant of the trend of public interest that the class of books having the largest number of accessions was social science. Attention is directed to the need of a more liberal financial support on the part of the city, now that the new building removes many of the restrictions which heretofore have hampered the library's work and impaired its usefulness. An interesting feature of this work, not mentioned in the report, is that in connection with the children and the schools. There is provided, not only a children's reading-room, but an apartment designed for the use of school-teachers and their classes for the study of special subjects. Here, on a day's notice being given, a teacher desirous of instructing her class on some topic, as in art, history, or geography, will find the library's collection of books on this subject. This is perhaps the most advanced development of the coöperation of the library and school, first publicly advocated in this country, if we are not mistaken, nearly twenty-five years ago at Quincy, Mass., by Charles Francis Adams, the younger.

—Among the cadets just graduated at West Point, Pillsbury, born in Massachusetts, stood highest in class rank—and he is the only native of that State who has gained that honor since 1879. His name has appeared in countless newspapers, and in the Army Register will fill the first line of the page which forms its terse chronicle year by year of distinguished cadets. The provenance of each individual cadet who has been thus first among the foremost in each former year becomes a matter of special interest because West Point is, beyond all other institutions, characteristic of our nationality, having from the outset had a proportional representation from every State. The origin, however, of those cadets who were preëminent in early classes is not now ascertainable. Graduates were sent forth in 1802 and onward, but no class rank was established till 1818. In that year Delafield, of New York birth, was the first recorded leader of the five most distinguished cadets. Within the sixteen previous years one hundred and seventy-nine cadets had graduated, but not one of them was officially graded. In Gen. Cullum's three heavy biographical tomes of West Pointers, the birthplaces of the seventy-three foremost cadets from 1818 to 1890, inclusive of both, are indicated, but no two of these places are set down together, or so that they can be detected and coördinated without something of research; yet in gathering them up and classifying them, we reach results that pay for our pains, being surprising and puzzling as well.

—The Army Register during most years

of the last decade does not tell where the most distinguished cadets were born, but only the State from which they were appointed. We will, however, piece out its imperfections in this particular from the annual catalogues of the Military Academy itself. Thus our résumé will proceed throughout on the same basis with that of Gen. Cullum regarding all previous periods. A census drawn up according to States from which cadets were appointed would differ considerably from one made according to birth-States. Thus, no cadet appointed from Illinois has ever stood at the head of his class, but one born there and appointed from Washington was the first winner of that laurel for that State and for the Pacific Slope. So the only cadet of Iowa appointment who has stood in the highest place was born in Wisconsin. One of Pennsylvania's best men was born in New Jersey, etc. Of the eighty-three military valedictorians, one was born in Italy, one in Sweden, two at sea, and three in the District of Columbia. The other seventy-six originated as follows: Fourteen were born in Massachusetts, eleven in New York, eight in Pennsylvania, six in Connecticut, five in Ohio (one of them Carter, now in Leavenworth military prison), four in New Jersey and four in North Carolina, three in Maryland; ten in Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Michigan, and Wisconsin—two in each. The residue of eleven called their mother States Vermont, Rhode Island, Delaware, Tennessee, Missouri, Mississippi, Louisiana, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Oregon. In only twenty-four States was any coryphæus born, while more than half of all those State-born originated in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York and Pennsylvania. Only four of the seceding States had a son who stood foremost of the five to whom alone the name "distinguished" is accorded by the Academy—namely, North Carolina four, Virginia two, Mississippi and Louisiana each one; eight in all.

—Books on the Boer war continue thick as the leaves of Vallombrosa. Of the latest, the most generally serviceable is E. A. Pratt's 'Leading Points in South African History, 1486 to March 30, 1900' (London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). The sub-title at once betrays the weak point of a book otherwise well conceived. The chronological recital of events, accompanied by terse explanatory notes, gives quick acquaintance with an extremely confused local history; but its value is lessened when it is brought down to date by extracts from war dispatches of doubtful authenticity. Had the book ended with the condemnation of the Jameson Raiders, it might have been cordially recommended; but what has since happened is too much in dispute to be summarized in this ex-parte fashion. For the uncontroverted period of South African history, we recommend it as giving a very full summary, particularly of the transactions with the natives. In these dealings, it is doubtful which race was the more unscrupulous. The record is singularly like that of our relations with the Indian tribes—a pushing frontier population; the acquisition of lands by pioneers; quarrels with the blacks; a local war, a protectorate, a treaty, an insurrection and annexation. The Dutch appear to have been more brutal in their methods, but the English to have acquired the most territory. The contrast noted by Mr. Dooley between French and English diplomacy is confirmed by the dispassionate recitals of these affairs, in which the Dutch were always on the point of consummating a burglary, when the pious English appeared to chastise them and appropriate the "swag" for their moral discipline.

—'On the Eve of the War,' by Evelyn Cecil, M.P. (London: John Murray; New York: Scribners), is chiefly notable for some agreeable photogravures of scenery, buildings, and portrait groups in the Transvaal, Free State, and Natal. The text is of slight consequence. The author was on the scene but a month before the war; and while he honestly endeavors to relate what he saw and heard, he drifts helplessly off into argument of the controversy—all hearsay, and much better done elsewhere. Mr. John Hays Hammond's brief address on 'The Transvaal Trouble' (New York: The Abbey Press) is not open to the objection that it states hearsay only—Mr. Hammond is first-class authority for the Uitlanders; but he says nothing that Fitzpatrick and other writers have not said with greater apparent fairness and much less evident temper.

—This is an age of iconoclasm, in which the critic busies himself in revealing the clay feet of brazen idols. The latest exploit of this kind is that performed by the Benedictine Henri Quentin in his volume entitled 'Jean-Dominique Mansi et les grandes Collections Conciliaires' (Paris: Leroux)—a work to be read with profit by all students who recognize the indispensable importance to the history of civilization and religion of the long series of assemblies through which the Church has formulated its dogmas and developed its discipline, has anathematized its enemies and regulated the aspirations of its children. In this connection the name of Mansi has been virtually a fetish, and scholars have almost hesitated to make references to any collection of Councils save his "Amplissima Collectio," although its thirty-one folios end in the middle of the Council of Florence in 1438 and it never was completed; the patience of subscribers having been exhausted during the forty years consumed in its publication from 1759 to 1798. Père Quentin gives a rapid critical estimate of all the successive collections, from the modest one in two folios issued by Jacques Merlin in 1524, through those of Crabbe, Surius, Bini, the Roman one of 1612, the 'Collectio Regia' of 1644, Labbe and Cossart, Hardouin, and the Venice edition of Labbe enlarged by Coleti, until finally he devotes special attention to the Supplement to the latter in six volumes, edited by Mansi, and still more particularly to Mansi's "Amplissima." The result of this somewhat minute investigation into details is badly to shatter, if not wholly to destroy, Mansi's reputation as an editor. He is shown to have been sadly deficient in critical faculty, and to have done little more than throw together, as with a pitchfork, the labors of previous scholars, with so little care and method that, in the volumes devoted to the Council of Basel, documents are repeated twice, thrice, and even four times, while elsewhere important omissions occur of material that lay ready to the compiler's hand, and everywhere there is lack of critical revision and collation of sources. Mansi was learned and laborious, but when we are told that his name figures on the title-pages of ninety folios, not to mention quartos, and that during his later years he had the cares of his archbishopric of Lucca, it is easy to see how impossible it was for him to exercise the minute and scrupulous accuracy without which his labors were well-nigh valueless. Père Quentin concludes his dissertation with a fervent prayer, in which all students will join, that some band of competent scholars may unite to produce a complete and thoroughly trustworthy collection, furnished with the requisite apparatus—a work which is manifestly beyond the capacity of any individual, however gifted.

PAYNE'S NEW WORLD.

History of the New World Called America. By Edward John Payne, Fellow of University College. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 8vo, pp. xxvii, 548.

An historical production in which facts are used only as substratum, and the rest is all reflection or even speculation, offers peculiarly attractive reading when the work is composed in the right spirit. Among such we may count this 'History of the New World Called America.' It is by no means a repetition of ideas on America emitted by previous historians, essayists, or other authors, but evinces original thought, and often deep reflection, throughout. While Payne's first volume (1892) dealt with geography and the history of discovery and exploration of early America, and the social condition in which the aborigines were found, its successor is prevailingly ethnological, its main purpose being to sketch the evolution of American tribes, peoples, and communities in their physical and mental nature, in their occupations, migrations, peaceful and warlike pursuits, and cultural tendencies; also in what may yield the most profound insight into the psychic development of a nation, their languages.

The discussion of linguistic subjects occupies a large share of the volume, and we will accordingly take up this part first. Speaking of the adjective, Payne states "that it is rarely a prominent feature in American languages, and in many is not definitely recognizable as a part of speech. Thus, the Iroquois and Algonquin have no true adjectives, but merely attributive particles." Indeed, Cuoq states that in the Mohawk, of which he wrote a grammar, there are only three real adjectives, *great*, *small*, and *good*, and in most Algonquin and other American languages the adjective remains without inflection, being employed as an adverb. But Payne should remember the fact, that whenever the adjective is used predicatively, it becomes an attributive verb, for it is then connected with a suffix having the power of a substantive verb of *being*. These attributive verbs are very prominent features in American languages, as in Algonquinian, Maskokian, and Dakotan dialects, but it is often difficult to distinguish their uninflected adjectives from what we call participles and verbal adjectives.

Specific words greatly predominate over generic terms in the languages of America, and savages may have twenty independent words, each expressing the act of cutting some particular thing, without having any name for the act of cutting in general. This is a remarkable fact, and it is surprising to see how many simple, compound, and holo-

phrastic verbs are used in Algonquin to express the various modes of running, falling, cutting, or eating. As to the lack of generic terms for different objects of nature, *e. g., bird, fish, tree,* it is not so great in American languages as grammarians make it appear.

That the "specific relations of the noun are usually represented by case-endings" is by no means an accurate statement, for a number of extensive linguistic families, such as the Tinné, have no case-endings at all; and in the Algonquin and Iroquois dialects the formation of nominal cases is almost wholly limited to the locatives. As a general fact, it may be stated that, in the tongues spoken on the plains of eastern North and eastern South America, case-declension is deficient or fragmentary, but in the higher regions of the Sierra Nevada, Rocky Mountains, and the Andes, languages are well provided with case-forms. What our author says about conjunctions being generally syllables of indefinite meaning, has to be supplemented by the fact that many of our conjunctions are rendered in American languages by temporal, causal, local, and other suffixes to the verb, and form what is called *verbals.* For many of these verbals new terms have to be invented, for old-world grammatic terminology by no means suffices to express all the grammatical forms in use by the red man of America.

The interesting fact that many alphabetic sounds of English and other European languages are non-existent in more primitive tongues, is discussed in a lengthy chapter by Payne, and explained by the circumstance that such sounds are not easily acquired, or that their origin is an artificial one. The labials *f* and *v* are scarcely known in America, but all the dentals are generally well represented here. In Australia and parts of Africa and Asia the sibilants *s, sh, z, zh* are rejected; the Nahuatl has *z,* but rejects *s* and *sh,* and the various sounds of *l* are more acceptable to the American than those of *r.* In the majority of the American languages *s* and *z* occur simultaneously with the assibilated *sh* and *zh,* and alternate in the same words; *s* and *z* being evidently more archaic than *sh* and *zh.* Payne supposes that the vibratiles, or, as we call them, liquids *(l, r),* being the easiest and most natural consonantic sounds, may be regarded as the earliest group among the "adjustments" (p. 151), and in the lowest stage of speech were probably indistinguishable. The Dakota, Totonac, and Mixtec have rejected both, probably substituting *n* in their place; but, generally speaking, *l* is more frequent upon this continent than *r.*

The question, "Did the American man originate here or did he migrate here from another continent?" Mr. Payne touches upon in his preface (p. 6), in these terms:

"A race distinguished from the inferior animals only by some painful and strenuous form of articulate speech, the possession of rude stone weapons and implements and of the art of fire-kindling, . . . may have lived in the Old and New World in the palæo-ethnic age, . . . and during long ages man roamed over both, as a single œcumenic area. When a geological change had separated them, an intercourse between them became less and less until the American branch of humanity became practically an isolated race, as America itself had become an isolated continent."

From the time when America became separated from the old-world continents, the cultural development, weak as it was at the start, took different lines. This appears, for example, from the difference between the Mexican calendar in Cortez's time and the Asiatic (say Chinese) system of time reckoning. China had known the Metonic cycle of nineteen years, which is built upon a *luni-solar* basis, even before Meton of Athens invented or promulgated it in 432 B. C.; but the Mexican cycle is *solar* only, and belongs to the Western World originally, though some have regarded it as borrowed. This, however, is but one of the points in which early American civilization differed entirely from that of the Eastern world. Since our knowledge of ancient America centres upon a few tribes only, whose culture placed them far above common savages, Payne took special pains to investigate the civil and mental development of the Nahuā (he prefers to call them Nahuatlacâ, *Nahua* = 'Men') and the Kechhua people, without forgetting the Maya of Yucatan and the Chibcha of Bogotá. Before the Spanish conquest of Anahuac, most Mexican tribes described themselves as Chichimecs, and the people of Tlaxcallan especially called themselves Teochichimecâ, or 'Chichimecs of the Sun' (*teotl*). These had advanced, like the other Aculhua tribes, from the "Seven Caves" and Jalisco by way of the Tollan district and the lakes; their peculiar tribal name was derived from the fact that they proposed to discover and occupy Teotlixco = Anahuac, or the 'Land of the water where the sun rises' (*teotl,* or sun, being 'the god,' or 'the god by excellence'), an imaginary land. Some years were passed at Texcuco, and, coming in conflict with the pueblos surrounding them, they crossed the sierra of Tlalocan. In a similar way the author sketches the early history of the other tribes and pueblos of the Mexican plateaus, Tollan, Huexohzinco, Tecpanec, Tezcuco, until the settling of Tenochtitlan gives him a resting-point from which to expatiate further upon the system of Mexican attributes, education, law and justice, and land-distribution.

As to the consolidation of American populations into tribes and compact national bodies, and their formation into distinct settlements, Payne admits that some are much older than others and can still be distinguished as such; these he calls autochthonic, while others are later arrivals. In regard to the lands now known as Mexico, a line may be drawn from the mouth of the Rio Grande to Guadalajara in Jalisco, to the north of which is a congeries of peoples distinct from one another in physical character and language, whereas south of it begin the pueblos of the old, genuine, and relatively unmixed nationalities of the Nahuā, Otomi, Tarasco, Totonac, and others. A mixture of ethnic elements was, however, produced here also by the numerous colonies established from Anahuac in later times among the allophylic peoples, and therefore only the tribes settled east of the isthmus of Tehuantepec, such as Mayas, Guatemaltecs, Costa Ricans, etc., can be called *aboriginal* when compared with those west of this "limit." Mr. Payne is unwilling to admit that the Maya people possessed an indigenous civilization independent of that of the Nahuatlacâ. But this view will meet with considerable opposition among students. If his conclusions are well founded, he says, the Maya monuments and "pinturas" are due to the Toltecs, a branch of the Nahuā, who are regarded "by general consent" as the founders of the higher advancement in this region. These left Tollan for causes no longer distinctly traceable, and, long before Columbus's discovery, spread into Yucatan and Central America. Beyond maize cultivation and some peculiar theological traditions, the Mayas "borrowed everything in their advancement" from the Nahuatlacâ.

The calendar systems of Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America were substantially identical. One of the day-counts, the noctidiurnal birth-cycle, as Payne calls it, was in use at the time of the conquest, and consisted of 13×20 days. The number thirteen was based on the fact that, from an infinite number of higher and lower spirits, in the earliest stage of religion, thirteen greater male and female spirits were recognized in Mexico as gods of superior rank, powers ruling the universe and the sequence of days. Each noctidiurnal cycle consisted of thirteen days, and twenty sequences of this cycle made a calendar period; each day in this cycle once bore a name borrowed from a very old seasonal enumeration of lunations, in use at some previous time. The day-names in this cycle seem to be seasonal names of lunations, as is common among savage nations; their succession seems to point to Anahuac, and the birth-day cycle was known in Mexico as "moon-reckoning," *metzlapohualli.* Another day reckoning that was in use comes pretty close to our year reckoning. It is the *cempoualli,* or twenty-day period repeated eighteen times, and, with the five fatal days *(nemontemi),* reaches a total of 365 days. Payne believes that here the number twenty was suggested by the fingers and toes of the human body. The ordinary civil and religious calendar consisted of four cycles of thirteen, making a great cycle of fifty-two years, called *ahau* by the Maya people. It represents the greatest number of full and new moons occurring in the year. There is nothing to prove that the Inca-Peruvian people possessed a true calendar in which the days and months were numerically adjusted to the solar year. In the chief pueblos the four cardinal points in the sun's course were ascertained by means of the Intihuatana, and at Cuzco the phenomena of the solstice were familiarized by two groups of pillars placed conspicuously on heights to the east and westward, and marking the extreme points of the sun's rising and setting. They had a year of 360 days, understood to be distributed into twelve natural moons of thirty days each, with a name assigned to each moon; they reckoned by the succession of lunations, but had no means to coördinate this reckoning summarily with the succession of years. The names of the sections of the year were taken from agricultural operations in the field, among the Aimará people. As to the calendar of the Chibcha people in Bogotá, Payne considers it a counterfeit dating from a late period, but composed of ancient elements derived from sundry South American nations.

A large number of topics, particularly the formation of the tribe, the clan, early marriage, etc., deserve equally to be mentioned with those we have selected. We must, however, conclude by saying that the two volumes as yet published of Payne's 'History' are a noteworthy instance of what may be accomplished by an Americanist who has never visited this western hemisphere in person, nor seen any of its tribes or ancient monuments, but with marvellous instinct and historic tact has resolved so many of

its secrets from books alone. The sequel will be eagerly awaited.

London to Ladysmith, via Pretoria. By Winston Spencer Churchill. Longmans, Green & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. 496.

Mr. Churchill's experience as a war correspondent had an episode which added much to the romantic character of his army life in South Africa. He was taken prisoner with the detachment on an armored railway train that was derailed and captured by the Boers on November 15. They were reconnoitring from headquarters at Estcourt northward towards the Tugela River, and the enterprising correspondent naturally wished to see what was at the front. He saw more than he bargained for, and had a Boer escort to Pretoria, where he made the acquaintance of Krüger's Secretary of War and other distinguished Afrikanders. He made a daring escape from the military prison, and had an adventurous journey to Delagoa Bay which would make any boy green with envy. Back by sea to Durban, he hastened again to his post at the front, and on the day before Christmas his tent was at the very spot where he had been captured. Meanwhile, Gen. Buller had concentrated there his army corps, had been repulsed at the Tugela River, and was deliberately preparing for another advance. Churchill had not lost much by his excursion to Pretoria. He now got a commission in the volunteer cavalry to save question as to his status if he was captured again in some less absurd reconnoissance than one by rail.

The operations to try a second crossing of the Tugela began on January 11. The plan was to threaten with the right, but to force the crossing at the left, some twenty miles in a bee-line west of Colenso and the railway crossing. Venter's Creek there comes in from the north, and its valley offered a way to turn the Boers' right by taking Spy Knob (Spion Kop), where they were supposed to have an outpost. This was going a long way round, for the crossing at Trichardt's Drift, near the creek's mouth, was nearly twice as far from Ladysmith as Colenso was. The promise to reach the commanding position at the Knob could be made good only by speed, yet a week was spent watching the enemy extending the trenches on the north of the river. On the 18th the column began a leisurely crossing at Trichardt's, with very little opposition, and pontoon bridges were laid. The infantry advanced about two miles and waited till next day. Immense wagon trains also crossed. Nothing at all was done on the 19th. On the 20th an attack was made, but the Knob was no longer an outpost, for the Boers had been given plenty of time to move to their right. The English gained a foothold on the plateau. For two days more the firing was kept up between the lines with no material change. In the night of the 23d Gen. Woodgate's brigade made an assault on the Knob and got a lodgment on it. In the early morning of the 24th the Boers concentrated their fire upon it. Woodgate was wounded and disabled.

It becomes evident at this point that there was no competent direction of the division. Churchill says that he visited in person the scene of action, and went back to Gen. Warren, the division commander, and described the situation. Warren, instead of going himself, sent him back to learn the views of Col. Thorneycroft, who, though a junior officer, had been placed by Buller's order in command on the Knob when it became evident that his senior in the brigade was unequal to it. Thorneycroft, who had received no messages from Warren before, now, in the night of the 24th, thought it too late to make the position tenable, and it was abandoned. If Churchill's description of events is accurate, it is no wonder that Lord Roberts condemned the generalship of the battle. On the 24th Mr. Pearse at Ladysmith had seen the Boer wagons trekking away towards the pass in the northwest, and believed their retreat had begun. It is hard to believe that proper energy by Gen. Warren on that day would not have made success complete; and Buller, in the crisis, should have applied the energy himself if Warren failed. Spion Kop should have been made impregnable before daybreak after its capture. Thorneycroft held it all through the following day, and still he was not reinforced, nor connection made with his flanks. When the Knob was abandoned, Buller went over the river in person to manage the retreat, but it would have been better if he had been there to give system and energy to the attack.

The action at Vaal Krantz on February 5 is described as being similar in its leisurely beginning, its partial success, and the failure to follow it up. The final turning of the Boer position at the end of February was by the English right, after their capture of the commanding ridge of Monte Christo; but we cannot ignore the fact that this was after Lord Roberts's advance into the Orange Free State had drawn away a considerable part of the Boer army about Ladysmith, and made the raising of the siege a foregone conclusion.

The campaign under Buller, judged from Mr. Churchill's narrative (which tries to be friendly), was marked by a deliberation in planning and a sluggishness in execution so extreme as to take away from it all energetic aggressiveness, and to give to the mobile army of Boers abundant time and opportunity to plant themselves in strong positions and intrench in front of each new movement of the British. The forces under Buller, with those in Gen. White's garrison, were at all times far superior to the enemy in numbers. Cipher communication by heliograph and search-light telegraphy was constant between the two English commanders, yet they seem never to have coöperated in a common effort, although the distance between them was less than the length of the lines of either army, and those of the Boers extended with practical continuity from White to Buller. As commander-in-chief, Buller does not appear to have attempted any well-conceived simultaneous operation by his two wings upon the weaker force of the Boers which lay between. It is not so strange that the Boers contented themselves with defensive tactics after their offensive strategy had carried the war beyond their own borders into Natal. The necessity of economy in the use of their smaller numbers, with the unfitness of their irregular organizations for battle tactics on a large scale, combined to dictate the policy which they pursued.

It is pleasant to note that Mr. Churchill, while he was prisoner, found even the least cultivated of the Veldt Boers free from personal hate, and considerately kind in their treatment of him. They seemed to him good honest farmers, anxious to end the war and get back to their families and their fields if they might do so in the national independence on which they had set their hearts. It was human nature that they should underrate the rights of Uitlanders and of black Africans, and stick for the complete dominance of the Dutch settlers in what they consider their own country.

North American Forests and Forestry. Their Relations to the National Life of the American People. By Ernest Bruncken, Secretary of the late Wisconsin State Forestry Commission. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

When we observe the prodigal and wholly unwise use of our forest heritage, it seems sometimes as if almost nothing were being done in any way to inculcate successfully the principles of sound management. One turns away, sick at heart, as he sees the treasures of our forests squandered recklessly, and feels that he cannot unaided exert any influence in favor of a true economy. Nevertheless, in spite of the discouraging outlook, it is possible to detect, here and there, some signs of better times and of a judicious policy. The constant, although sometimes tactless, exhortations of the early Commissioners of Agriculture, and the more skilful presentations of the matter by their successors, are beginning to yield tangible results. These results are as yet scanty, but they convey a little hope that the subject will soon receive the attention which it deserves, and be taken from the category of impracticable reforms, to be placed securely among the accepted factors of national prosperity.

The establishment of Government forest reserves, although not very graciously welcomed by some of those who will thereby most benefit in the long run, is a step in the right direction. If the reserves are tactfully managed, as it seems likely they will be, a great deal of good must follow in an educational way. People who now look upon forestry as on a par with gentleman-gardening and gentleman-agriculture, useful chiefly as affording a basis for the activity of humorists, will see that true forestry means a small but certain profit calculable in per cents. The establishment of forest schools connected with our larger institutions of learning, and the deepening interest in courses on forestry, where the name of Forest School has not yet been assumed, point in the same direction. The experiment of one of the largest forest-owning corporations in our country, looking towards scientific management of the *crop* of available wood, is perhaps even more hopeful than either of the other encouraging signs mentioned. Forest-wasters, greedily seeking to skin their forest-covered lands, have to pause when they hear of experiments in thrift on lands close to their own. It is also to the well-informed agricultural journals throughout the land that we must attribute much influence in helping to lift the weight of despair which has so long discouraged concerted effort to save our forests. Through evil report and ridicule, they have kept up the fight against the universal spendthrift policy which has hitherto characterized all lumbering here. To them and to the special forest journals must be given high praise, if lumbering in our country ever yields to wise forest man-

agement. And, further still, to certain judicious publications by the general Government and by the States, must be assigned part of the credit, when our forests come to be properly cared for.

The book before us is another indication that the times are ripe for reform. We are sorry to note that the author, on his title-page, writes *"late"* Forestry Commission of Wisconsin. It seems a pity to have efficient work stop where it is so much needed as in our northern tier of wooded States. Mr. Bruncken's book, of about 250 pages, is readable, and, for the most part, trustworthy. Exception may be taken to some of his suggestions relative to the treatment of forest trees, but such matters of detail do not impair the value of the work to the general reader. General readers are not likely to take up forest management, and specialists will of course be guided by the text-books rather than by general works like the present. Therefore we commend Mr. Bruncken's book as useful in all essential particulars.

Part of the prejudice against forestry in America has doubtless arisen from the silly attempts made here and there to introduce without modification European methods. In many countries in Europe, every severed twig and bit of bark must go to form the faggot, and eager hands clutch all fallen branches. Everything is turned to account. In our lumber camps the largest branches go to waste, and place, when dry, all the woods in peril from fire. The conditions of planting trees are wholly different, and the height of absurdity would seem to be reached when the owner of a small wood-lot is advised to keep a forester. In the book before us there are no such childish councils. The advice which the author gives is suited to our needs and our conditions. Until one stops to think how vast the normal forest area is in the United States, and how diversified are the constituents of our forests, he cannot realize the impracticability of laying down a set of rules to be applied throughout. World-wide differences exist between the forests of our Northeast, sometimes parched by protracted droughts, and the heavy growths in the moist Northwest. Each must have its own set of rules. The recognition of these differences is a part of the duty of the Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, and advice concerning the different kinds of management is now being sought by practical men. It is to be sincerely hoped that the book we have here noticed may excite a still wider interest in the whole subject, and indicate to many forest owners the advantage they could gain from expert advice at their command in the Division of Forestry and in some of the State commissions.

It is pleasant to notice that many young men in America are seriously adopting forestry as an occupation. To such as can bring to their work sound training in the elementary subjects which are concerned with the distribution, healthy growth, and diseases of forest trees, and supplement that training by practical studies in common-sense forestry, positions of usefulness must be open. At the outset, the number of positions will be small, and the pay never can be large; but to each well-equipped man, clear in his head and ready to work with strong hands; a career of honorable activity will be surely within reach. To all young men of courage who have such outdoor work in mind, we commend Mr. Bruncken's closing chapter, "On Forestry as a Profession."

The White Robe of Churches of the Eleventh Century: Pages from the Story of Gloucester Cathedral. By the Very Rev. H. D. M. Spence, D.D., Dean of Gloucester. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Pp. xx, 348.

This is a stout little octavo, illustrated by some seventy-five pictures, of which a dozen are separate plates in photogravure, half-tone, or collotype. These are from such photographs as are rather easily obtainable. Of the text illustrations, some are taken from Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionary of Architecture,' some from Corroyer's 'Architecture Romane'; those of decorative glass are taken from Merson's 'Les Vitraux'; while two or three are credited to other books, and some very humble, old-fashioned woodcuts, like those which used to decorate our school geographies, are inserted without credit being given—as is natural enough, their original provenience being, perhaps, lost. Three drawings by Herbert Railton are given; but these are views of the author's own special dominion, the Cathedral of Gloucester, and whether they have appeared in another book or not is not stated. No great success attends the use of these illustrations of such varied source and character. Even where there are no mistakes made in the legend or title and where the single elucidation may pass, the lack of true relation between different pictures is regrettable; and, perhaps, for utility's sake, the book would be better without the pictures than with them. There are blunders, however; thus, on page 161, the ground plans of the two great cathedrals of Paris and of Bourges are displayed, but on such widely different scales as to mislead the beginner into the conviction that one was vastly larger in total dimensions and in detail than the other; while at the same time Paris is called Bourges, and Bourges is called Paris. Thus much needs to be said of the illustrations, which, with a little more minute care, might have aided greatly the study of the work.

As for the text, it is far from being without value, and, perhaps, exemplifies that kind of utility which the work of the conscientious, half-informed writer may have for persons who will not read the work of the better scholar. It is a pity to see in the appendix, and occupying much more than half of it, reference with commendation to that rubbishing book which we have already reviewed, Leader Scott's 'Cathedral Builders.' This, and the fantastical theory about the Comacines, is likely to do a great deal of harm during the next five years, but each special occurrence of its mischievous influence is to be noted. Similarly, a kind of mistake that comes of too much stress laid upon one point, and too strong an assertion of something approximately true, is to be found, as might have been expected in such a book. It is rather gratifying, however, to note the author's use of the word Romanesque for the earlier round-arched building of England, and his consequent ignoring of the misleading term Norman—misleading when used for architecture not essentially influenced by the people or by the art of Normandy. The spirit of the book, the character of its assertions, the manner in which general principles are stated and urged, are generally good. Gloucester Cathedral serves continually to point the moral. As is natural, the writer deals with what he knows most minutely; and what he has to say about Romanesque design, about painting applied to mediæval architecture, and about restoration of ancient monuments, is as well explained by the instances under his eyes in Gloucester as it could have been in any other examples.

In fact, the book is calculated to give a great deal of valuable information, and more especially to give a right leading to the future studies of the beginner who may read it through. The little affectations, as in the title and in the odd laudation of the title given in the humble dedication to a princess, will hurt no one's feelings, and may even excite personal interest in the writings of a man who evidently possesses an individuality of his own.

Illustrations of Logic. By Paul T. Lafleur. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 97.

Prof. Lafleur has taken the trouble to ransack more than a hundred good writers and cull from them three hundred specimens of arguments, of which the greater part are valid or invalid according as they are free or not from any confusion between the ideas of *some* and *all*. That is to say, they are arguments that can be tested by Aristotelian syllogistics. The preface supplies unintentionally a three hundred and first example, for Mr. Lafleur there remarks that an instructor "finds difficulty in convincing his hearers that the logic of the class-room bears any relation to thought as met with in ordinary discussion and books"—implying that these illustrations ought to convince them that that logic supplies all that is requisite to judge of the validity of ordinary reasoning. Now, it is certainly true that most students, confusedly perceiving that any argument which requires close attention to apprehend its force depends upon something more than the *some* and *all* of traditional syllogistic, jump to the conclusion that there is no important element of right inference of which that doctrine takes account. This confuses *some* illative principles with *all*, and the conclusion is not true, since training in ordinary logic will almost insure a man against confusions of that kind. But, on the other hand, those who teach the old logic, finding that a great many important arguments can be thrown into syllogistic form, which really only proves that they involve a syllogistic element, jump to the conclusion that no important principle of reasoning has been overlooked, thereby falling into the very same fallacy that ensnares their pupils. The conclusion is not true, since, upon the examination of the syllogistic statement, it will often be found (not to say always, if the argument is at all difficult) that the whole gist of the reasoning has been thrown into the premises, so that the question of its validity is untouched by any criticism of the forms of the syllogisms. Hence, the need for a logic of relatives. The following three hundred and second "illustration" will show, if it be syllogistically treated, the truth of the above; ordinary syllogistic being incompetent to decide whether it is a sound argument or not:

If our duties on Cuban sugar were abolished, either our consumers would buy their

sugar much cheaper, or else Cuban planters would get a far better price for their sugar. But the latter event would create a powerful stimulus to the production of sugar in Cuba, and since what now limits the production there is not so much a lack of suitable land or of anything of which the possible supply is already near exhaustion, but only the cost of machinery, etc., which can be had in almost any quantity at present prices, or lower, it follows that the production would be immensely increased if much better prices could be got. Then, since this country must remain the principal market for Cuban sugar, either much more sugar must be sold here, or else the supply from other quarters (which is not now nearly so great as that from Cuba) must be very greatly curtailed. But, on the one hand, our people already use extravagant amounts of sugar, almost as much as they would if it cost nothing. Hence, a very considerable reduction of price would be necessary in order to increase the consumption in any large proportion. Nor, on the other hand, could the production of cane-sugar elsewhere than in Cuba be greatly curtailed unless there were a motive for partially abandoning its production, in the shape of a considerable diminution of the profits of that production. In either case, therefore, the price of sugar to consumers in the United States would be very considerably reduced.

Let anybody who thinks that, even granting the facts alleged, the above is not a sound argument (as most of our readers will probably agree it is not), endeavor to detect the flaw in it by any ordinary syllogistic rules, or let anybody show it is sound reasoning by those rules (without throwing the gist of the argument into the premises), and in either event we will admit that something has been done to rehabilitate the logic of the schools.

Mr. Lafleur may remonstrate that he puts forth no argument in his preface, but merely states a fact. John Dryden might on the same ground protest against Mr. Lafleur's Illustration No. 1, which is Dryden's couplet—

> "All human things are subject to decay,
> And when fate summons, monarchs must obey."

But the compiler would rightly reply, "Mr. Dryden, you perhaps had no definite intention of arguing, but in fact you did argue essentially as in the stock example, 'All men are mortal; Sortes is a man; hence, Sortes is mortal.'" In like manner, Mr. Lafleur's statement of fact does convey to the reader's mind an argument, and, if insidiously, so much the more dangerously.

After all this tirade, we desire to say that Mr. Lafleur's little book will certainly be an enlivening and useful agent in the classroom. We wish that somebody would supplement it with a collection of real illustrations of relative reasonings, of striking problems in the doctrine of chances, of moot cases in inductive reasoning, and of examples in hypothetic investigations.

La Rénovation de l'Asie. Par Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

This well-known French author, who writes briskly and with notable literary skill, made a journey of two years through the northern parts of Asia, studying the people and their official documents, and contributing the results of his observations from time to time to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He considers the renovation of Asia as the striking phenomenon of the second half of the century not yet finished. The main factors of this renovation are the evolution of Japan from a hermit nation to a world Power, the astonishing developments of Russia in Siberia, and the changes in China which suggest a problem of the first order of complexity. The revelation, since the war of 1894-5, of China's political weakness enables the author to picture in graphic phrase the amazing contrast between "the sick man in Peking" and the as yet untouched resources of both the soil and the sub-soil of China. Visiting the capital, which he describes in lively French phrase, the author sees, in the attitude of the population towards foreigners and their indifference to the outward world, a type of decadence of the entire empire. The chief cause of China's political marasmus lies in her learned men, whose minds are as impervious to new light and ideas as are the stone images on the Ming tombs.

In treating of the people, the author pays many a compliment to their abilities and character. They are not in decadence, but their spirit has lost all elasticity. Their whole look is backward. Their golden age was long ago, and the future has no hope. While Japanese think that if Confucius and Mencius were living to-day, they would be in the forefront of progress, the Chinese picture them as mighty teachers always standing with their backs to the present. The author treats intelligently of the foreigners in China and of the concessions made to them in the years 1842, 1858, 1860, 1895, and 1898. The Chinese, even when they bow before the foreigners' force and profit by their material advantages, hold them in supreme contempt. This hostility among the learned directors of opinion is the greatest obstacle to progress.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu is surprised at the new relations between China and the Powers discernible since the war of 1895. These have resulted wholly to Russia's advantage. Japan had a dream of conquest; but Russia, drawing in France and Germany, not only drove Japan away from her prey, but substituted at Peking her own all-powerful influence in place of the British, which had been paramount before. The author gives a very readable résumé of Russia in Asia. His whole discussion is fresh, suggestive, and clear. He shows that Russian expansion in Asia was contemporaneous with that of western Europe in the New World. There are many analogies between the north of Asia and the north of America, in which are three zones, the author describing their extent and production. The native population is insignificant, and the immense majority of the inhabitants are Russians. The Polar tribes are decreasing, while the Mongol population is increasing more slowly than the Russians, who, having large families, lead all races. In this population of Russian emigrants, there are many hetereogeneous elements, including the Jews and the Raskolniks, or dissenters from the Russian church. The author is enthusiastic about the mineral riches and commercial possibilities, including the transit of tea from China and Japan, of southern Siberia. The cities are of little importance, the rural population being by far the most promising. The iron road is in competition with the sea path, and the wheel with the keel, but it is evident that by the overland road, and not by the ocean, the civilizations of the East and the West are to merge. Two million emigrants yearly rush over the rails to Siberia.

In treating of Japan, after glancing at its origins and past history, the author calls attention to the diversity of opinion about the Japanese and the reality of the reforms which they have undertaken. He is perfectly right in insisting that, to obtain a correct judgment, one must know Japan's history. Thus only can he appreciate the nature and the consequences of the modern transformation and gauge the chances of the future civilization of Japan. M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows that the evolution of Japan's early civilization was arrested under the Tokugawa shoguns, who excluded foreigners and so included the people that growth was impossible. When, however, the long-repressed energy broke forth, it was embraced by the European civilization without resistance. To-day Japan is a land of contrasts. The old and the new jostle. Landing at Nagasaki, our traveller voyaged through the Inland Sea, finding Yokohama, though only forty years old, with a population of 170,000 souls. Tokio is a city of telephones and electric lights. Amazing is the development of Japanese industry, which in its activities has been redoubled since the war with China, for Japan means to capture the Chinese market, the greatest single market in the world. She will not hesitate to fight Russia on the sea, should that be necessary. Yokohama is the commercial, Osaka is the manufacturing centre. Agricultural life is as yet predominant, though with a tendency to lessen in relative importance, the rural population being very dense on the plains and in the low valleys. The author was pleased with the good humor and politeness of the peasantry, notes the diffusion of Western civilization and instruction among them, shows the cost of living, and reveals the very modest budget of a little Japanese home. Statistical details illustrate the enormous development of commerce both at home and abroad.

Japan's remarkable financial prosperity on the eve of the war with China is another topic. The wonderful faculty of organization displayed during the campaigns, on land and sea, is praised. In consequence of this war, however, a military and naval programme of startling proportions has been formulated. Now, the problem of Japan is how to get the two hundred and forty million of yen to carry it out. Treating of politics and social life, M. Leroy-Beaulieu remarks the preponderance of the Samurai, that class of men who have enjoyed intellectual culture for a thousand years, while to the people at large even schools are a novelty. The clan spirit still survives. Though the "ring" of Choshiu and Satsuma men that surrounded the Emperor for thirty years is broken, and the combat of Parliament against the Ministry, made up of southern clansmen, is over, yet real party government has hardly been attained, for Japanese parties are chaotic. Signs of amelioration are nevertheless recognized.

The growth of a warmer sentiment between Japan and Great Britain has created a sort of championship for the integrity of the Chinese Empire, while hostility to Russia increases. Yet there are ways in which Russia and Japan may walk as friends and even allies. In the final chapter the author discusses, with ability and many a fertile suggestion, as well as with precedent and

analogy, the question whether a people can assimilate the civilization of a different race. How far does Japan desire similarity to Europe? He gives a correct picture of the country since the revision of the treaties, and believes that it will be necessary for the Japanese to enter into communication as intimately as possible, so that Western civilization may strengthen and not emaciate them. Altogether, this is a very timely and very able book by an author who gathers without prejudice his facts at first hand.

Textbook of Palæontology. By. K. A. von Zittel. Translated and edited by Chas. R. Eastman. Revised and enlarged edition. Macmillan & Co. 1900. Vol. I., pp. x, 706. 8vo. With 1,476 woodcuts.

Invertebrate palæontology long remained quiescent after the Darwinian ripples had thoroughly broken up the placid surface of zoölogy. This came about from the prevalence of the ancient notion that fossils were the "Medals of Creation," related to one another and to the existing fauna only as medals are to other medals. Thus there grew up a body of students who empirically correlated particular fossils with particular horizons, as one fastens price-tags to bolts of cloth in a shop. These men in the main studied fossils as fossils, with the least possible reference to existing animals, and many of them became wonderfully expert in their chosen field, and produced invaluable iconographic volumes illustrating fossil remains. A few, who studied vertebrate remains, were forced to use the bones of existing animals in comparisons, and it has been chiefly from this small company that palæontologic philosophers have arisen.

A gradual illumination slowly penetrated the cloisters of invertebrate palæontology, but no real change of method took place until very recently, long after the zoölogists had been rioting in the stimulating rays of the evolutionary sun. As usual, the textbooks have lagged behind the workers. That palæontology is not a distinct science, but a particularly hampered section of biology, where students struggle against enormous difficulties to win fragmentary but essential testimony as to the history of living organisms, was academically admitted in the spirit of the politician who was in favor of the Maine Law but opposed to its enforcement. To the efforts of Huxley, Cope, Hyatt, Ryder, and similar heresiarchs is due a change which is nothing less than fundamental in the way of looking at and interpreting the testimony of fossils.

Among those who had attained eminence in palæontology under the old conditions were a few who pressed earnestly but with cautious steps towards the light of the new day. The most eminent of these has long been acknowledged in Von Zittel. His manual and text-book of Palæontology have been of the greatest use to students, and have represented the best and most scientific summation of the older Palæontology in the attitude of welcoming the new. No worthy text-book of Palæontology has existed in the English language, the nearest approach to it being the illustrative palæontological paragraphs in Dana's 'Manual of Geology,' excellent of their kind but very limited in scope. With a view to supplying this deficiency, Dr. Eastman undertook a translation of Von Zittel's 'Grundzüge der Palaeontologie,' at first intended to be literal, but later, with the consent of the author, fundamentally altered in many respects. The chapters on the Protozoa and Coelenterata remain as in the original, but all the rest has been more or less modified, revised, or entirely rewritten. The gracious attitude of Dr. von Zittel towards the ducklings which have been hatched out in this process of incubation, for some of whom he can hardly be expected to show any paternal feeling, is beyond all praise. Nothing more fully informed with the true scientific spirit than his personal preface can be imagined.

The composite nature of the present work, some portions of which were only received by the editor after earlier parts were stereotyped, has naturally resulted in some incongruities, the most notable of which is the appearance in two places of certain families formerly regarded as corals, but now plausibly claimed by the students of Polyzoa. The recent advances in our knowledge of Conularia, its sessile habit and probable relegation to the hydroid polyps, have not found a place in the shuffling of old and new. However, criticisms of detail are relatively unimportant in view of the steps forward into the realm of modernity made by many chapters of this volume. The footing may not always be secure nor the trail clean-hewn of obstacles, but it leads in the right direction. The most notable advances are made in the groups of Polyzoa, Mollusca, and Trilobites, in which nothing but part of the bibliography and all the illustrations remain of the old work, the text being entirely original. Any book summing up the latest work on Crinoids, Polyzoa, Brachiopods, Cephalopods, and Trilobites by such authorities as Wachsmuth, Ulrich, Schuchert, Hyatt, and Beecher, must remain a classic, whether all matters of detail are finally accepted or not.

It is only fair to point out that the work done by Dr. Eastman's dozen collaborators, involving much time, drudgery, and sacrifice, has been wholly a labor of love; their services having been given at the appeal of the editor to make for the coming generation of students a manual which would join to lavish and elegant illustrations a text stimulated by the spirit of modern research, and in this way make the path easier for those who will, in some future decade, prepare a new Manual of Palæontology free from current incongruities and with all the advance of science recorded.

Bach. By C. F. Abdy Williams. E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 223.

The deepest of all musical thinkers died 150 years ago. Great would have been the astonishment of Johann Sebastian Bach and his fellow-townsmen and contemporaries could they have been told that, in the year 1900, American journalists would be called upon to review a new biography of him containing a three-page bibliography with more than fifty entries, one of them a monumental work in two volumes of nearly 1,900 pages. It is true that Bach was not without honor in his own country, but it was as a performer on the organ and the clavichord that he was appreciated, not as a composer. Even his organ playing was often above the comprehension of his neighbors, and at Arnstadt the Consistory charged him "with having made extraordinary variations in the chorals, and with intermixing many strange sounds, so that thereby his congregation were confounded." Later on, at Leipzig, he was admonished for "doing nothing" when he had been composing a number of his immortal church cantatas and the great Matthew Passion! Bach did not accept these slurs meekly. He was, in his small sphere, almost as great a fighter as Wagner, and was always in hot water with the authorities in his struggle in behalf of art. His temper, too, was on occasion as violent as Wagner's or Handel's. One day when Görner, the organist of the Thomas Church, made a blunder, Bach pulled off his own wig and threw it at him, shouting, "You ought to be a cobbler!"

Mr. Williams, whose readable little volume is based on the best German authorities, makes it clear that Bach was not so poor as has been assumed. His income from various sources was, it is true, only about $500 a year, but, as the author computes (p. 80), the purchasing power of this sum was equal to $3,150 in our day. However, Bach had nineteen children to bring up, and he sent two of them to the university, so that it is not surprising that his widow died in an almshouse and was buried in a pauper's grave. Bach's own grave was forgotten and lost. Its discovery, a few years ago, makes a detective story of great interest, which Mr. Williams might have advantageously incorporated in his pages. He should also have given some space to Mendelssohn and Franz for their labors in restoring Bach's works to the world. Apart from such omissions he has done his work well, and we have noted no errors except a few misprints (*sätzes* and *gülden* for *satzes* and *gulden*). The story of Bach's life is kept separate from the consideration of his works, which takes up about half the volume. The difference between Handel and Bach is thus summed up: "Handel, domiciled in England, knew his public, and knew them so well that he wrote works which not only became popular at once, but have never ceased to be popular. Bach either did not know or did not care to please his public, and wrote far above their heads, so that for a time after his death he was forgotten entirely. . . . Burney devotes nearly a whole volume to Handel and only one paragraph to Bach."

A Short History of Free Thought, Ancient and Modern. By John M. Robertson. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 477.

Free thought about religion has, far more than science or philosophy, been broken up into a hundred separate movements; and this circumstance compels, in any single-volume review of them, so succinct a treatment of each movement that, though this volume is not small and a good deal of it is in fine print, the history is rightly named a short one. Had sufficient references been given to other works to make this a guide to the literature of the special topics, it would have been a valuable manual; but, that not having been done, it remains a short history and nothing more.

Some general theories regarding the course of free thought that the author seeks constantly to illustrate, serve to connect the different morsels and to maintain the read-

er's interest. Mr. Robertson's own rationalism is extreme. It does not seem to have struck him as possible that thinking for one's self may bring a man to entertain a higher respect, in the matter of religion, for those elements of our nature that bind men together than for the speculations of his individual reason. Nor does he seem to recognize any conceivable outcome from rationalistic speculation but unbelief. Nor does he remark, what everybody perceives, that prevalent unbelief in any age is quite as gregarious and wanting in independence as prevalent belief, the vanity with which it is tinctured being rather a levitating quality than adding to its weight. He has not a word to say in favor of religion, but deems its influences irredeemably bad from first to last. It always tends, he finds, to grow more and more corrupt and corrupting. Christianity he seems to rank pretty low in the scale of religions, and thinks it could have gained predominance only after paganism had become very grossly superstitious, as it did after the establishment of the Empire. Christianity was itself a relative free thought. Free thought can, says Mr. Robertson, arise only out of the conflict of faiths. Still, skepticism is found everywhere, even among primitive and savage peoples. Persecution of it begins only when the material interests of the priests appear to be in jeopardy. So, religious wars cannot break out without political causes. Mr. Robertson holds to the unity of human nature in all ages and among all races, and says that pretending to explain an historic phenomenon by "national characteristics" is like explaining the action of opium by a soporific virtue—a remark which his readers may think becomes just or otherwise in proportion to the failure of the explanation to colligate different phenomena.

The modern part of the history, though drawn up with some ability, is not detailed enough to bring out its full interest. French and Dutch free thought, from Descartes to Robespierre, fills only thirty pages, and English deism another thirty. The ancient part is much more entertaining because of the author's theories.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia and Register of Important Events of the Year 1899. Third Series. Vol. IV. Appletons.

Bacon, F. The Wisdom of the Ancients, and New Atlantis. Cassells. 10c.

Bell, Lilian. As Seen by Me. Harpers. $1.25.

Belloc, Hilaire. Paris. London: Edward Arnold. 7s. 6d.

Brown, Bertha M. Physiology for the Laboratory. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85c.

Butler, A. G. The Choice of Achilles, and Other Poems. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.

Conway, Moncure D. Thomas Paine (1737-1809) et la Révolution dans les deux Mondes. Traduit de l'Anglais par F. Rabbe. Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie. 7 fr. 50c.

Corelli, Marie. Boy: A Sketch. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.

Cromwell, J. H. The American Business Woman. Putnams. $2.

Davidson, T. A History of Education. Scribners. $1.

Elson, H. W. Side-Lights on American History. Macmillan. Series II. 75c.

Fredericq, Dr. P. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ. Vierde Deel. Tijdvak der Hervorming in de Zestiende Eeuw (1514-23 September 1525). Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.

French, Dr. E. C. Food for the Sick: How to Prepare it; Food for the Baby. Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. $1.

Gardiner, A. P. The House of Cariboo, and Other Tales from Arcadia. New York: A. P. Gardiner. $1.

Gray, Maxwell. The Last Sentence. Appletons. $1.

Herbermann, Prof. C. G. The Bellum Catilinæ of C. Sallustius Crispus. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn. $1.

Johnson, Prof. C. F. Outline History of English and American Literature. American Book Co. $1.25.

Jones, Mary C. European Travel for Women: Notes and Suggestions. Macmillan. $1.

Kingsley, Nellie F. The Story of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Captain William Clark. [Baldwin's Biographical Booklets.] Werner School Book Co.

Markham, Violet R. South Africa, Past and Present: An Account of its History, Politics, and Native Affairs, Followed by Some Personal Reminiscences of African Travel during the Crisis preceding the War. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.50.

McCarthy, E. Familiar Fish, their Habits and Capture: A Practical Book on Fresh-Water Game Fish. Appletons. $1.50.

Mee, Huan. A Diplomatic Woman. Harpers. $1.

Nelson, Kathleen G. Tuen, Slave and Empress. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Official Illustrated Catalogue Fine Arts Exhibit United States of America, Paris Exposition of 1900. Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.

O'Hagan, Thos. Studies in Poetry, Critical, Analytical, Interpretative. Boston: Marlier, Callanan & Co.

Osborne, D. The Secret of the Crater (new ed. of A Mountain Moloch). Putnams. $1.

Parker, G. An Unpardonable Liar. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. $1.

Potter, H. A. Dix Contes Modernes des Meilleurs Auteurs du Jour. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Rutherford, W. G. St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans: A New Translation with a Brief Analysis. Macmillan. $1.25.

Scidmore, Eliza R. China, the Long-lived Empire. The Century Co. $2.50.

Scribe, E. Le Verre d'Eau, ou les Effets et les Causes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.

Sheridan, R. B. The Filipino Martyrs: A Story of the Crime of February 4, 1899. John Lane.

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